

# Version 7.2

## The LEDA User Manual

Algorithmic Solutions

# **Contents**















# Chapter 1

## Preface

One of the major differences between combinatorial computing and other areas of computing such as statistics, numerical analysis and linear programming is the use of complex data types. Whilst the built-in types, such as integers, reals, vectors, and matrices, usually suffice in the other areas, combinatorial computing relies heavily on types like stacks, queues, dictionaries, sequences, sorted sequences, priority queues, graphs, points, segments, . . . In the fall of 1988, we started a project (called LEDA for Library of Efficient Data types and Algorithms) to build a small, but growing library of data types and algorithms in a form which allows them to be used by non-experts. We hope that the system will narrow the gap between algorithms research, teaching, and implementation. The main features of LEDA are:

- 1. LEDA provides a sizable collection of data types and algorithms in a form which allows them to be used by non-experts. This collection includes most of the data types and algorithms described in the text books of the area.
- 2. LEDA gives a precise and readable specification for each of the data types and algorithms mentioned above. The specifications are short (typically, not more than a page), general (so as to allow several implementations), and abstract (so as to hide all details of the implementation).
- 3. For many efficient data structures access by position is important. In LEDA, we use an item concept to cast positions into an abstract form. We mention that most of the specifications given in the LEDA manual use this concept, i.e., the concept is adequate for the description of many data types.
- 4. LEDA contains efficient implementations for each of the data types, e.g., Fibonacci heaps for priority queues, skip lists and dynamic perfect hashing for dictionaries, ...
- 5. LEDA contains a comfortable data type graph. It offers the standard iterations such as "for all nodes v of a graph G do" or "for all neighbors w of v do", it allows to add and delete vertices and edges and it offers arrays and matrices indexed by nodes and edges,... The data type graph allows to write programs for graph problems in a form close to the typical text book presentation.
- 6. LEDA is implemented by a C++ class library. It can be used with almost any C++ compiler that supports templates.

7. LEDA is available from Algorithmic Solutions Software GmbH. See http://www.algorithmic-solutions.com.

This manual contains the specifications of all data types and algorithms currently available in LEDA. Users should be familiar with the C++ programming language (see [85] or [58]).

The manual is structured as follows: In Chapter Basics, which is a prerequisite for all other chapters, we discuss the basic concepts and notations used in LEDA. New users of LEDA should carefully read Section User Defined Parameter Types to avoid problems when plugging in self defined parameter types. If you want to get information about the LEDA documentation scheme please read Section DocTools. For technical information concerning the installation and usage of LEDA users should refer to Chapter TechnicalInformation. There is also a section describing namespaces and the interaction with other software libraries (Section NameSpace). The other chapters define the data types and algorithms available in LEDA and give examples of their use. These chapters can be consulted independently from one another.

More information about LEDA can be found on the LEDA web page: http://www.algorithmic-solutions.com/leda/

Finally there's a tool called xlman which allows online help and demonstration on all unix platforms having a LATEX package installed.

### New in Version 7.2

Please read the CHANGES and FIXES files in the LEDA root directory for more information.

# Chapter 2

## Basics

An extended version of this chapter is available as chapter Foundations of [66]

### 2.1 Getting Started

Please use your favourite text editor to create a file *prog.c* with the following program:

```
#include <LEDA/core/d_array.h>
#include <LEDA/core/string.h>
#include <iostream>
using std::cin;
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
using leda::string;
using leda::d_array;
int main()
{
  d_array<string,int> N(0);
  string s;
  while (cin \gg s) N[s]++;forall_defined (s,N)
      cout \langle\langle s\rangle \rangle \langle s\rangle \langle\langle s\rangle \rangle and \langle\langle s\rangle \rangle \langle s\rangle and \langle\langle s\rangle \ranglereturn 0;
}
```
If you followed the installation guidelines (see Chapter TechnicalInformation ff.), you can compile and link it with LEDA's library libleda (cf. Section Libraries). For example, on a Unix machine where g++ is installed you can type

g++ -o prog prog.c -lleda -lX11 -lm

When executed it reads a sequence of strings from the standard input and then prints the number of occurrences of each string on the standard output. More examples of LEDA programs can be found throughout this manual.

The program above uses the parameterized data type dictionary array  $(d_array < I, E)$ from the library. This is expressed by the include statement (cf. Section Header Files for more details). The specification of the data type  $d_{\textit{array}}$  can be found in Section Dictionary Arrays. We use it also as a running example to discuss the principles underlying LEDA in the following sections.

## 2.2 The LEDA Manual Page (the type specification)

In general the specification of a LEDA data type consists of five parts: a definition of the set of objects comprising the (parameterized) abstract data type, a list of all local types of the data type, a description of how to create an object of the data type, the definition of the operations available on the objects of the data type, and finally, information about the implementation. The five parts appear under the headers definition, types, creation, operations, and implementation, respectively. Sometimes there is also a fifth part showing an example.

#### • Definition

This part of the specification defines the objects (also called instances or elements) comprising the data type using standard mathematical concepts and notation.

#### Example

The generic data type dictionary array:

An object a of type **d\_array**<I, $E$ > is an injective function from the data type I to the set of variables of data type  $E$ . The types I and E are called the index and the element type, respectively.  $a$  is called a dictionary array from  $I$  to  $E$ .

Note that the types I and E are parameters in the definition above. Any built-in, pointer, item, or user-defined class type T can be used as actual type parameter of a parameterized data type. Class types however have to provide several operations listed in Chapter User Defined Parameter Types.

#### • Types

This section gives the list of all local types of the data type. For example,

 $d\text{-array} < I, E> :$ : item the item type.  $d_array \leq I, E$ ::index\_type *i*, the index type. d\_array<I,E>::element\_type ¿the element type.

#### • Creation

A variable of a data type is introduced by a C++ variable declaration. For all LEDA data types variables are initialized at the time of declaration. In many cases the user has to provide arguments used for the initialization of the variable. In general a declaration

 $XYZ < t1, ... , tk > y(x1, ... , xt);$ 

introduces a variable y of the data type XYZ<  $t1$ , ..., tk > and uses the arguments  $x_1, \ldots, x_t$  to initialize it. For example,

```
h_array<string,int> A(0);
```
introduces A as a dictionary array from strings to integers, and initializes A as follows: an injective function a from string to the set of unused variables of type int is constructed, and is assigned to  $A$ . Moreover, all variables in the range of  $a$ are initialized to 0. The reader may wonder how LEDA handles an array of infinite size. The solution is, of course, that only that part of  $A$  is explicitly stored which has been accessed already.

For all data types, the assignment operator  $(=)$  is available for variables of that type. Note however that assignment is in general not a constant time operation, e.g., if L1 and L2 are variables of type list  $\text{Tr}$  then the assignment  $L1 = L2$  takes time proportional to the length of the list  $L2$  times the time required for copying an object of type T.

Remark: For most of the complex data types of LEDA, e.g., dictionaries, lists, and priority queues, it is convenient to interpret a variable name as the name for an object of the data type which evolves over time by means of the operations applied to it. This is appropriate, whenever the operations on a data type only "modify" the values of variables, e.g., it is more natural to say an operation on a dictionary D modifies  $D$  than to say that it takes the old value of  $D$ , constructs a new dictionary out of it, and assigns the new value to  $D$ . Of course, both interpretations are equivalent. From this more object-oriented point of view, a variable declaration, e.g., dictionary<string,int> D, is creating a new dictionary object with name D rather than introducing a new variable of type dictionary string,  $int$ ; hence the name "Creation" for this part of a specification.

#### • Operations

In this section the operations of the data types are described. For each operation the description consists of two parts

1. The interface of the operation is defined using the C++ function declaration syntax. In this syntax the result type of the operation (void if there is no result) is followed by the operation name and an argument list specifying the type of each argument. For example,

list\_item L.insert (E x, list\_item it, int dir = leda::after)

defines the interface of the insert operation on a list  $L$  of elements of type  $E$ (cf. Section Linear Lists). Insert takes as arguments an element  $x$  of type  $E$ , a *list item it* and an optional relative position argument dir. It returns a list\_item as result.

E& A[I x]

defines the interface of the access operation on a dictionary array A. It takes an element x of type I as an argument and returns a variable of type  $E$ .

2. The effect of the operation is defined. Often the arguments have to fulfill certain preconditions. If such a condition is violated the effect of the operation is undefined. Some, but not all, of these cases result in error messages and abnormal termination of the program (see also Section Error Handling). For the insert operation on lists this definition reads:

A new item with contents x is inserted after (if  $dir = leda::after$ ) or before (if  $dir = leda::before$ ) item it into L. The new item is returned. Precondition: item it must be in L.

For the access operation on dictionary arrays the definition reads:

returns the variable  $A(x)$ .

#### • Implementation

The implementation section lists the (default) data structures used to implement the data type and gives the time bounds for the operations and the space requirement. For example,

Dictionary arrays are implemented by randomized search trees ([3]). Access operations  $A[x]$  take time  $O(\log \text{dom}(A))$ . The space requirement is  $O(\text{dom}(A))$ .

## 2.3 User Defined Parameter Types

If a user defined class type  $T$  shall be used as actual type parameter in a container class, it has to provide the following operations:



and if required by the parameterized data type



#### Notice: Starting with version 4.4 of LEDA, the operations "compare" and "Hash" for a user defined type need to be defined inside the "namespace leda"!

In the following two subsections we explain the background of the required compare and hash function. Section Implementation Parameters concerns a very special parameter type, namely implementation parameters.

#### 2.3.1 Linear Orders

Many data types, such as dictionaries, priority queues, and sorted sequences require linearly ordered parameter types. Whenever a type T is used in such a situation, e.g. in dictionary<T,...> the function

#### int compare(const T&, const T&)

must be declared and must define a linear order on the data type T.

A binary relation rel on a set T is called a linear order on T if for all  $x,y,z$  in T:

1) x rel x 2) x rel y and y rel z implies x rel z 3) x rel y or y rel x 4) x rel y and y rel x implies  $x = y$ 

A function *int compare(const T&, const T&)* defines the linear order rel on T if

$$
\text{compare}(x, y) \quad \begin{cases} < 0, \quad \text{if } x \text{ rel } y \text{ and } x \neq y \\ = 0, \quad \text{if } x = y \\ > 0, \quad \text{if } y \text{ rel } x \text{ and } x \neq y \end{cases}
$$

For each of the data types char, short, int, long, float, double, integer, rational, bigfloat, real, string, and point a function compare is predefined and defines the so-called default ordering on that type. The default ordering is the usual  $\leq$  - order for the built-in numerical types, the lexicographic ordering for string, and for point the lexicographic ordering of the cartesian coordinates. For all other types  $T$  there is no default ordering, and the user has to provide a *compare* function whenever a linear order on T is required.

Example: Suppose pairs of double numbers shall be used as keys in a dictionary with the lexicographic order of their components. First we declare class pair as the type of pairs of double numbers, then we define the  $I/O$  operations *operator>>* and *operator>* and the lexicographic order on pair by writing an appropriate compare function.

```
class pair {
  double x;
  double y;
public:
 pair() { x = y = 0; }
 pair(const pair & p) { x = p.x; y = p.y; }
 pair& operator=(const pair& p)
 {
   if(this != &p)
   \{ x = p.x; y = p.y; \}return *this;
 }
```

```
double get_x() {return x;}
double get_y() {return y;}
friend istream& operator>> (istream& is, pair& p)
{ is >> p.x >> p.y; return is; }
friend ostream& operator<< (ostream& os, const pair& p)
{ os << p.x << " " << p.y; return os; }
};
namespace leda {
int compare(const pair& p, const pair& q)
{
  if (p.get_x() < q.get_x()) return -1;
  if (p.get_x() > q.get_x()) return 1;
  if (p.get_y() < q.get_y()) return -1;
  if (p.get_y() > q.get_y()) return 1;
 return 0;
}
};
```
Now we can use dictionaries with key type pair, e.g.,

```
dictionary<pair, int> D;
```
Sometimes, a user may need additional linear orders on a data type T which are different from the order defined by compare. In the following example a user wants to order points in the plane by the lexicographic ordering of their cartesian coordinates and by their polar coordinates. The former ordering is the default ordering for points. The user can introduce an alternative ordering on the data type point (cf. Section Basic Data Types for Two-Dimensional Geometry) by defining an appropriate compare function (in namespace leda)

```
int pol_cmp(const point& x, const point& y)
{ /* lexicographic ordering on polar coordinates */ }
```
Now she has several possibilities:

1. First she can call the macro

```
DEFINE_LINEAR_ORDER(point, pol_cmp, pol_point)
```
After this call *pol-point* is a new data type which is equivalent to the data type point, with the only exception that if pol point is used as an actual parameter e.g. in dictionary<polpoint,...>, the resulting data type is based on the linear order defined by *pol\_cmp*. Now, dictionaries based on either ordering can be used.

dictionary<point,int> D0; // default ordering dictionary<pol\_point,int> D1; // polar ordering

In general the macro call

DEFINE\_LINEAR\_ORDER(T, cmp, T1)

introduces a new type  $T_1$  equivalent to type  $T$  with the linear order defined by the compare function cmp.

2. As a new feature all order based data types like dictionaries, priority queues, and sorted sequences offer a constructor which allows a user to set the internally used ordering at construction time.

dictionary<point,int> D0;  $\frac{1}{2}$  default ordering dictionary<point,int> D1(pol\_cmp); // polar ordering

This alternative handles the cases where two or more different orderings are needed more elegantly.

3. Instead of passing a compare function  $cmp(const T\&, const T\&)$  to the sorted type one can also pass an object (a so-called compare object) of a class that is derived from the class *leda\_cmp\_base* and that overloads the function-call operator int operator()(const T&, const T&) to define a linear order for T.

This variant is helpful when the compare function depends on a global parameter. We give an example. More examples can be found in several sections of the LEDA book [66]. Assume that we want to compare edges of a graph  $GRAPH <$  point, int  $>$ (in this type every node has an associated point in the plane; the point associated with a node v is accessed as  $G[v]$  according to the distance of their endpoints. We write

```
using namespace leda;
class cmp_edges_by_length: public leda_cmp_base<edge> {
  const GRAPH<point, int>& G;
public:
  cmp\_edges_by\_length(const GRAPH<point,int>& g): G(g){}
  int operator()(const edge& e, const edge& f) const
  { point pe = G[G.source(e)]; point qe = G[G.target(e)];
    point pf = G[G.source(f)]; point qf = G[G.target(f)];return compare(pe.sqr_dist(qe),pf.sqr_dist(qf));
  }
};
int main(){
  GRAPH<point, int> G;
```

```
cmp_edges_by_length cmp(G);
  list\texttt{edge} > E = G.all\_edges();
  E.sort(cmp);
  return 0;
}
```
The class cmp\_edges\_by\_length has a function operator that takes two edges e and f of a graph G and compares them according to their length. The graph G is a parameter of the constructor. In the main program we define  $cmp(G)$  as an instance of  $cmp\_edges\_by\_length$  and then pass  $cmp$  as the compare object to the sort function of list<edge>. In the implementation of the sort function a comparison between two edges is made by writing  $cmp(e, f)$ , i.e., for the body of the sort function there is no difference whether a function or a compare object is passed to it.

### 2.3.2 Hashed Types

LEDA also contains parameterized data types requiring a hash function and an equality test (operator==) for the actual type parameters. Examples are dictionaries implemented by hashing with chaining ( $dictionary\langle K,I,ch\$  hashing>) or hashing arrays ( h array $\leq$ I, E>). Whenever a type T is used in such a context, e.g., in h array $\leq$ I, ...> there must be defined

- 1. a hash function *int* **Hash**(*const*  $T\&$ )
- 2. the equality test *bool* **operator** ==  $\text{(const~T\&, constT\&)}$

Hash maps the elements of type T to integers. It is not required that Hash is a perfect hash function, i.e., it has not to be injective. However, the performance of the underlying implementations very strongly depends on the ability of the function to keep different elements of T apart by assigning them different integers. Typically, a search operation in a hashing implementation takes time linear in the maximal size of any subset whose elements are assigned the same hash value. For each of the simple numerical data types char, short, int, long there is a predefined Hash function: the identity function.

We demonstrate the use of Hash and a data type based on hashing by extending the example from the previous section. Suppose we want to associate information with values of the pair class by using a hashing array  $h$  array  $\epsilon$  pair, int > A. We first define a hash function that assigns each pair  $(x, y)$  the integral part of the first component x

```
namespace leda {
int Hash(const pair& p) { return int(p.get_x()); }
};
```
and then we can use a hashing array with index type pair

h\_array<pair, int> A;

### 2.4 Arguments

#### • Optional Arguments

The trailing arguments in the argument list of an operation may be optional. If these trailing arguments are missing in a call of an operation the default argument values given in the specification are used. For example, if the relative position argument in the list insert operation is missing it is assumed to have the value *leda::after, i.e.*, L.insert(*it, y*) will insert the item  $y >$  after item *it* into L.

#### • Argument Passing

There are two kinds of argument passing in C++, by value and by reference. An argument x of type type specified by "type  $x$ " in the argument list of an operation or user defined function will be passed by value, i.e., the operation or function is provided with a copy of  $x$ . The syntax for specifying an argument passed by reference is "type  $x$ ". In this case the operation or function works directly on x ( the variable  $x$  is passed not its value).

Passing by reference must always be used if the operation is to change the value of the argument. It should always be used for passing large objects such as lists, arrays, graphs and other LEDA data types to functions. Otherwise a complete copy of the actual argument is made, which takes time proportional to its size, whereas passing by reference always takes constant time.

#### • Functions as Arguments

Some operations take functions as arguments. For instance the bucket sort operation on lists requires a function which maps the elements of the list into an interval of integers. We use the C++ syntax to define the type of a function argument  $f$ :

 $T$   $(*f)(T1, T2, ..., Tk)$ 

declares f to be a function taking k arguments of the data types  $T1, \ldots, Tk$ , respectively, and returning a result of type  $T$ , i.e.

$$
f: T1 \times \ldots \times Tk \longrightarrow T
$$

### 2.5 Items

Many of the advanced data types in LEDA (dictionaries, priority queues, graphs, ...), are defined in terms of so-called items. An item is a container which can hold an object relevant for the data type. For example, in the case of dictionaries a *dic-item* contains a pair consisting of a key and an information. A general definition of items is given at the end of this section.

Remark: Item types are, like all other types, functions, constants, ..., defined in the "namespace leda" in LEDA–4.5.

We now discuss the role of items for the dictionary example in some detail. A popular specification of dictionaries defines a dictionary as a partial function from some type  $K$ to some other type I, or alternatively, as a set of pairs from  $K \times I$ , i.e., as the graph of the function. In an implementation each pair  $(k, i)$  in the dictionary is stored in some location of the memory. Efficiency dictates that the pair  $(k, i)$  cannot only be accessed through the key  $k$  but sometimes also through the location where it is stored, e.g., we might want to lookup the information i associated with key  $k$  (this involves a search in the data structure), then compute with the value  $i$  a new value  $i'$ , and finally associate the new value with  $k$ . This either involves another search in the data structure or, if the lookup returned the location where the pair  $(k, i)$  is stored, can be done by direct access. Of course, the second solution is more efficient and we therefore wanted to provide it in LEDA.

In LEDA items play the role of positions or locations in data structures. Thus an object of type dictionary  $\langle K, I \rangle$ , where K and I are types, is defined as a collection of items (type dic item) where each item contains a pair in  $K \times I$ . We use  $k, i > 1$  denote an item with key k and information i and require that for each  $k$  in K there is at most one i in I such that  $i, i >$  is in the dictionary. In mathematical terms this definition may be rephrased as follows: A dictionary  $d$  is a partial function from the set  $dic\_item$  to the set  $K \times I$ . Moreover, for each k in K there is at most one i in I such that the pair  $(k, i)$  is in d.

The functionality of the operations

dic\_item D.lookup(K k) I D.inf(dic\_item it) void D.change\_inf(dic\_item it, I i')

is now as follows: D.lookup(K k) returns an item it with contents  $(k, i)$ , D.inf (it) extracts i from it, and a new value i' can be associated with k by D.change\_inf(it, i').

Let us have a look at the insert operation for dictionaries next:

```
dic_item D.insert(K k, I i)
```
There are two cases to consider. If D contains an item it with contents  $(k, i')$  then i' is replaced by i and it is returned. If D contains no such item, then a new item, i.e., an item which is not contained in any dictionary, is added to  $D$ , this item is made to contain  $(k, i)$  and is returned. In this manual (cf. Section Dictionaries) all of this is abbreviated to

 $dic\_item$  D.insert $(K k, I i)$  associates the information i with the key k. If there is an item  $ik, j > in D$  then j is replaced by i, else a new item  $jk, i_k$  is added to D. In both cases the item is returned.

We now turn to a general discussion. With some LEDA types  $XYZ$  there is an associated type XYZ item of items. Nothing is known about the objects of type XYZ item except that there are infinitely many of them. The only operations available on XYZ items besides the one defined in the specification of type  $XYZ$  is the equality predicate "=="

and the assignment operator "=" . The objects of type  $XYZ$  are defined as sets or sequences of  $XYZ\_items$  containing objects of some other type Z. In this situation an XYZ *item* containing an object z in Z is denoted by  $|z_i|$ . A new or unused XYZ *item* is any  $XYZ\_{item}$  which is not part of any object of type  $XYZ$ .

Remark: For some readers it may be useful to interpret a *dic\_item* as a pointer to a variable of type  $K \times I$ . The differences are that the assignment to the variable contained in a  $dic<sub>i</sub>item$  is restricted, e.g., the K-component cannot be changed, and that in return for this restriction the access to  $dic\_items$  is more flexible than for ordinary variables, e.g., access through the value of the K-component is possible.

### 2.6 Iteration

For many (container) types LEDA provides iteration macros. These macros can be used to iterate over the elements of lists, sets and dictionaries or the nodes and edges of a graph. Iteration macros can be used similarly to the C++ for statement. Examples are

• for all item based data types:

**forall items**(it, D) { the items of D are successively assigned to variable it } **forall rev items** $(it, D)$  { the items of D are assigned to it in reverse order }

• for lists and sets:

forall $(x, L)$  { the elements of L are successively assigned to x} **forall rev** $(x, L)$  { the elements of L are assigned to x in reverse order}

• for graphs:

**forall nodes** $(v, G)$  { the nodes of G are successively assigned to v} **forall edges** $(e, G)$  { the edges of G are successively assigned to  $e$ } **forall adj edges** $(e, v)$  { all edges adjacent to v are successively assigned to  $e$ }

#### PLEASE NOTE:

Inside the body of a forall loop insertions into or deletions from the corresponding container are not allowed, with one exception, the current item or object of the iteration may be removed, as in

```
forall_edges(e,G) {
  if (source(e) == target(e)) G.del-edge(e);} // remove self-loops
```
The item based data types list, array, and dictionary provide now also an STL compatible iteration scheme. The following example shows STL iteration on lists. Note that not all LEDA supported compilers allow the usage of this feature.

```
using namespace leda;
using std::cin;
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
list<int> L;
// fill list somehow
list<int>::iterator it;
for ( it = L.begin(); it != L.end(); it ++ )cout << *it << endl;
```
list<int>::iterator defines the iterator type, begin() delivers access to the first list item via an iterator. end() is the past the end iterator and serves as an end marker. The increment operator  $++$  moves the iterator one position to the next item, and  $*$ it delivers the content of the item to which the iterator is pointing. For more information on STL please refer to the standard literature about STL.

For a more flexible access to the LEDA graph data type there are graph iterators which extent the STL paradigm to more complex container types. To make use of these features please refer to Graph Iterators.

# Chapter 3

# Modules

During the last years, LEDA's main include directory has grown to more than 400 include files. As a result, the include directory was simply too complex so that new features were hard to identify. We therefore introduced modules to better organize LEDA's include structure. Starting from version 5.0 LEDA consists of the several modules:

•  $core$  (LEDA/incl/core/)

Module core stores all basic data types (array, list, set, partition, etc.), all dictionary types (dictionary, d array, h array sortseq, etc.), all priority queues, and basic algorithms like sorting.

• *numbers* (LEDA/incl/numbers/)

Module numbers stores all LEDA number types (integer, real, rational, bigfloat, polynomial, etc.) as well as data types related to linear algebra (vector, matrix, etc.) and all additional data types and functions related to numerical computation (fpu, numerical analysis, etc.)

- $graph$  (LEDA/incl/graph/) Module graph stores all graph data types, all types related to graphs and all graph algorithms.
- $q\text{e}o$  (LEDA/incl/geo/) Module geo stores all geometric data types and all geometric algorithms.
- *graphics* (LEDA/incl/graphics/) Module graphics stores all include files and data types related to our graphical user interfaces, i.e. window, graphwin and geowin.
- $coding$  (LEDA/incl/coding/) Module codings contains all data types and algorithms relating to compression and cryptography.
- system  $(LEDA/incl/system/$ Module system contains all data types that offer system-related functionality like date, time, stream, error handling and memory management.

• *internal* (LEDA/incl/internal/)

Module internal contains include files that are needed for LEDA's maintenance or for people who want to implement extension packages.

- beta  $(LEDA/incl/beta/$ Module beta contains data types that are not fully tested.
- $exp$  (LEDA/incl/exp/)

Module exp contains data types that are experimental. Most of these data types can be used as implementation parameters for the data types dictionary, priority queues, d array, and sortseq. Starting with LEDA version 6.5, experimental data types are no longer available in pre-compiled object code packages.

## Chapter 4

# Simple Data Types and Basic Support Operations

This section describes simple data types like strings, streams and gives some information about error handling, memory management and file system access. The stream data types described in this section are all derived from the C++ stream types *istream* and *ostream*. They can be used in any program that includes the <LEDA/stream.h> header file. Some of these types may be obsolete in combination with the latest versions of the standard  $C^{++}$  I/O library.

## 4.1 Strings ( string )

#### 1. Definition

An instance s of the data type string is a sequence of characters (type *char*). The number of characters in the sequence is called the length of s. A string of length zero is called the empty string. Strings can be used wherever a C++ const char∗ string can be used.

Strings differ from the C++ type char∗ in several aspects: parameter passing by value and assignment works properly (i.e., the value is passed or assigned and not a pointer to the value) and strings offer many additional operations.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/string.h >$ 

#### 2. Types

 $string::size\_type$  the size type.

#### 3. Creation

string s; introduces a variable s of type string. s is initialized with the empty string.



introduces a variable  $s$  of type  $string.$   $s$  is initialized with the string produced by  $print(format, \dots)$ .

### 4. Operations









#### Iteration

**forall\_words** $(x, s)$  { "the words of s are successively assigned to  $x$ " }

**forall lines** $(x, s)$  { "the lines of s are successively assigned to  $x$ " }

#### 5. Implementation

Strings are implemented by C++ character vectors. All operations involving the search for a pattern x in a string s take time  $O(s.length() * x.length());$  [ ] takes constant time and all other operations on a string s take time  $O(s.length)).$ 

### 4.2 File Input Streams ( file istream )

#### 1. Definition

The data type *file\_istream* is equivalent to the *ifstream* type of C++.  $\#include \leq EDA/system/stream.h>$ 

### 4.3 File Output Streams ( file ostream )

#### 1. Definition

The data type *file istream* is equivalent to the *ofstream* type of C++.

 $\#include \leq EDA/system/stream.h$ 

### 4.4 String Input Streams ( string istream )

#### 1. Definition

An instance I of the data type  $string\_istream$  is an C++istream connected to a string s, i.e., all input operations or operators applied to I read from s.

 $\#include \leq EDA/system/stream.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

string istream  $I(const \ char * s);$ creates an instance I of type string istream connected to the string s.

#### 3. Operations

All operations and operators  $(\gg)$  defined for C++istreams can be applied to string input streams as well.

### 4.5 String Output Streams ( string ostream )

#### 1. Definition

An instance O of the data type  $string\_ostream$  is an C++ostream connected to an internal

string buffer, i.e., all output operations or operators applied to O write into this internal buffer. The current value of the buffer is called the contents of O.

 $\#include \leq EDA/system/stream.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

string ostream  $O$ ; creates an instance  $O$  of type string ostream.

#### 3. Operations

string  $O.\text{str}(\ )$  returns the current contents of  $O.$ 

All operations and operators  $\left\langle \langle \rangle \right\rangle$  defined for C++ostreams can be applied to string output streams as well.

## 4.6 Random Sources ( random source )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of type *random\_source* is a random source. It allows to generate uniformly distributed random bits, characters, integers, and doubles. It can be in either of two modes: In bit mode it generates a random bit string of some given length  $p(1 \le p \le 31)$ and in integer mode it generates a random integer in some given range  $[low..high]$  (low  $\leq$ high  $\langle$  low + 2<sup>31</sup>). The mode can be changed any time, either globally or for a single operation. The output of the random source can be converted to a number of formats (using standard conversions).

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/random\_source.h >$ 

#### 2. Creation



#### 3. Operations





## 4.7 Random Variates ( random variate )

#### 1. Definition

An instance R of the data type *random variate* is a non-uniform random number generator. The generation process is governed by an *array* int  $w$ . Let  $[l \nvert : r]$  be the index range of w and let  $W = \sum_i w[i]$  be the total weight. Then any integer  $i \in [l..h]$  is generated with probability  $w[i]/W$ . The weight function w must be non-negative and W must be non-zero.

 $\#include \le EDA/core/random\_variable.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

random variate  $R(\text{const} \text{ array}\leq int\geq \& w);$ 

creates an instance  $R$  of type *random variate*.

#### 3. Operations

int R.generate( ) generates  $i \in [l..h]$  with probability  $w[i]/W$ .

## 4.8 Dynamic Random Variates ( dynamic\_random\_variate)

#### 1. Definition

An instance R of the data type  $dynamic\_random\_variate$  is a non-uniform random number generator. The generation process is governed by an array  $\langle int \rangle$  w. Let  $[l..r]$  be the index range of w and let  $W = \sum_i w[i]$  be the total weight. Then any integer  $i \in [l \dots h]$  is generated with probability  $w[i]/W$ . The weight function w must be non-negative and W must be non-zero. The weight function can be changed dynamically.

 $\#include \le EDA/core/random\_variable.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $dynamic\_random\_variate$   $R(const~array\& w);$ 

creates an instance  $R$  of type *dynamic\_random\_variate*.

#### 3. Operations

int R.generate( ) generates  $i \in [l..h]$  with probability  $w[i]/W$ .

int R.set\_weight $(int i, int g)$ 

sets  $w[i]$  to g and returns the old value of  $w[i]$ . Precondition:  $i \in [l..h]$ .
## 4.9 Memory Management

LEDA offers an efficient memory management system that is used internally for all node, edge and item types. This system can easily be customized for user defined classes by the "LEDA MEMORY" macro. You simply have to add the macro call "LEDA\_MEMORY $(T)$ " to the declaration of a class T. This redefines new and delete operators for type  $T$ , such that they allocate and deallocate memory using LEDA's internal memory manager.

```
struct pair {
  double x;
  double y;
 pair() { x = y = 0; }
 pair(const pair & p) { x = p.x; y = p.y; }
 friend ostream& operator<<(ostream&, const pair&) { ... }
 friend istream& operator>>(istream&, pair&) { ... }
  friend int compare(const pair& p, const pair& q) { ... }
 LEDA_MEMORY(pair)
};
dictionary<pair, int> D;
```
The LEDA memory manager only frees memory at its time of destruction (program end or unload of library) as this allows for much faster memory allocation requests. As a result, memory that was deallocated by a call to the redefined delete operator still resides in the LEDA memory management system and is not returned to the system memory manager. This might lead to memory shortages. To avoid those shortages, it is possible to return unused memory of LEDA's memory management system to the system memory manager by calling

```
leda::std_memory_mgr.clear();
```
## 4.10 Memory Allocator ( leda allocator )

### 1. Definition

An instance A of the data type  $\text{leda}\text{-} \text{allowator} \leq T$  is a memory allocator according to the C++standard. *leda\_allocator<T*> is the standard compliant interface to the LEDA memory management.

 $\#include \leq EDA/system/allocator.h>$ 

### 2. Types

Local types are size\_type, difference\_type, value\_type, pointer, reference, const\_pointer, and const\_reference.



size\_type A.max size() the largest value n for which the call  $allocate(n, 0)$  might succeed.

## 5. Implementation

Note that the above class template uses all kinds of modern compiler technology like member templates, partial specialization etc. It runs only on a subset of LEDA's general supported platforms like  $g_{++} > 2.95$ , *SGI CC* > 7.3.

## 4.11 Error Handling ( error )

LEDA tests the preconditions of many (not all!) operations. Preconditions are never tested, if the test takes more than constant time. If the test of a precondition fails an error handling routine is called. It takes an integer error number i and a char $*$  error message string s as arguments. The default error handler writes s to the diagnostic output (cerr) and terminates the program abnormally if  $i \neq 0$ . Users can provide their own error handling function handler by calling

#### set\_error\_handler(handler)

After this function call handler is used instead of the default error handler. handler must be a function of type *void handler (int, const char\*)*. The parameters are replaced by the error number and the error message respectively.

#### New:

Starting with version 4.3 LEDA provides an exception error handler void exception\_error\_handler(int num, const char  $*$  msq)

This handler uses the C++exception mechanism and throws an exception of type leda exception instead of terminating the program. An object of type leda exception stores a pair consisting of an error number and an error message. Operations  $e.get_{mag}(x)$  and  $e.get_number()$  can be called to retrieve the corresponding values from an exception object e.

#### 1. Operations



```
void error handler(int err_no, const char * msg)
                                      reports error messages by passing err<sub>n</sub>o and msg
                                      to the default error handler.
LedaErrorHandler set error handler(void (*err\_handler)(int, const \; char*))
                                      sets the default error handler to function
                                      err_handler. Returns a pointer to the previous er-
                                      ror handler.
LedaErrorHandler get error handler() returns a pointer to the current default error han-
                                      dler.
void catch system errors(bool b = true)
                                      after a call to this function system errors ( e.g.
                                      bus errors and segmentation faults) are handled
                                      by LEDA's error handler.
```
 $\emph{bool} \qquad \quad \text{leda} \emph{assert} (\emph{bool } \emph{cond}, \emph{const } \emph{char} * \emph{err} \emph{-} \emph{msg}, \emph{int } \emph{err} \emph{-} \emph{no} = 0)$ calls  $error\_handler(err\_no, err\_msg)$  if  $cond =$ false and returns cond.

# 4.12 Files and Directories ( file )

## 1. Operations

## $\#include \leqslant LEDA/system/file.h>$





## 4.13 Sockets ( leda socket )

#### 1. Definition

A data packet consists of a sequence of bytes (in C of type unsigned char)  $c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . The first four bytes encode the number n of the following bytes such that  $n = c_0 + c_1 \cdot 2^8 + c_2 \cdot 2^{16} + c_3 \cdot 2^{24}$ . The LEDA data type 1eda\_socket offers, in addition to the operations for establishing a socket connection, functions for sending and receiving packets across such a connection. It is also possible to set a receive limit; if such a receive limit is set, messages longer than the limit will be refused. If the limit is negative (default), no messages will be refused.

In particular, the following operations are available:

 $\#include \leq LEDA/system/socket.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation



creates an instance S of type leda socket associated with host name host.

#### $led a\_socket \t S;$  creates an instance S of type  $led a\_socket.$

#### 3. Operations





## Sending and receiving packets





The following template functions can be used to send/receive objects supporting input and output operators for iostreams.



receives  $\emph{obj}$  from the connection partner of  $\emph{sock}.$ 

# 4.14 Some Useful Functions ( misc )

The following functions and macros are defined in <LEDA/core/misc.h>.





## 4.15 Timer ( timer )

### 1. Definition

The class *timer* facilitates time measurements. An instance  $t$  has two states: *running* or stopped. It measures the time which elapses while it is in the state running. The state depends on a (non-negative) internal counter, which is incremented by every start operation and decremented by every stop operation. The timer is running iff the counter is not zero. The use of a counter (instead of a boolean flag) to determine the state is helpful when a recursive function  $f$  is measured, which is shown in the example below:

```
#include <LEDA/system/timer.h>
leda::timer f_timer;
void f()
{
  f_timer.start();
  // do something ...
  f(); // recursive call
  // do something else ...
  f_timer.stop(); // timer is stopped when top-level call returns
}
int main()
{
  f();
  std::cout << "time spent in f " << f_timer << "\n"; return 0;
}
```
Let us analyze this example. When  $f$  is called in main, the timer is in the state *stopped*. The first start operation (in the top-level call) increments the counter from zero to one and puts the timer into the state running. In a recursive call the counter is incremented at the beginning and decremented upon termination, but the timer remains in the state *running*. Only when the top-level call of  $f$  terminates and returns to *main*, the counter is decremented from one to zero, which puts the timer into the state stopped. So the timer measures the total running time of f (including recursive calls).

 $\#include \leq EDA/system/timer.h$ 

#### 2. Types

timer :: measure auxiliary class to facilitate measurements (see example below).

## 3. Creation



### 4. Operations



### 5. Example

We give an example demonstrating the use of the class measure. Note that the function below has several return statements, so it would be tedious to stop the timer "by hand".

#include <LEDA/system/timer.h>

```
unsigned fibonacci(unsigned n)
{
  static leda::timer t("fibonacci");
   // report total time upon destruction of t
  leda::timer::measure m(t);
    // starts the timer t when m is constructed, and stops t
    // when m is destroyed, i.e. when the function returns
 if (n < 1) return 0;
 else if (n == 1) return 1;
  else return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2);
}
int main()
{
 std::cout \langle fibonacci(40) \langle "\ranglen";
  return 0; // reports "Timer(fibonacci): X.XX s" upon termination
}
```
## 4.16 Counter ( counter )

#### 1. Definition

The class counter can be used during profiling to count how often certain code is executed. An example is given below.

 $\#include \leq LEDA/system/counter.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation



#### 3. Operations



#### 4. Example

In the example below we count how often the function fibonacci is executed.

#include <LEDA/system/counter.h>

```
unsigned fibonacci(unsigned n)
{
  static leda:: counter cnt("fibonacci");
   // report upon destruction of cnt
 ++cnt;
 if (n < 1) return 0;
 else if (n == 1) return 1;
 else return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2);
}
int main()
{
 std::cout << fibonacci(40) << "\n";
 return 0; // reports "Counter(fibonacci) = 331160281" upon termination
}
```
## 4.17 Two Tuples (two\_tuple)

## 1. Definition

An instance p of type  $two\_tuple \leq A, B$  is a two-tuple  $(a, b)$  of variables of types A, and B, respectively.

Related types are *two\_tuple*, *three\_tuple*, and *four\_tuple*.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/tuple.h>$ 

### 2. Types

two tuple $\langle A, B \rangle$ :: first type the type of the first component.

 $two\_tuple \leq A, B \geq :: second\_type$ 

the type of the second component.

### 3. Creation



### 4. Operations



int Hash(const two tuple  $\langle A, B \rangle \& p$ )

hash function for *two\_tuples*. Each of the component types must have a Hash function.

#### 5. Implementation

The obvious implementation is used.

## 4.18 Three Tuples ( three tuple )

### 1. Definition

An instance p of type three-tuple $\langle A, B, C \rangle$  is a three-tuple  $(a, b, c)$  of variables of types A, B, and C, respectively.

Related types are *two-tuple*, *three-tuple*, and *four-tuple*.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/tuple.h >$ 

#### 2. Types

three\_tuple $\leq A, B, C\geq$ ::first\_type

the type of the first component.

three\_tuple $\leq A, B, C\geq$ :: second\_type

the type of the second component.

three\_tuple $\leq A, B, C\geq$ ::third\_type

the type of the third component.

#### 3. Creation



#### 4. Operations





### 5. Implementation

The obvious implementation is used.

## 4.19 Four Tuples (four\_tuple)

#### 1. Definition

An instance p of type  $four\_tuple \leq A, B, C, D \geq$  is a four-tuple  $(a, b, c, d)$  of variables of types A, B, C, and D, respectively.

Related types are *two-tuple*, *three-tuple*, and *four-tuple*.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/tuple.h>$ 

### 2. Types

 $four\_tuple < A, B, C, D>::first\_type$ 

the type of the first component.

 $four\_tuple \leq A, B, C, D \geq :: second\_type$ 

the type of the second component.

 $four\_tuple < A, B, C, D$ >::third\_type

the type of the third component.

 $four\_tuple < A, B, C, D>::fourth\_type$ 

the type of the fourth component.

#### 3. Creation

four tuple  $\langle A, B, C, D \rangle$  p; creates an instance p of type four tuple  $\langle A, B, C, D \rangle$ . All components are initialized to their default value. four tuple $\langle A, B, C, D \rangle$  p(const A& u, const B& v, const C& w, const D& x);

> creates an instance p of type  $four\_tuple < A, B, C, D$  and initializes it with the value  $(u, v, w, x)$ .

## 4. Operations



#### 5. Implementation

The obvious implementation is used.

#### 6. Example

We customize  $four\_tuples$  and define a  $h\_array$  for them.

```
#define prio() first()
#define inf() second()
```

```
#define pq_item() third()
#define part_item() fourth()
typedef four_tuple<int,int,int,int> my_qu;
```

```
my_qu q;
my_qu q1(2,2,0,0);
q.prio() = 5;
```

```
h_array<my_qu,int> M;
M[my_qu(2,2,nil,nil)] = 5;
```
## 4.20 A date interface ( date )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *date* represents a date consisting of a day d, a month m and year y. It will be denoted by  $dm_y$ . Valid dates range from 1.1.1 to 31.12.9999. A date is valid if it lies in the range and is correct according to the gregorian calendar, i.e. a year y is considered to be a leap year iff y is divisible by 4 but not by 100 or y is divisible by 400. The year part  $y$  is always a four digit number, so that each date in the valid range has an unambiguous representation.

With the *date* class there is associated an input and an output format, each is described by a string which determines how instances of type date are read from streams and how they are printed to streams. Printing the date 4.11.1973 using the format string "dd.mm.yy" will result in "04.11.73", whereas printing the same date using "mm/dd/yyyy" will produce "11/04/1973". The date type provides some predefined formats, it also allows userdefined formats and supports different languages (for month names and weekday names). A format string consists of tokens, not all tokens are valid for both input and output formats. But any sequence of valid tokens forms a valid format string, the only exception to this rule is the *delim* token (see the table below). In order to avoid ambiguities when parsing a format string the longest prefix rule is applied, which ensures that dd is parsed as a single token and not as twice the token d.

An input format does not have to refer to all the three parts (day, month and year) of a date; the parts which do not appear in the format are left unchanged when the format is used in an update operation. Applying the format "d.m.", for example, changes the day and the month part but not the year part. (The result of using input formats referring twice to the same part as in "m M" is undefined.) Please see table 4.1 for an overview of all possible tokens.

 $\#include \leq EDA/system/date.h>$ 

#### 2. Types

date:: month  $\{ Jan, Feb, Mar, Apr, May, Jun, Jul, Aug, Sep, Oct, Nov, Dec \}$ 

The enumeration above allows to specify months by their name. Of course, one can also specify months by their number writing date::month(m).

 $date::language\{ user_deflang, local, english, german, French\}$ 

When the language is set to *local*, the month names and weekday names are read from the local environment; the other identifiers are self-explanatory.

token	input	output	description
$\mathbf d$	yes	yes	day with 1 or 2 digits
dd	yes	yes	day with 2 digits (possibly with leading zero)
d <sub>th</sub>	yes	yes	day as abbreviated english ordinal number (1st, 2nd,
			$3rd, 4th, \ldots$
m	yes	yes	month with 1 or 2 digits
$\rm mm$	yes	yes	month with 2 digits (possibly with leading zero)
М	yes	yes	month name (when used in an input format this token
			must be followed by a single char $c$ which does not belong
			to any month name, $c$ is used to determine the end of
			the name. e.g.: " $d.M. yy"$ "
M:l	yes	yes	the first $l$ characters of the month name $(l \text{ must be a})$
			single digit)
yу	yes	yes	year with 2 digits (yy is considered to represent a year
			in $[1950;2049]$
<b>yyyy</b>	yes	yes	year with 4 digits
[yy]	yes	yes	input: year with $2$ or $4$ digits $\frac{\ }{2}$ output: same as yyyy
W	no	yes	calendar week (in the range [1;53]) (see $get\_week($ ) for
			details)
diy	no	yes	day in the year (in the range $[1,366]$ )
dow	$\mathop{\mathrm{no}}$	yes	day of the week $(1=$ Monday, , $7=$ Sunday)
<b>DOW</b>	no	yes	name of the weekday
DOW: l	$\mathop{\mathrm{no}}$	yes	the first $l$ characters of the weekday name $(l \text{ must be a})$
			single digit)
" $txt"$	yes	yes	matches/prints $txt$ ( $txt$ must not contain a double quote)
' txt'	yes	yes	matches/prints $txt$ ( $txt$ must not contain a single quote)
$\boldsymbol{c}$	yes	yes	matches/prints $c$ ( $c \notin \{d, m, M, ?, *, ;\}$ )
$\overline{\mathcal{C}}$	yes	$\operatorname{no}$	matches a single arbitrary character
$*C$	yes	$\operatorname{no}$	matches any sequence of characters ending with $\boldsymbol{c}$
	yes	yes	separates different formats, e.g. "d.M.yy;dd.mm.yy"
			input: the first format that matches the input is used
			output: all but the first format is ignored
$\text{delim}:c$	yes	no	serves as delimiter when reading input from $\overline{c}$
			streams (If this token is used, it must be the
			first in the format string.) When you use
			"delim: $\n\langle n; d.M. yy \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^n$ " as input format to
			read a date from a stream, everything until the
			first occurence of " $\langle n \rangle$ " is read and then the format
			"d.M.yy\n;d.m.yyyy\n" is applied.

Table 4.1: Token Overview

date::format { user\_deffmt, US\_standard, german standard, colons, hyphens }

The format US\_standard is an abbreviation for  $mm/dd/[yy]yy$ , the format *german standard* is the same as  $dd.mm. [yy]yy$ , the other formats are the same as the latter except that the periods are replaced by colons/hyphens.

#### 3. Creation

date D; creates an instance D of type date and initializes it to the current date.

Precondition: date\_str represents a valid date.

date  $D(int d, month m, int y);$ 

creates an instance  $D$  of type *date* and initializes it to  $d$ *m.y.* Precondition: d.m.y represents a valid date.

date  $D(\text{string date\_str, bool}})$  swallow = true);

creates an instance  $D$  of type *date* and initializes it to date given in date\_str. If swallow is true, then the format  $\binom{m}{d}{yy}yy; d?m? [yy]yy"$  is used to parse *date\_str*, otherwise the current input format is applied.

4. Operations

#### 4.1 Languages and Input/Output Formats





#### 4.2 Access and Update Operations

All update operations which may fail have in common that the date is changed and true is returned if the new date is valid, otherwise false is returned and the date is left unchanged. (Note that the functions  $add\_to\_day$ ,  $add\_to\_month$  and  $add\_to\_year$  can only fail if the valid range  $(1.1.1 - 31.12.9999)$  is exceeded.)





### 4.3 Arithmetic Operations



The related operators  $++$ ,  $--$ ,  $+=$ ,  $--$  and all comparison operators are also provided.



#### 4.4 Miscellaneous Predicates



#### 5. Example

We count the number of Sundays in the days from now to 1.1.2020 using the following code chunk:

```
int number_of_Sundays = 0;
for (date D; D<=date(1,date::Jan,2020); ++D)
  if (D.get_day_of_week() == 7) ++number_of_Sundays;
```
Now we show an example in which different output formats are used:

```
date D(2, date::month(11), 1973);
date::set_output_format(date::german_standard);
cout << D << endl; // prints "02.11.1973"
date::set_language(date::english);
date::set_output_format("dth M yyyy");
cout << D << endl; // prints "2nd November 1973"
```
Finally, we give an example for the usage of a multi-format. One can choose among 3 different formats:

- 1. If one enters only day and month, then the year part is set to the current year.
- 2. If one enters day, month and year providing only 2 digits for the year, the year is considered to be in the range [1950, 2049]. (Note that the date 1.1.10 must be written as "1.1.0010".)
- 3. One may also specify the date in full detail by entering 4 digits for the year.

The code to read the date in one of the formats described above looks like this:

D.set\_to\_current\_date(); // set year part to current year date::set\_input\_format("delim:\n;d.m.\n;d.m.[yy]yy\n"); cin >> D; cout <<  $D$  << endl;

# Chapter 5

# Number Types and Linear Algebra

## 5.1 Integers of Arbitrary Length ( integer )

### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type integer is an integer number of arbitrary length. The internal representation of an integer consists of a vector of so-called *digits* and a sign bit. A *digit* is an unsigned long integer (type unsigned long).

 $\#include$  < LEDA/numbers/integer.h >

#### 2. Creation



integer  $a(const \; char * s);$ 

a creates an instance a of type integer from its decimal representation given by the string s.

integer  $a$ (const string & s);

a creates an instance a of type integer from its decimal representation given by the string s.

#### 3. Operations

The arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, + =, - =, \* =, / =, -(unary), ++, --, the modulus operation (%, % =), bitwise AND ( $\&$ ,  $\&$  =), bitwise OR (|, | =), the complement ( $\tilde{\ }$ ), the shift operations ( $\langle \langle \rangle \rangle$ ), the comparison operations  $\langle \rangle \langle \rangle =$ ,  $\rangle =$ ,  $\langle \rangle =$ ,  $\langle$ and the stream operations all are available.



### Non-member functions



### 4. Implementation

An integer is essentially implemented by a vector vec of unsigned long numbers. The sign and the size are stored in extra variables. Some time critical functions are also implemented in assembler code.

## 5.2 Rational Numbers ( rational )

## 1. Definition

An instance q of type *rational* is a rational number where the numerator and the denominator are both of type integer.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/rational.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

rational q; creates an instance q of type rational.

rational  $q(integer n);$ 

creates an instance  $q$  of type *rational* and initializes it with the integer n.

rational  $q(integer \, n, \, integer \, d);$ 

creates an instance q of type rational and initializes it to the rational number  $n/d$ .

rational  $q(double\ x);$ 

creates an instance q of type rational and initializes it with the value of  $x$ .

## 3. Operations

The arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, + =, - =, \* =, / =, -(unary), ++, --, the comparison operations  $\langle \langle \langle -\rangle, \rangle = \langle -\rangle = \langle -\rangle = \rangle =$  and the stream operations are all available.





## 4. Implementation

A rational is implemented by two integer numbers which represent the numerator and the denominator. The sign is represented by the sign of the numerator.

## 5.3 The data type bigfloat ( bigfloat )

### 1. Definition

In general a *bigfloat* is given by two integers s and e where s is the significant and e is the exponent. The tuple  $(s, e)$  represents the real number

 $s \cdot 2^e$ .

In addition, there are the special bigfloat values NaN (not a number),  $pZero, nZero$  $(= +0, -0)$ , and pInf, nInf  $(= +\infty, -\infty)$ . These special values behave as defined by the IEEE floating point standard. In particular,  $\frac{5}{+0} = \infty$ ,  $\frac{-5}{+0} = -\infty$ ,  $\infty + 1 = \infty$ ,  $\frac{5}{\infty} = +0$ ,  $+\infty + (-\infty) = NaN$  and  $0 \cdot \infty = NaN$ .

Arithmetic on bigfloats uses two parameters: The precision prec of the result (in number of binary digits) and the rounding mode mode. Possible rounding modes are:

- TO\_NEAREST: round to the closest representable value
- TO ZERO: round towards zero
- $TO$ <sub>-INF</sub>: round away from zero
- TO\_P\_INF: round towards  $+\infty$
- TO\_N\_INF: round towards  $-\infty$
- EXACT: compute exactly for  $+,-,*$  and round to nearest otherwise

Operations  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$  work as follows. First, the exact result z is computed. If the rounding mode is EXACT then z is the result of the operation. Otherwise, let s be the significant of the result; s is rounded to prec binary places as dictated by mode. Operations / and  $\sqrt{\ }$  work accordingly except that  $EXACT$  is treated as TO\_NEAREST.

The parameters *prec* and *mode* are either set directly for a single operation or else they are set globally for every operation to follow. The default values are 53 for prec and TO\_NEAREST for mode.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/biqfloat.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

A bigfloat may be constructed from data types *double*, long, int and integer, without loss of accuracy. In addition, an instance of type bigfloat can be created as follows.

bigfloat  $x$ (const integer & s, const integer & e);

introduces a variable x of type bigfloat and initializes it to  $s \cdot 2^e$ 


rounding modes bigfloat :: get rounding mode()

returns the currently active global rounding mode

 $output$  modes  $bifload$ :: set output mode(*output modes o\_mode*)

sets the output mode to *o\_mode* and returns the old output mode

A bigfloat x can be rounded by the call  $round(x, prec, mode, is\_exact)$ . The optional boolean variable is exact is set to true if and only if the rounding operation did not change the value of  $x$ .

 $integer \tto \ninteger(rounding modes \rmode = TO\_NEAREST,$  $bool\&\ is\_exact = bigfloat::dbool)$ returns the integer value next to  $x$  (in the given rounding mode)

integer to integer  $\epsilon$  to the summary state  $x$ , rounding modes rmode, bool  $\&$  is exact) returns  $x.to\_integer(...)$ .

#### 3. Operations

The arithmetical operators  $+, -, *, /, +=, -=, *=, /=, sqrt$ , the comparison operators  $\langle \xi, \xi, \xi \rangle$ ,  $\psi = \xi$ ,  $\psi = \xi$  and the stream operators are available. Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, square root and power are implemented by the functions  $add, sub$ , mul, div, sqrt and power respectively. For example, the call

 $add(x, y, prec, mode, is\_exact)$ 

computes the sum of bigfloats x and y with prec binary digits, in rounding mode mode, and returns it. The optional last parameter *is\_exact* is a boolean variable that is set to true if and only if the returned bigfloat exactly equals the sum of x and  $y$ . The parameters prec and mode are also optional and have the global default values global prec and round mode respectively, that is, the three calls  $add(x, y, global_prec, round_model)$ ,  $add(x, y, global_{pre})$ , and  $add(x, y)$  are all equivalent. The syntax for functions sub, mul, div, and sqrt is analogous.

The operators  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$ , and  $/$  are implemented by their counterparts among the functions add, sub, mul and div. For example, the call  $x + y$  is equivalent to  $add(x, y)$ .





istream& istream& is  $\gg$  bigfloat& x

reads  $\boldsymbol{x}$  from input stream  $i\boldsymbol{s}$  in decimal format

# 5.4 The data type real ( real )

#### 1. Definition

An instance x of the data type real is a real algebraic number. There are many ways to construct a real: either by conversion from double, bigfloat, integer or rational, by applying one of the arithmetic operators  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*,/$  or  $\sqrt[d]{ }$  to real numbers or by using the ⋄-operator to define a real root of a polynomial over real numbers. One may test the sign of a real number or compare two real numbers by any of the comparison relations  $=,\neq,<,\leq,>\text{ and }\geq.$  The outcome of such a test is mathematically exact. We give consider an example expression to clarify this:

$$
x := (\sqrt{17} - \sqrt{12}) * (\sqrt{17} + \sqrt{12}) - 5
$$

Clearly, the value of x is zero. But if you evaluate x using double arithmetic you obtain a tiny non-zero value due to rounding errors. If the data type real is used to compute x then  $sign(x)$  yields zero. 1 There is also a non-standard version of the sign function: the call x.sign(integer q) computes the sign of x under the precondition that  $|x| \leq 2^{-q}$ implies  $x = 0$ . This version of the sign function allows the user to assist the data type in the computation of the sign of  $x$ , see the example below.

There are several functions to compute approximations of reals. The calls  $x.to\_bigfloat()$ and x.get bigfloat error () return bigfloats xnum and xerr such that  $|xnum - x| \leq x$ err. The user may set a bound on xerr. More precisely, after the call  $xerr.$  The user may set a bound on  $xerr.$ x.improve\_approximation\_to(integer q) the data type guarantees  $xerr \leq 2^{-q}$ . One can also ask for *double* approximations of a real number x. The calls  $x.to\_double($ ) and x.get\_double\_error() return doubles xnum and xerr such that  $|xnum - x| \leq x$ err. Note that  $xerr = \infty$  is possible.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/real.h)$ 

#### 2. Types

typedef polynomial<real> Polynomial the polynomial type.

#### 3. Creation

reals may be constructed from data types *double*, *bigfloat*, *long*, *int* and *integer*. The default constructor real( ) initializes the real to zero.

### 4. Operations

double x.to.double() returns the current double approximation of x.

 $double x.to_double(double & error)$ 

as above, but also computes a bound on the absolute error.





$\sqrt{x}$	
$real$	root(const real& x, int d)
$\sqrt{x}$ , precondition: $d \geq 2$	
<b>Note:</b> The functions real roots and diamond below are all experimental if they are applied to a polynomial which is not square-free.	
<i>int</i>	real roots(const Polynomials $P$ , list $\neg$ red $\geq 2$ )
$int$	real roots(const Polynomials $P$ , list $\neg$ red $\geq 2$ )
$int$	real roots(const Holynomials $P$ , list $\neg$ red $\geq 2$ )
$int$	real roots(const if $P$ dynamials $P$ , list $\neg$ red $\geq 2$ )
$int$	real roots(const int-Polynomial in $1$ , $local$ is squarefree)
$int$	real roots(const int-Polynomial $\geq 2$ , list $\neg$ red $\geq 2$ )
$int$	real roots (const int-Polynomial $\geq 2$ , list $\neg$ red $\geq 2$ )
$int$	real (const (const if $1$ )- $normal$ (right if $1$ ), $constant$ is zero, $standard \geq 2$ ), $standard \geq 2$ and $standard(int j, constant \geq 2), standard \geq 2.$
$rel$	diamond is squarefree

absolute value of  $\boldsymbol{x}$ 

real  $sqrt{c}$  sqrt $(c$ onst real $\& x)$ 



returns small\_rational\_between( $x - eps$ ,  $x + eps$ ).

#### 5. Implementation

A real is represented by the expression which defines it and an interval inclusion I that contains the exact value of the real. The arithmetic operators  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$ ,  $\sqrt{4}$  take constant time. When the sign of a real number needs to be determined, the data type first computes a number q, if not already given as an argument to *sign*, such that  $|x| \leq 2^{-q}$  implies  $x = 0$ . The bound q is computed as described in [81]. Using *bigfloat* arithmetic, the data type then computes an interval I of maximal length  $2^{-q}$  that contains x. If I contains zero, then x itself is equal to zero. Otherwise, the sign of any point in  $I$  is returned as the sign of x.

Two shortcuts are used to speed up the computation of the sign. Firstly, if the initial interval approximation already suffices to determine the sign, then no *bigfloat* approximation is computed at all. Secondly, the bigfloat approximation is first computed only with small precision. The precision is then roughly doubled until either the sign can be decided (i.e., if the current approximation interval does not contain zero) or the full precision  $2^{-q}$ is reached. This procedure makes the sign computation of a real number x adaptive in the sense that the running time of the *sign* computation depends on the complexity of  $x$ .

### 6. Example

We give two typical examples for the use of the data type real that arise in Computational geometry. We admit that a certain knowledge about Computational geometry is required for their full understanding. The examples deal with the Voronoi diagram of line segments and the intersection of line segments, respectively.

The following incircle test is used in the computation of Voronoi diagrams of line segments [18, 15]. For  $i, 1 \leq i \leq 3$ , let  $l_i : a_i x + b_i y + c_i = 0$  be a line in two-dimensional space and let  $p = (0, 0)$  be the origin. In general, there are two circles passing through p and touching  $l_1$  and  $l_2$ . The centers of these circles have homogeneuos coordinates  $(x_v, y_v, z_v)$ , where

$$
x_v = a_1c_2 + a_2c_1 \pm \text{sign}(s)\sqrt{2c_1c_2(\sqrt{N} + D)}
$$
  
\n
$$
y_v = b_1c_2 + b_2c_1 \pm \text{sign}(r)\sqrt{2c_1c_2(\sqrt{N} - D)}
$$
  
\n
$$
z_v = \sqrt{N} - a_1a_2 - b_1b_2
$$

and

$$
s = b_1 D_2 - b_2 D_1, \quad N = (a_1^2 + b_1^2)(a_2^2 + b_2^2)
$$
  

$$
r = a_1 D_2 - a_2 D_1, \quad D = a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2.
$$

Let us concentrate on one of these (say, we take the plus sign in both cases). The test whether  $l_3$  intersects, touches or misses the circle amounts to determining the sign of

$$
E := dist^{2}(v, l_{3}) - dist^{2}(v, p) = \frac{(a_{3}x_{v} + b_{3}y_{v} + c_{3})^{2}}{a_{3}^{2} + b_{3}^{2}} - (x_{v}^{2} + y_{v}^{2}).
$$

The following program computes the sign of  $\tilde{E} := (a_3^2 + b_3^2) \cdot E$  using our data type real.

int INCIRCLE( real  $a_1$ , real  $b_1$ , real  $c_1$ , real  $a_2$ , real  $b_2$ , real  $c_2$ , real  $a_3$ , real  $b_3$ , real  $c_3$ ) {

```
real RN = \text{sqrt}((a_1 * a_1 + b_1 * b_1) * (a_2 * a_2 + b_2 * b_2));real RN_1 = \sqrt{\frac{sqr(a_1 * a_1 + b_1 * b_1)}{sqr(b_1 + b_1)}}real RN_2 = \sqrt{\frac{sqt(a_2 + a_2 + b_2 + b_2)}{s}}real A = a_1 * c_2 + a_2 * c_1;real B = b_1 * c_2 + b_2 * c_1;real C = 2 * c_1 * c_2;
real D = a_1 * a_2 - b_1 * b_2;real s = b_1 * RN_2 - b_2 * RN_1;real r = a_1 * RN_2 - a_2 * RN_1;int sign_x = sign(s);int sign_u = sign(r);real x_v = A + sign_x * sqrt(C * (RN + D));real y_v = B - sign_v * sqrt(C * (RN - D));real z_v = RN - (a_1 * a_2 + b_1 * b_2);real P = a_3 * x_v + b_3 * y_v + c_3 * z_v;real D_3^2 = a_3 * a_3 + b_3 * b_3;real R^2 = x_v * x_v + y_v * y_v;real E = P * P - D_3^2 * R^2;return sign(E);}
```
We can make the above program more efficient if all coefficients  $a_i, b_i$  and  $c_i, 1 \le i \le 3$ , are k bit integers, i.e., integers whose absolute value is bounded by  $2^k - 1$ . In [18, 15] we showed that for  $\tilde{E} \neq 0$  we have  $|\tilde{E}| \geq 2^{-24k-26}$ . Hence we may add a parameter *int* k in the above program and replace the last line by

$$
return E \cdot sign(24*k + 26).
$$

Without this assistance, reals automatically compute a weaker bound of  $|\tilde{E}| \ge 2^{-56k-161}$ for  $E \neq 0$  by [16].

We turn to the line segment intersection problem next. Assume that all endpoints have  $k$ –bit integer homogeneous coordinates. This implies that the intersection points have homogeneous coordinates  $(X, Y, W)$  where  $X, Y$  and W are  $(4k + 3)$  - bit integers. The Bentley–Ottmann plane sweep algorithm for segment intersection [67] needs to sort points by their x-coordinates, i.e., to compare fractions  $X_1/W_1$  and  $X_2/W_2$  where  $X_1, X_2, W_1, W_2$ are as above. This boils down to determining the sign of the  $8k + 7$  bit integer  $X_1 * W_2$  –  $X_2*W_1$ . If all variables  $X_i, W_i$  are declared real then their sign test will be performed quite efficiently. First, an *interval* approximation is computed and then, if necessary, *bigfloat* approximations of increasing precision. In many cases, the interval approximation already determines the sign. In this way, the user of the data type *real* gets nearly the efficiency of a hand-coded floating point filter [36, 68] without any work on his side. This is in marked contrast to [36, 68] and will be incorporated into [67].

# 5.5 Interval Arithmetic in LEDA ( interval )

### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *interval* represents a real interval  $I = [a, b]$ . The basic interval operations  $+, -, *, /, \sqrt{\ }$  are available. Type *interval* can be used to approximate exact real arithmetic operations by inexact interval operations, as follows. Each input number  $x_i$  is converted into the interval  $\{x_i\}$  and all real operations are replaced by interval operations. If x is the result of the exact real calculation and I the interval computed by type *interval*, it is guaranteed that I contains x. I can be seen as a more or less accurate approximation of x. In many cases the computed interval  $I$  is small enough to provide a useful approximation of x and the exact sign of x. There are four different implementations of intervals (consult the implementation section below for details):

- Class *interval\_bound\_absolute*
- $\bullet$  Class interval bound relative
- Class interval\_round\_inside
- Class *interval\_round\_outside*, which is usually the fastest but requires that the IEEE754 rounding mode ieee positive is activated, e.g. by using the LEDA class fpu.

The interface of all interval variants are identical. However, note that the types interval round inside and interval round outside are only available on some explicitly supported UNIX platforms, currently including SPARC, MIPS, i386 (PC's compatible to 80386 or higher), and ALPHA. For all platforms, the name interval stands for the default implementation *interval\_bound\_absolute*.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/interval.h>$ 

*interval*  $x$ ; creates an instance  $x$  of type *interval* and initializes it with the interval {0}

interval  $x(VOLATILE\_I$  double a);

creates an instance x of type *interval* and initializes it with  $\{a\}$ 

interval  $x(int a);$  creates an instance x of type interval and initializes it with  ${a}$ 

*interval*  $x(long a)$ ; creates an instance x of type *interval* and initializes it with  $\{a\}$ 

interval  $x$ (const integer & a);

creates an instance  $x$  of type *interval* and initializes it with the smallest possible interval containing a

interval  $x$ (const bigfloat & a);

creates an instance  $x$  of type *interval* and initializes it with the smallest possible interval containing a

interval  $x$ (const real  $x$ );

creates an instance x of type interval and initializes it with the smallest possible interval containing a

interval  $x$ (const rational  $x$ );

creates an instance  $x$  of type *interval* and initializes it with the smallest possible interval containing a

#### 2. Operations

The arithmetic operations  $+, -, *, /, sqrt, +=, -=, *=, /=$  and the stream operators are all available. Important: If the advanced implementation *interval\_round\_outside* is used, the user has to guarantee that for each interval operation the IEEE754 rounding mode "towards  $+\infty$ " is active. This can be achieved by calling the function  $fpu::round\_up($ ). To avoid side effects with library functions that require the default IEEE754 rounding mode to nearest, the function  $fpu::round\_nearest($ ) can be used to reset the rounding mode.





### 3. Implementation

The types *interval\_round\_inside* and *interval\_round\_outside* represent intervals directly by (the negative of) its lower bound and its upper bound as doubles. Here all arithmetic operations require that the IEEE754 rounding mode "towards  $+\infty$ " is active. For type *interval\_round\_inside* this is done *inside* each operation, and for type interval round outside the user has to do this manually "from outside the operations" by an explicit call of  $fpu::round\_up($ ).

The types *interval*\_bound\_absolute and *interval\_bound\_relative* represent intervals by their double midpoint NUM and diameter ERROR. The interpretation is that NUM is the numerical approximation of a real number and  $ERROR$  is a bound for the absolute, respectively relative error of NUM .

# 5.6 Modular Arithmetic in LEDA ( residual )

#### 1. Definition

The data type *residual* provides an implementation of exact integer arithmetic using modular computation. In contrast to the LEDA type integer which offers similar functionality as residual, the user of residual has to specify for each calculation the maximal bit length b of the integers she wants to be exactly representable by residuals. This is done by a call of residual:  $set\_maximal\_bit\_length(b)$  preceding the calculation. The set of integers in the interval  $[-2^b, 2^b)$  is called the *current range* of numbers representable by *residuals*.

A residual number x that is outside the current range is said to *overflow*. As an effect of its overflow, certain operations cannot be applied to  $x$  and the result is undefined. These critical operations include e.g. all kinds of conversion, sign testing and comparisons. It is important to realize that for an integer  $x$  given by a division-free expression it only matters whether the *final result x* does not overflow. This is sometimes useful and hence overflow is not always checked by default.

Division is available for *residuals*, but with certain restrictions. Namely, for each division  $x/y$  the user has to guarantee at least one of the following two conditions:

- $y.is_invertible()$  is true
- $x/y$  is integral and x and y do not overflow.

If the first condition is satisfied, there is an alternative way to do the division  $x/y$ . Introducing the residual variable  $z = y$ .*inverse*(), the call  $x/y$  is equivalent to the call  $x * z$ . The latter form is advantageous if several divisions have the same divisor y because here the time-consuming inversion of y, which is implicit in the division  $x/y$ , has to be performed only once.

If the result of an operation is not integral, the computation will usually proceed without warning. In such cases the computation produces a nonsensical result that is likely to overflow but otherwise is a perfect *residual*. However, the operations mentioned above check for overflow. Note that the implemented overflow checks are not rigorous, detecting invalidity only with empirically high probability. Overflow checking can be switched off by calling set maximal bit length with a second, optional parameter residual ::no overflow check.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/residual.h>$ 

# 5.7 The mod kernel of type residual ( residual )

### 1. Definition

Type residual :: mod provides the basic modular arithmetic modulo primes of maximal size 2<sup>26</sup>. Here numbers modulo the prime p are represented by integral doubles in  $[0, \dots p-1]$ . This type cannot be instantiated, so there are only static functions and no constructors. The following functions have the common precondition that  $p$  is a prime between 2 and  $2^{26}$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/residual.h>$ 

# 2. Operations



# 5.8 The smod kernel of type residual ( residual )

### 1. Definition

Type *residual* :: smod is a variant of class *residual* :: mod that uses a *signed* representation. Here numbers modulo p are represented by integral doubles in  $(-p/2, +p/2)$ . All functions have the common precondition that  $p$  is a prime between 3 and  $2^{26}$ . The functions of type residual :: mod are also provided for class residual :: smod and have the same meaning, so we do not list them separately here.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/residual.h>$ 

#### 2. Operations

 $double$   $residual::frac(double a)$ 

returns  $a + z$  where z is the unique integer such that  $a + z \in [-1/2, 1/2)$ 

## 3. Creation



numbers

 $int$   $residual:: required$ primetable size(*int b*)

returns the number of primes required to represent signed numbers up to bit length b

The following functions have the common **precondition** that the residual objects  $a, x$ are integral and do not overflow.



sets  $x$  to the absolute value of  $a$ .

The remaining functions do not have implicit preconditions. Although not explicitly mentioned, the arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, +=, -=, \*=, /=, ++, --, the shift operations, the comparison operations  $\langle , \leq, \geq, \geq, ==, !=$  and the stream operations are available.

residual sqr(const residual & a) returns  $a * a$ residual det $2x2$ (const residual a, const residual a, const residual a, const  $c$ , const residual& d)

returns  $a * d - b * c$ 



The following functions provide direct read-only access to the internal representation of residual objects. They should only be used by the experienced user after reading the full documentation of type residual.

residual sequence residual :: get primetable( )

returns a copy of the currently used primetable

```
residual sequence residual :: get garnertable()
```
returns a copy of the currently used table of Garner's constants

residual sequence get representation()

returns a copy of the residual sequence representing

x

# 5.9 A Floating Point Filter ( floatf )

# 1. Definition

The type floatf provides a clean and efficient way to approximately compute with large integers. Consider an expression E with integer operands and operators  $+$ ,  $-$ , and  $*$ , and suppose that we want to determine the sign of  $E$ . In general, the integer arithmetic provided by our machines does not suffice to evaluate  $E$  since intermediate results might overflow. Resorting to arbitrary precision integer arithmetic is a costly process. An alternative is to evaluate the expression using floating point arithmetic, i.e., to convert the operands to doubles and to use floating-point addition, subtraction, and multiplication.

Of course, only an approximation  $E'$  of the true value  $E$  is computed. However,  $E'$  might still be able to tell us something about the sign of  $E$ . If  $E'$  is far away from zero (the forward error analysis carried out in the next section gives a precise meaning to "far away") then the signs of  $E'$  and  $E$  agree and if  $E'$  is zero then we may be able to conclude under certain circumstances that  $E$  is zero. Again, forward error analysis can be used to say what 'certain circumstances' are.

The type  $float$  encapsulates this kind of approximate integer arithmetic. Any integer (= object of type *integer*) can be converted to a  $floatf$ ;  $floatfs$  can be added, subtracted, multiplied, and their sign can be computed: for any  $float f x$  the function  $Sign(x)$  returns either the sign of x (−1 if  $x < 0$ , 0 if  $x = 0$ , and +1 if  $x > 0$ ) or the special value  $NO$  *IDEA*. If x approximates X, i.e., X is the integer value obtained by an exact computation, then  $Sign(x)! = NO\_IDEA$  implies that  $Sign(x)$  is actually the sign of X if  $Sian(x) = NO\angle IDEA$  then no claim is made about the sign of X.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/float.$ 

### 2. Creation



### 3. Operations



int Sign(const floatf & f)

as described above.

#### 4. Implementation

A floatf is represented by a double (its value) and an error bound. An operation on floatfs performs the corresponding operation on the values and also computes the error bound for the result. For this reason the cost of a *floatf* operation is about four times the cost of the corresponding operation on doubles. The rules used to compute the error bounds are described in ([67]).

#### 5. Example

see [67] for an application in a sweep line algorithm.

# 5.10 Double-Valued Vectors ( vector )

# 1. Definition

An instance of data type vector is a vector of variables of type double.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/vector.h>$ 

# 2. Creation



creates an instance  $v$  of type *vector*;  $v$  is initialized to a copy of  $w$ . The second argument is for compatibility with rat\_vector.

# 3. Operations





writes  $v$  componentwise to the output stream  $O$ .

istream  $\&$  istream  $\&$  I  $\&$  vector  $\&$  v reads v componentwise from the input stream I.

### Additional Operations for vectors in two and three-dimensional space

 $double \t v.xcoord()$  returns the zero-th cartesian coordinate of v.



#### 4. Implementation

Vectors are implemented by arrays of real numbers. All operations on a vector  $v$  take time  $O(v.dim))$ , except for dim and [] which take constant time. The space requirement is  $O(v.dim)).$ 

Be aware that the operations on vectors and matrices incur rounding errors and hence are not completely reliable. For example, if  $M$  is a matrix,  $b$  is a vector, and  $x$  is computed by  $x = M.\text{solve}(b)$  it is not necessarily true that the test  $b == M * x$  evaluates to true. The types integer-vector and integer-matrix provide exact linear algebra.

# 5.11 Double-Valued Matrices ( matrix )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *matrix* is a matrix of variables of type *double*.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/matrix.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

matrix  $M(int n = 0, int m = 0);$ creates an instance M of type matrix, M is initialized to the  $n \times m$ - zero matrix.

matrix  $M(int n, int m, double * D);$ 

creates the  $n \times m$  matrix M with  $M(i, j) = D[i * m + j]$  for  $0 \leq$  $i \leq n-1$  and  $0 \leq j \leq m-1$ . Precondition: D points to an array of at least  $n * m$  numbers of type *double*.

#### 3. Operations





#### 4. Implementation

Data type *matrix* is implemented by two-dimensional arrays of double numbers. Operations det, solve, and inv take time  $O(n^3)$ , dim1, dim2, row, and col take constant time, all other operations take time  $O(nm)$ . The space requirement is  $O(nm)$ .

assigns it to M.

Be aware that the operations on vectors and matrices incur rounding error and hence are not completely reliable. For example, if  $M$  is a matrix,  $b$  is a vector, and  $x$  is computed

by  $x = M.\text{solve}(b)$  it is not necessarly true that the test  $b == M * b$  evaluates to true. The types integer-vector and integer-matrix provide exact linear algebra.

# 5.12 Vectors with Integer Entries (integer\_vector)

# 1. Definition

An instance of data type *integer\_vector* is a vector of variables of type *integer*, the so called ring type. Together with the type *integer\_matrix* it realizes the basic operations of linear algebra. Internal correctness tests are executed if compiled with the flag LA SELFTEST.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/integer\_vector.h>$ 

### 2. Creation



the four-dimensional vector  $(a, b, c, d)$ .

### 3. Operations





# 4. Implementation

Vectors are implemented by arrays of type  $integer$ . All operations on a vector  $v$  take time  $O(v.dim($ )), except for *dimension* and [ ] which take constant time. The space requirement is  $O(v.dim($  )).

# 5.13 Matrices with Integer Entries ( integer matrix )

# 1. Definition

An instance of data type *integer matrix* is a matrix of variables of type *integer*, the so called ring type. The arithmetic type integer is required to behave like integers in the mathematical sense.

The types *integer\_matrix* and *integer\_vector* together realize many functions of basic linear algebra. All functions on integer matrices compute the exact result, i.e., there is no rounding error. Most functions of linear algebra are *checkable*, i.e., the programs can be asked for a proof that their output is correct. For example, if the linear system solver declares a linear system  $Ax = b$  unsolvable it also returns a vector c such that  $c^T A = 0$  and  $c^T b \neq 0$ . All internal correctness checks can be switched on by the flag LA SELFTEST. Preconditions are checked by default and can be switched off by the compile flag LEDA CHECKING OFF.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/integer_matrix.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

integer\_matrix  $M(int n, int m);$ 

creates an instance M of type *integer\_matrix* of dimension  $n \times m$ .

integer\_matrix  $M(int n = 0);$ 

creates an instance M of type *integer\_matrix* of dimension  $n \times n$ .

#### integer matrix  $M$ (const array integer vector  $\&$  A);

creates an instance  $M$  of type *integer\_matrix*. Let  $A$  be an array of  $m$  column - vectors of common dimension  $n$ .  $M$  is initialized to an  $n \times m$  matrix with the columns as specified by A.

integer matrix integer matrix :: identity  $(int n)$ 

returns an identity matrix of dimension n.

#### 3. Operations





# Arithmetic Operators













# Non-Member Functions







#### 4. Implementation

The datatype *integer\_matrix* is implemented by two-dimensional arrays of variables of type *integer*. Operations *determinant*, *inverse*, *linear\_solver*, and *rank* take time  $O(n^3)$ , *column* takes time  $O(n)$ , row,  $dim1$ ,  $dim2$ , take constant time, and all other operations take time  $O(nm)$ . The space requirement is  $O(nm)$ .

All functions on integer matrices compute the exact result, i.e., there is no rounding error. The implemenation follows a proposal of J. Edmonds (J. Edmonds, Systems of distinct representatives and linear algebra, Journal of Research of the Bureau of National Standards, (B), 71, 241 - 245). Most functions of linear algebra are checkable , i.e., the programs can be asked for a proof that their output is correct. For example, if the linear system solver declares a linear system  $Ax = b$  unsolvable it also returns a vector c such that  $c^T A = 0$  and  $c^T b \neq 0$ .

# 5.14 Rational Vectors (rat\_vector)

#### 1. Definition

An instance of data type *rat vector* is a vector of rational numbers. A d-dimensional vector  $r = (r_0, \ldots, r_{d-1})$  is represented in homogeneous coordinates  $(h_0, \ldots, h_d)$ , where  $r_i = h_i/h_d$  and the  $h_i$ 's are of type *integer*. We call the  $r_i$ 's the cartesian coordinates of the vector. The homogenizing coordinate  $h_d$  is positive.

This data type is meant for use in computational geometry. It realizes free vectors as opposed to position vectors (type  $rat\_point$ ). The main difference between position vectors and free vectors is their behavior under affine transformations, e.g., free vectors are invariant under translations.

rat vector is an item type.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/rat\_vector.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

rat vector  $v(int d = 2);$  introduces a variable v of type rat vector initialized to the zero vector of dimension d.

```
rat vector v(integer a, integer b, integer D);
```
introduces a variable  $v$  of type rat vector initialized to the two-dimensional vector with homogeneous representation  $(a, b, D)$  if D is positive and representation  $(-a, -b, -D)$  if D is negative. Precondition: D is non-zero.

rat vector v(rational x, rational y);

introduces a variable  $v$  of type  $rat\_vector$  initialized to the two-dimensional vector with homogeneous representation  $(a, b, D)$ , where  $x = a/D$  and  $y = b/D$ .

rat vector v(integer a, integer b, integer c, integer  $D$ );

introduces a variable  $v$  of type rat vector initialized to the three-dimensional vector with homogeneous representation  $(a, b, c, D)$  if D is positive and representation  $(-a, -b, -c, -D)$  if D is negative. Precondition: D is non-zero.

rat vector v(rational x, rational y, rational z);

introduces a variable  $v$  of type rat vector initialized to the three-dimensional vector with homogeneous representation  $(a, b, c, D)$ , where  $x = a/D$ ,  $y = b/D$  and  $z = c/D$ .

rat vector v(const array  $\epsilon$ rational  $\& A$ );

introduces a variable  $v$  of type  $rat\_vector$  initialized to the d-dimensional vector with homogeneous coordinates  $(\pm c_0, \ldots, \pm c_{d-1}, \pm D)$ , where  $d = A.size()$  and  $A[i] =$  $c_i/D$ , for  $i = 0, ..., d - 1$ .

rat vector v(integer a, integer b);

introduces a variable  $v$  of type rat vector initialized to the two-dimensional vector with homogeneous representation  $(a, b, 1)$ .

rat vector v(const integer vector & c, integer D);

introduces a variable  $v$  of type  $rat\_vector$  initialized to the vector with homogeneous coordinates  $(\pm c_0, \ldots, \pm c_{d-1}, \pm D)$ , where d is the dimension of c and the sign chosen is the sign of D. Precondition: D is non-zero.

rat vector  $v(\text{const integer\_vector} \& c);$ 

introduces a variable  $v$  of type rat vector initialized to the direction with homogeneous coordinate vector  $\pm c$ , where the sign chosen is the sign of the last component of c.

*Precondition*: The last component of  $c$  is non-zero.

rat vector v(const vector & w, int prec);

introduces a variable  $v$  of type rat vector initialized to  $(|P * w_0|, \ldots, |P * w_{d-1}|, P)$ , where d is the dimension of w and  $P = 2^{prec}$ .

#### 3. Operations

#### 3.1 Initialization, Access and Conversions

rat vector  $rat\_vector:: d2(integer \ a, integer \ b, integer \ D)$ 

returns a rat vector of dimension 2 initialized to a vector with homogeneous representation  $(a, b, D)$  if D is positive and representation  $(-a, -b, -D)$  if D is negative. Precondition: D is non-zero.



# Additional Operations for vectors in two and three-dimensional space






decides whether the vectors in A are linearly independent.

 $array \times rat\_vector$ > linear\_base( $const~array \times rat\_vector$ >& A)

computes a basis of the linear space spanned by the vectors in A.

### 4. Implementation

Vectors are implemented by arrays of integers as an item type. All operations like creation, initialization, tests, vector arithmetic, input and output on an vector  $v$  take time  $O(v.dim($ )).  $dim($ ), coordinate access and conversions take constant time. The operations for linear hull, rank and independence have the cubic costs of the used matrix operations. The space requirement is  $O(v.dim($ ).

# 5.15 Real-Valued Vectors ( real vector )

# 1. Definition

An instance of data type *real\_vector* is a vector of variables of type *real*.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/real-vector.h>$ 

# 2. Creation



#### 3. Operations





int compare by angle(const real vector & v1, const real vector & v2)

For a non-zero vector v let  $\alpha(v)$  be the angle by which the positive  $x$ -axis has to be turned counterclockwise until it aligns with  $v$ . The function compares the angles defined by  $v1$  and  $v2$ , respectively. The zero-vector precedes all non-zero vectors in the angle-order.

real vector cross product (const real vector & v1, const real vector & v2)

returns the cross product of the three-dimensional vectors  $v1$  and  $v2$ .

#### 4. Implementation

Vectors are implemented by arrays of real numbers. All operations on a vector  $v$  take  $O(v.dim))$  real-number operations, except for dim and  $\lceil \cdot \rceil$  which take constant time. The space requirement depends on the size of the representations of the coordinates.

# 5.16 Real-Valued Matrices ( real matrix )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *real matrix* is a matrix of variables of type *real*.

 $\#include \leq EDA(numbers/real_matrix.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

real matrix  $M(int n = 0, int m = 0);$ creates an instance  $M$  of type *real matrix*,  $M$  is initialized to the  $n \times m$  - zero matrix.

real\_matrix  $M(int n, int m, real * D);$ 

creates the  $n \times m$  matrix M with  $M(i, j) = D[i * m + j]$  for  $0 \leq$  $i \leq n-1$  and  $0 \leq j \leq m-1$ . Precondition: D points to an array of at least  $n * m$  numbers of type *real*.

#### 3. Operations



real vector  $M$ .solve $(const \text{ real\_vector} \& b)$ 





#### 4. Implementation

Data type *real\_matrix* is implemented by two-dimensional arrays of real numbers. Operations det, solve, and inv take time  $O(n^3)$  operations on reals, dim1, dim2, row, and col take constant time, all other operations perform  $O(nm)$  operations on reals. The space requirement is  $O(nm)$  plus the space for the nm entries of type real.

# 5.17 Numerical Analysis Functions ( numerical analysis )

We collect some functions of numerical analysis. The algorithms in this section are not the best known and are not recommended for serious use. We refer the reader to the book "Numerical Recipes in C: The Art of Scientific Computing" by B.P. Flannery, W.H. Press, S.A. Teukolsky, and W.T. Vetterling, Cambridge University Press for better algorithms.

The functions in this section become available by including *numerical analysis.h.* 

### 5.17.1 Minima and Maxima

double minimize function(double  $(*f)(double)$ , double  $xmin$ , double tol = 1.0e - 10)

finds a local minimum of the function  $f$  of one argument. The minimizing argument is returned in *xmin* and the minimal function value is returned as the result of the function.  $\textit{xmin}$ is determined with tolerance tol, i.e., the true value of the minimizing argument is contained in the interval  $[xmin(1 \epsilon$ ),  $xmin(1+\epsilon)$ , where  $\epsilon = max(1, xmin) \cdot tol$ . Please do not choose *tol* smaller than  $10^{-15}$ .

Precondition: : If  $+\infty$  or  $-\infty$  is a local minimum of f, then the call of *minimize\_function* may not terminate.

The algorithm is implemented as follows: First three arguments are determined such that  $a < b < c$  (or  $a > b > c$ ) and  $f(a) > f(b) < f(c)$ , i.e., a and c bracket a minimum. The interval is found by first taking two arbitrary arguments and comparing their function values. The argument with the larger function value is taken as a. Then steps of larger and larger size starting at b are taken until a function value larger than  $f(b)$  is found. Once the bracketing interval is found, golden-ratio search is applied to it.

template  $\langle \text{class } F \rangle$ double minimize function(const F& f, double& xmin, double tol =  $1.0e - 10$ )

> a more flexible version of the above. It is assumed that class F offers the operator

> double operator ( $\big( \big)$  (double x). This operator is taken as the function  $f$ .

# 5.17.2 Integration

double integrate function(double  $(*f)(double)$ , double l, double r, double delta =  $1.0e-2$ 

> Computes the integral of f in the interval  $[l, r]$  by forming the sum  $delta*\sum_{0\leq i\leq K}f(l+i\cdot delta)$ , where  $K=(r-l)/delta$ . Precondition:  $l \leq r$  and delta > 0.

template  $\langle \text{class } F \rangle$ double integrate function(const F& f, double l, double r, double delta =  $1.0e - 2$ ) a more flexible version of the above. It is assumed that class F offers the operator double operator ( $\partial$  (double x). This operator is taken as the function f.

# 5.17.3 Useful Numerical Functions

 $double\ binary\entropy(doublex)$ 

returns the binary entropy of x, i.e.,  $-x \cdot \log x - (1-x) \cdot$  $log(1-x)$ . Precondition:  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ .

# 5.17.4 Root Finding

double zero of function(double  $(*f)(double)$ , double l, double r, double tol = 1.0e - 10)

returns a zero x of f. We have either  $|f(x)| \leq 10^{-10}$  or there is an interval  $[x_0, x_1]$  containing x such that  $f(x_0) \cdot f(x_1) \leq 0$ and  $x_1 - x_0 \leq tol \cdot \max(1, |x_1| + |x_1|).$ Precondition:  $l \leq r$  and  $f(l) \cdot f(r) \leq 0$ .

template  $\langle \text{class } F \rangle$ 

double zero of function(const F& f, double l, double r, double tol =  $1.0e - 10$ )

a more flexible version of the above. It is assumed that class F offers the operator double operator ( $\partial$  (double x). This operator is taken as the function  $f$ .

# Chapter 6

# Basic Data Types

# 6.1 One Dimensional Arrays ( array )

#### 1. Definition

An instance A of the parameterized data type  $array\lt E>$  is a mapping from an interval  $I = [a,b]$  of integers, the index set of A, to the set of variables of data type E, the element type of A.  $A(i)$  is called the element at position i. The array access operator  $(A[i])$  checks its precondition  $(a \leq i \leq b)$ . The check can be turned off by compiling with the flag -DLEDA\_CHECKING\_OFF.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/array.h>$ 

#### 2. Types

 $array \leq E$ :  $item$  the item type.

 $array \leq E$ : value\_type the value type.

#### 3. Creation

array $\leq E$ > A(int low, int high); creates an instance A of type  $array\leq E$  with index set [low..high].

array $\lt E$  A(int n);

creates an instance A of type array $\langle E \rangle$  with index set  $[0..n-1]$ .

 $array \leq E$ > A(const std::initializer\_list  $\leq E$ >& lst); creates an instance A of type  $array\lt E$  and initializes it to a copy of lst, e.g.  $array < int > A(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$ 

 $array\leq E> A$ ; creates an instance A of type  $array\leq E>$  with empty index set.

#### Special Constructors

- $array \leq E$ > A(int low, const E& x, const E& y); creates an instance A of type  $array\leq E$  with index set  $[low, low + 1]$ initialized to  $[x, y]$ .
- array $\lt E$  A(int low, const E& x, const E& y, const E& w); creates an instance A of type array  $\leq$  with index set  $[low, low + 2]$ initialized to  $[x, y, w]$ .
- array $\langle E \rangle$  A(int low, const E& x, const E& y, const E& z, const E& w); creates an instance A of type  $array\leq E$  with index set  $[low, low+3]$ initialized to  $[x, y, z, w]$ .

### 4. Operations

#### Basic Operations





void A.permute (int low, int high)

the elements of  $A[low..high]$  are randomly permuted.

#### Sorting and Searching

void A.sort $(int (\ast comp)(const E\& , const E\& )$ 

sorts the elements of A, using function cmp to compare two elements, i.e., if  $(in_a, \ldots, in_b)$  and  $(out_a, \ldots, out_b)$ denote the values of the variables  $(A(a), \ldots, A(b))$  before and after the call of sort, then  $cmp(out_i,out_j) \leq 0$ for  $i \leq j$  and there is a permutation  $\pi$  of [a.b] such that  $out_i = in_{\pi(i)}$  for  $a \leq i \leq b$ .

void Asort() sorts the elements of A according to the linear order of the element type E. Precondition: A linear order on  $E$  must have been defined by  $compare(constE\&, constE\&)$  if E is a user-defined type (see Section 2.3)..

void A.sort $(int (\ast cmp)(const E\& , const E\& ), int low, int high)$ 

sorts sub-array A[*llow..high*] using compare function cmp.

- *void* Asort(*int low, int high*) sorts sub-array  $A[low..high]$  using the linear order on  $E$ . If  $E$  is a user-defined type, you have to define the linear order by providing the compare function (see Section 2.3).
- int A.unique() removes duplicates from A by copying the unique elements of A to  $A[A, low()], ..., A[h]$  and returns h  $(A.low( ) - 1$  if A is empty). Precondition: A is sorted increasingly according to the default ordering of type E. If  $E$  is a user-defined type, you have to define the linear order by providing the compare function (see Section 2.3).
- int A.binary\_search $(int (\ast cmp)(const E& , const E& ), const E& x)$

performs a binary search for  $x$ . Returns an  $i$  with  $A[i] = x$  if x in A, A.low() – 1 otherwise. Function cmp is used to compare two elements. Precondition: A must be sorted according to cmp.



### Iteration

STL compatible iterators are provided when compiled with -DLEDA\_STL\_ITERATORS (see LEDAROOT/demo/stl/array.c for an example).

#### 5. Implementation

Arrays are implemented by C++vectors. The access operation takes time  $O(1)$ , the sorting is realized by quicksort (time  $O(n \log n)$ ) and the binary search operation takes time  $O(\log n)$ , where  $n = b - a + 1$ . The space requirement is  $O(n * sizeof(E))$ .

# 6.2 Two Dimensional Arrays ( array2 )

### 1. Definition

An instance A of the parameterized data type  $array2 \le E$  is a mapping from a set of pairs  $I = [a..b] \times [c..d]$ , called the index set of A, to the set of variables of data type E, called the element type of A, for two fixed intervals of integers [a.b] and [c.d].  $A(i, j)$  is called the element at position  $(i, j)$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/array2.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

 $array2 \leq E$ > A(int a, int b, int c, int d);

creates an instance A of type  $array2 \leq E$  with index set [a..b]  $\times$  [c..d].

 $array2 \leq E$ > A(int n, int m);

creates an instance A of type  $array2 \le E$  with index set  $[0..n-1] \times$  $[0..m-1].$ 

### 3. Operations



#### 4. Implementation

Two dimensional arrays are implemented by C++vectors. All operations take time  $O(1)$ , the space requirement is  $O(I * sizeof(E)).$ 

# 6.3 Stacks ( stack )

#### 1. Definition

An instance S of the parameterized data type  $stack$  is a sequence of elements of data type E, called the element type of S. Insertions or deletions of elements take place only at one end of the sequence, called the top of  $S$ . The size of  $S$  is the length of the sequence, a stack of size zero is called the empty stack.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/stack.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

stack $\leq E$ > S; creates an instance S of type stack $\leq E$ >. S is initialized with the empty stack.

#### 3. Operations



#### 4. Implementation

Stacks are implemented by singly linked linear lists. All operations take time  $O(1)$ , except clear which takes time  $O(n)$ , where n is the size of the stack.

# 6.4 Queues ( queue )

# 1. Definition

An instance Q of the parameterized data type  $queue \leq E$  is a sequence of elements of data type E, called the element type of Q. Elements are inserted at one end (the rear) and deleted at the other end (the front) of  $Q$ . The size of  $Q$  is the length of the sequence; a queue of size zero is called the empty queue.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/queue.h$ 

# 2. Types

queue  $\leq E$ : value\_type the value type.

### 3. Creation



### 4. Operations



### Iteration

**forall** $(x, Q)$  { "the elements of Q are successively assigned to  $x$ " }

#### 5. Implementation

Queues are implemented by singly linked linear lists. All operations take time  $O(1)$ , except clear which takes time  $O(n)$ , where n is the size of the queue.

# 6.5 Bounded Stacks ( b stack )

#### 1. Definition

An instance S of the parameterized data type  $b\_stack$  is a stack (see section 6.3) of bounded size.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/b\_stack.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

b\_stack $\leq E$ >  $S(int n);$ 

creates an instance S of type  $b\_stack$  that can hold up to n elements. S is initialized with the empty stack.

### 3. Operations



#### 4. Implementation

Bounded stacks are implemented by C++vectors. All operations take time  $O(1)$ . The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

# 6.6 Bounded Queues (b\_queue)

### 1. Definition

An instance  $Q$  of the parameterized data type  $b$ -queue $\lt E$  is a (double ended) queue (see section 6.4) of bounded size.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/b_queue.h >$ 

#### 2. Creation

b\_queue  $\leq E$  >  $Q(int n);$ 

creates an instance  $Q$  of type  $b$ -queue< $E$ > that can hold up to n elements.  $Q$  is initialized with the empty queue.

### 3. Operations



# Stack Operations



# Iteration

**forall** $(x, Q)$  { "the elements of Q are successively assigned to  $x$ " }

# 4. Implementation

Bounded queues are implemented by circular arrays. All operations take time  $O(1)$ . The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

# 6.7 Linear Lists ( list )

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $L$  of the parameterized data type  $list \leq E$  is a sequence of items (list  $\leq$ : *item*). Each item in L contains an element of data type E, called the element or value type of  $L$ . The number of items in  $L$  is called the length of  $L$ . If  $L$  has length zero it is called the empty list. In the sequel  $\langle x \rangle$  is used to denote a list item containing the element x and  $L[i]$  is used to denote the contents of list item i in L.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/list.h>$ 

#### 2. Types



#### 3. Creation

list  $\leq E$  L; creates an instance L of type list  $\leq$  and initializes it to the empty list.

list< $E$ >  $L(const$  std::initializer\_list< $E$ > $\&$  lst); creates an instance L of type  $list \leq E$  and initializes it to a copy of lst, e.g.  $list < int > L(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$ 

#### 4. Operations

#### Access Operations





# Update Operations









#### Sorting and Searching

void L.sort(int  $(*cmp)(const E& , const E& )$ )

sorts the items of  $L$  using the ordering defined by the compare function  $cmp : E \times E \longrightarrow int$ , with

$$
cmp(a, b) \begin{cases} < 0, & \text{if } a < b \\ = 0, & \text{if } a = b \\ > 0, & \text{if } a > b \end{cases}
$$



type  $E$ , i.e., the linear order defined by function int compare(const E&, const E&). If E is a userdefined type, you have to provide a compare function (see Section 2.3).

void L.merge sort $(int (\ast comp)(const E& , const E& ) )$ 

sorts the items of L using merge sort and the ordering defined by cmp. The sort is stable, i.e., if  $x = y$  and  $\langle x \rangle$  is before  $\langle y \rangle$  in L then  $\langle x \rangle$  is before  $\langle y \rangle$  after the sort. L.merge sort() is more efficient than  $L.sort()$  if  $L$  contains large pre-sorted intervals.

void L.merge sort() as above, but uses the default ordering of type  $E$ . If  $E$  is a user-defined type, you have to provide the compare function (see Section 2.3).

void L.bucket\_sort $(int i, int j, int (*b)(const E&))$ 

sorts the items of  $L$  using bucket sort, where  $b$ maps every element x of L to a bucket  $b(x) \in [i..j]$ . If  $b(x) < b(y)$  then  $\langle x \rangle$  appears before  $\langle y \rangle$  after the sort. If  $b(x) = b(y)$ , the relative order of x and y before the sort is retained, thus the sort is stable.

$$
void \qquad \qquad L.\text{bucket.sort}(int (\ast b)(const \ E\&))
$$

sorts *list* $\leq$  into increasing order as prescribed by b Precondition: b is an integer-valued function on E.





### **Operators**



istream& istream& in  $\gg$  list<E>& L

same as  $L.read(in)$ ; returns in.

# Iteration

**forall items**(it, L) { "the items of L are successively assigned to it" }

forall $(x, L)$  { "the elements of L are successively assigned to  $x$ " }

STL compatible iterators are provided when compiled with -DLEDA STL ITERATORS (see  $LEDAROOT/demo/stl/list.c$  for an example).

#### 5. Implementation

The data type list is realized by doubly linked linear lists. Let c be the time complexity of the compare function and let d be the time needed to copy an object of type  $list \le E$ . All operations take constant time except of the following operations: search, revers items, permute and rank take linear time  $O(n)$ , item(i) takes time  $O(i)$ , min, max, and unique take time  $O(c \cdot n)$ , merge takes time  $O(c \cdot (n1 + n2))$ , operator=, apply, reverse, read, and print take time  $O(d \cdot n)$ , sort and merge sort take time  $O(n \cdot c \cdot \log n)$ , and bucket sort takes time  $O(e \cdot n + j - i)$ , where e is the time complexity of f. n is always the current length of the list.

# 6.8 Singly Linked Lists ( slist )

# 1. Definition

An instance L of the parameterized data type  $slist \leq E$  is a sequence of items (slist  $\leq E$ ): item). Each item in L contains an element of data type E, called the element or value type of  $L$ . The number of items in  $L$  is called the length of  $L$ . If  $L$  has length zero it is called the empty list. In the sequel  $\langle x \rangle$  is used to denote a list item containing the element x and  $L[i]$  is used to denote the contents of list item i in L.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/slist.h>$ 

### 2. Types



copy of *lst*, e.g. *list*  $\lt int > L(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$ 

4. Operations





# 6.9 Sets ( set )

## 1. Definition

An instance S of the parameterized data type  $set \leq E$  is a collection of elements of the linearly ordered type  $E$ , called the element type of  $S$ . The size of  $S$  is the number of elements in  $S$ , a set of size zero is called the empty set.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/set.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $set \leq E$ > S; creates an instance S of type  $set \leq E$ > and initializes it to the empty set.

### 3. Operations





# Iteration

 $\pmb{\quad \text{for all}}(x, S)$  { "the elements of  $S$  are successively assigned to  $x$  "  $\}$ 

#### 4. Implementation

Sets are implemented by randomized search trees [3]. Operations insert, del, member take time  $O(\log n)$ , empty, size take time  $O(1)$ , and clear takes time  $O(n)$ , where n is the current size of the set.

The operations join, intersect, and diff have the following running times: Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ be a two sets of type T with  $|S_1| = n_1$  and  $|S_2| = n_2$ . Then  $S_1$  join( $S_2$ ) and  $S_1$  diff( $S_2$ ) need time  $O(n_2 \log(n_1 + n_2))$ ,  $S_1$ .intersect( $S_2$ ) needs time  $O(n_1 \log(n_1 + n_2))$ .

# 6.10 Integer Sets ( int set )

#### 1. Definition

An instance S of the data type  $int_set$  is a subset of a fixed interval [a.b] of the integers, called the range of S.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/int_set.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

int\_set  $S(int a, int b);$ 

creates an instance S of type  $int_set$  for elements from [a.b] and initializes it to the empty set.



#### 3. Operations



In any binary operation below,  $S$  and  $T$  must have the same range:



```
int_set\&\text{ S.}intersect(const int_set\&\text{T})
```
replaces S by  $S \cap T$  and returns it.

int set & S.diff(const int set & T) replaces S by  $S \setminus T$  and returns it.

 $int_set\&$  S.symdiff(const int\_set & T)

replaces S by  $(S \setminus T) \cup (T \setminus S)$  and returns it.

int set & S.complement() replaces S by  $[a..b] \setminus S$  and returns it.



# 4. Implementation

Integer sets are implemented by bit vectors. Operations insert, delete, member, min and max take constant time. All other operations take time  $O(b - a + 1)$ .

# 6.11 Dynamic Integer Sets (d\_int\_set)

# 1. Definition

An instance  $S$  of the data type  $d$  int set is a subset of the integers.

 $\#include$   $<$   $LEDA/core/d\_int\_set.h$  >

# 2. Creation



# 3. Operations


- d\_int\_set  $S$  const d\_int\_set & T returns the difference  $S \cdot diff(T)$ .
- d int set S & const d int set & T returns the intersection of S and T.
- d int set  $S \mid const \text{ d-int}\text{.} set \& T$  returns the union  $S.join(T)$ .
- d int set  $S \%$  const d int set  $\& T$  returns the symmetric difference  $S \sim S \sim \mathcal{S}$ .
- d int set &  $S \rightarrow$  const d int set & T assigns  $S$ , join(T) to S and returns S.

d\_int\_set&  $S \equiv const \, d_{\text{int}\text{-}set\& T$  assigns  $S \text{diff}(T)$  to S and returns S.

d int set & S & = const d int set & T assigns S.intersect(T) to S and returns S.

d int set & S | = const d int set & T assigns  $S$  join(T) to S and returns S.

d\_int\_set &  $S \% = const \ d_{\text{int}\_\text{set}} \& T$ 

assigns  $S\text{-}symdiff(T)$  to S and returns S.



fills L with all elements stored in the set in increasing order.

### Iteration

**forall elements** $(x, S)$  { "the elements of S are successively assigned to  $x$ " }

#### 4. Implementation

Dynamic integer sets are implemented by (dynamic) bit vectors. Operations member, empty, size, min and max take constant time. The operations clear, intersection, union and complement take time  $O(b-a+1)$ , where  $a = max($ ) and  $b = min($ ). The operations insert and del also take time  $O(b-a+1)$ , if the bit vector has to be reallocated. Otherwise they take constant time. Iterating over all elements (with the iteration macro) requires time  $O(b - a + 1)$  plus the time spent in the body of the loop.

# 6.12 Partitions ( partition )

# 1. Definition

An instance  $P$  of the data type *partition* consists of a finite set of items (*partition item*) and a partition of this set into blocks.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/partition.h$ 

# 2. Creation



# 4. Implementation

Partitions are implemented by the union find algorithm with weighted union and path compression (cf. [88]). Any sequence of  $n$  make block and  $m \geq n$  other operations (except for split) takes time  $O(m \alpha(m, n))$ . The cost of a split is proportional to the size of the blocks dismantled.

# 5. Example

Spanning Tree Algorithms (cf. section 10).

# 6.13 Parameterized Partitions ( Partition )

# 1. Definition

An instance  $P$  of the data type  $Partition \le E$  consists of a finite set of items (*partition item*) and a partition of this set into blocks. Each item has an associated information of type E.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/partition.h$ 

# 2. Creation

Partition  $\leq E$  P; creates an instance P of type Partition  $\leq E$  and initializes it to the empty partition.



void P.change inf(partition\_item it, const E& x) changes the information associates with  $\it{it}$  to  $\it{x}.$ 

# Chapter 7

# Dictionary Types

# 7.1 Dictionaries ( dictionary )

#### 1. Definition

An instance D of the parameterized data type  $dictionary\leq K, I\geq$  is a collection of items (dic item). Every item in D contains a key from the linearly ordered data type  $K$ , called the key type of  $D$ , and an information from the data type  $I$ , called the information type of D. IF K is a user-defined type, you have to provide a compare function (see Section 2.3). The number of items in  $D$  is called the size of  $D$ . A dictionary of size zero is called the empty dictionary. We use  $\langle k, i \rangle$  to denote an item with key k and information i (i is said to be the information associated with key k). For each  $k \in K$  there is at most one  $i \in I$ with  $\langle k, i \rangle \in D$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/dictionary.h$ 

### 2. Types

 $dictionary\leq K, I\geq :item$  the item type.

 $dictionary < K, I >::key\_type$  the key type.

 $dictionary < K, I >::inf\_type$  the information type.

 $dictionary \leq K, I \geq \dots$  the compare key function type.

### 3. Creation

 $dictionary < K, I > D;$ 

creates an instance D of type  $dictionary\leq K$ , I based on the linear order defined by the global compare function and initializes it with the empty dictionary.

 $dictionary < K, I > D (cmp\_key\_func\ comp);$ 

creates an instance  $D$  of type  $\text{dictionary} \leq K, I$  based on the linear order defined by the compare function cmp and initializes it with the empty dictionary.





# Iteration

**forall items**(it, D) { "the items of D are successively assigned to it" }

forall rev items(it, D) { "the items of D are successively assigned to it in reverse order" }

**forall** $(i, D)$  { "the informations of all items of D are successively assigned to i" }

**forall defined** $(k, D)$  { "the keys of all items of D are successively assigned to  $k$ " }

STL compatible iterators are provided when compiled with -DLEDA STL ITERATORS (see  $LEDAROOT/demo/stl/dicc$  for an example).

# 5. Implementation

Dictionaries are implemented by  $(2, 4)$ -trees. Operations insert, lookup, del item, del take time  $O(\log n)$ , key, inf, empty, size, change inf take time  $O(1)$ , and clear takes time  $O(n)$ . Here *n* is the current size of the dictionary. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

# 6. Example

We count the number of occurrences of each string in a sequence of strings.

```
#include <LEDA/core/dictionary.h>
```

```
main()
{ dictionary<string,int> D;
  string s;
  dic_item it;
  while (cin \gg s)\{ it = D.lookup(s);
    if (it == nil) D.insert(s, 1);
    else D.change_inf(it,D.inf(it)+1);
  }
  forall_items(it,D) cout << D.key(it) << " : " << D.inf(it) << endl;
}
```
# 7.2 Dictionary Arrays (darray)

# 1. Definition

An instance A of the parameterized data type  $d_{\textit{array}} (dictionary array) is an$ injective mapping from the linearly ordered data type  $I$ , called the index type of  $A$ , to the set of variables of data type  $E$ , called the element type of A. We use  $A(i)$  to denote the variable with index i and we use  $dom(A)$  to denote the set of "used indices". This set is empty at the time of creation and is modified by array accesses. Each dictionary array has an associated default value *xdef*. The variable  $A(i)$  has value *xdef* for all  $i \notin dom(A)$ . If  $I$  is a user-defined type, you have to provide a compare function (see Section 2.3).

Related data types are h *arrays*, maps, and *dictionaries*.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/d_array.h$ 

# 2. Types

 $d_{\textit{aarray}} < I, E > :: item$  the item type.  $d\text{array} *I, E* >::index_type$  the index type.

 $d_array \leq I, E \geq : element\_type$ 

the element type.

# 3. Creation



set, and initializes A with a.

variables of type E, sets *xdef* to x and  $dom(A)$  to the empty



int  $A.\text{size}( )$  returns  $|dom(A)|.$ 

void A.set default value (const E& x) sets xdef to x.

### Iteration

**forall defined**(*i, A*) { "the elements from  $dom(A)$  are successively assigned to *i*" }

forall(x, A) { "for all  $i \in dom(A)$  the entries  $A[i]$  are successively assigned to  $x^{\prime\prime}$  }

### 5. Implementation

Dictionary arrays are implemented by  $(2, 4)$ -trees [60]. Access operations  $A[i]$  take time  $O(\log dom(A))$ . The space requirement is  $O(dom(A))$ .

### 6. Example

### Program 1:

We use a dictionary array to count the number of occurrences of the elements in a sequence of strings.

```
#include <LEDA/core/d_array.h>
main()
{
  d_array<string,int> N(0);
  string s;
  while (cin \gg s) N[s]++;
  forall_defined(s,N) cout << s << " " << N[s] << endl;
}
```
# Program 2:

We use a  $d_{\text{a}}arg\text{1}$  string, string to realize an english/german dictionary.

```
#include <LEDA/core/d_array.h>
```
main()

```
{
 d_array<string,string> dic;
 dic["hello"] = "hallo";
 dic["world"] = "Welt";
 dic["book"] = "Buch";
  dic["key"] = "Schluessel";
  string s;
 forall_defined(s,dic) cout << s << " " << dic[s] << endl;
}
```
# 7.3 Hashing Arrays ( h array )

### 1. Definition

An instance A of the parameterized data type  $h\text{-}array < I, E$  (hashing array) is an injective mapping from a hashed data type  $I$ , called the index type of  $A$ , to the set of variables of arbitrary type E, called the element type of A. We use  $A(i)$  to denote the variable indexed by i and we use  $dom(A)$  to denote the set of "used indices". This set is empty at the time of creation and is modified by array accesses. Each hashing array has an associated default value xdef. The variable  $A(i)$  has value xdef for all  $i \notin dom(A)$ . If I is a user-defined type, you have to provide a Hash function (see Section 2.3).

Related data types are *d\_arrays*, maps, and *dictionaries*.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/h_array.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

h array  $\leq I$ ,  $E$  > A; creates an injective function a from I to the set of unused variables of type  $E$ , sets *xdef* to the default value of type  $E$  (if  $E$  has no default value then *xdef* stays undefined) and  $dom(A)$  to the empty set, and initializes A with a.

 $h_$ *array*<*I*,  $E$ >  $A(E \; x)$ ;

creates an injective function a from I to the set of unused variables of type E, sets *xdef* to x and  $dom(A)$  to the empty set, and initializes A with a.

h\_array $\leq I, E$ > A(E x, int table\_sz);

as above, but uses an initial table size of table sz instead of the default size 1.



bool A.empty() returns true if A is empty, false otherwise.

void A.set\_default\_value(const  $E& x$ ) sets xdef to x.

# Iteration

**forall defined**(*i, A*) { "the elements from  $dom(A)$  are successively assigned to *i*" } Remark: the current element may not be deleted resp. declared undefined during execution of the loop.

forall $(x, A)$  { "for all  $i \in dom(A)$  the entries  $A[i]$  are successively assigned to  $x$ " }.

# 4. Implementation

Hashing arrays are implemented by hashing with chaining. Access operations take expected time  $O(1)$ . In many cases, hashing arrays are more efficient than dictionary arrays (cf. 7.2).

# 7.4 Maps ( map )

# 1. Definition

An instance M of the parameterized data type  $map\leq I, E\geq$  is an injective mapping from the data type I, called the index type of  $M$ , to the set of variables of data type  $E$ , called the element type of  $M$ . I must be a pointer, item, or handle type or the type int. We use  $M(i)$  to denote the variable indexed by i. All variables are initialized to  $xdef$ , an element of  $E$  that is specified in the definition of  $M$ . A subset of  $I$  is designated as the domain of M. Elements are added to  $dom(M)$  by the subscript operator; however, the domain may also contain indices for which the access operator was never executed.

Related data types are *d\_arrays*, *h\_arrays*, and *dictionaries*.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/map.h$ 

# 2. Types



# 4. Operations



### Iteration:

forall $(x, M)$  { "the entries  $M[i]$  with  $i \in dom(M)$  are successively assigned to  $x$ " }

Note that it is *not* possible to iterate over the indices in  $dom(M)$ . If you need this feature use the type  $h\text{-}array$  instead.

# 5. Implementation

Maps are implemented by hashing with chaining and table doubling. Access operations  $M[i]$  take expected time  $O(1)$ .

# 7.5 Two-Dimensional Maps ( map2 )

### 1. Definition

An instance M of the parameterized data type  $map2 \leq I1$ ,  $I2, E \geq I3$  is an injective mapping from the pairs in  $I_1 \times I_2$ , called the index type of M, to the set of variables of data type  $E$ , called the element type of M. I must be a pointer, item, or handle type or the type int. We use  $M(i, j)$  to denote the variable indexed by  $(i, j)$  and we use  $dom(M)$  to denote the set of "used indices". This set is empty at the time of creation and is modified by map2 accesses.

Related data types are map, d\_arrays, h\_arrays, and dictionaries.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/map2.h$ 

### 2. Types

 $map2$ <I1, I2, E>:: item the item type.

 $map2$ <I1, I2, E>:: index\_type1

the first index type.

 $map2$ <I1, I2, E>:: index\_type2

the second index type .

 $map2$ <I1, I2, E>:: element\_type

the element type.

### 3. Creation

```
map2<I1, I2, E> M; creates an injective function m from I1 \times I2 to the set of
                          unused variables of type E, sets xdef to the default value of
                          type E (if E has no default value then xdef stays undefined)
                          and dom(M) to the empty set, and initializes M with m.
```
 $map2 < I1, I2, E > M(E x);$ 

creates an injective function m from  $I1 \times I2$  to the set of unused variables of type E, sets *xdef* to x and  $dom(M)$  to the empty set, and initializes  $M$  with  $m$ .

### 4. Operations

 $E\&$   $M(const \; 11 \&$  i, const  $I2 \&$  i)

returns the variable  $M(i)$ .

bool M.defined(const I1 & i, const I2 & j)

returns true if  $i \in dom(M)$  and false otherwise.

void  $M$ .clear() clears M by making  $dom(M)$  the empty set.

### 5. Implementation

Maps are implemented by hashing with chaining and table doubling. Access operations  $M(i, j)$  take expected time  $O(1)$ .

# 7.6 Sorted Sequences ( sortseq )

### 1. Definition

An instance S of the parameterized data type sortseq  $K, I$  is a sequence of items (seq item). Every item contains a key from a linearly ordered data type  $K$ , called the key type of S, and an information from a data type I, called the information type of S. If K is a user-defined type, you have to provide a compare function (see Section 2.3). The number of items in  $S$  is called the size of  $S$ . A sorted sequence of size zero is called empty. We use  $\langle k, i \rangle$  to denote a seq item with key k and information i (called the information associated with key k). For each k in K there is at most one item  $\langle k, i \rangle$  in S and if item  $\langle k1, i1 \rangle$  precedes item  $\langle k2, i2 \rangle$  in S then  $k1 < k2$ .

Sorted sequences are a very powerful data type. They can do everything that dictionaries and priority queues can do. They also support many other operations, in particular *finger* searches and operations conc, split, merge, reverse items, and delete subsequence.

The key type  $K$  must be linearly ordered. The linear order on  $K$  may change over time subject to the condition that the order of the elements that are currently in the sorted sequence remains stable. More precisely, whenever an operation (except for *reverse items*) is applied to a sorted sequence  $S$ , the keys of  $S$  must form an increasing sequence according to the currently valid linear order on K. For operation reverse items this must hold after the execution of the operation. An application of sorted sequences where the linear order on the keys evolves over time is the plane sweep algorithm for line segment intersection. This algorithm sweeps an arrangement of segments by a vertical sweep line and keeps the intersected segments in a sorted sequence sorted according to the y-coordinates of their intersections with the sweep line. For intersecting segments this order depends on the position of the sweep line.

Sorted sequences support finger searches. A finger search takes an item it in a sorted sequence and a key  $k$  and searches for the key in the sorted sequence containing the item. The cost of a finger search is proportional to the logarithm of the distance of the key from the start of the search. A finger search does not need to know the sequence containing the item. We use IT to denote the sequence containing it. In a call S.finger\_search(it, k) the types of S and IT must agree but S may or may not be the sequence containing it.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/sortseq.h$ 

#### 2. Types



### 3. Creation

 $sortseq < K, I > S$ ;

creates an instance S of type  $sortseq\leq K, I$  based on the linear order defined by the global compare function and and initializes it to the empty sorted sequence.

sortseq<K,  $I$ >  $S(int ( *cmp) (const K& , const K& ));$ 

creates an instance S of type  $sortseq < K, I$  based on the linear order defined by the compare function cmp and initializes it with the empty sorted sequence.







void S.del(const  $K\& k$ )

removes the item with key  $k$  from  $S$  (null operation if no such item exists).

- void  $S$ . delitem $\left( \text{seq\_item } i t \right)$ removes the item it from the sequence containing it.
- void S.change inf(seq item it, const I& i)

makes  $i$  the information of item  $it$ .

void S.split(seq\_item it, sortseq  $K, I$ , seq\_impl>& S1, sortseq  $K, I$ , seq\_impl>& S2, int  $dir = leda::behind)$ 

> splits IT at item it, where IT is the sequence containing it, into sequences S1 and S2 and makes IT empty (if distinct from S1 and S2). More precisely, if  $IT = x_1, \ldots, x_{k-1}, it, x_{k+1}, \ldots, x_n$  and  $dir =$ leda:: behind then  $S1 = x_1, \ldots, x_{k-1}$ , it and  $S2 = x_{k+1}, \ldots, x_n$ . If  $\text{dir} = \text{leda} :: \text{before}$  then  $S2$  starts with it after the split.

void S.delete subsequence (seq item a, seq item b, sortseq  $K, I$ , seq impl $\&$  S1)

deletes the subsequence starting at  $a$  and ending at  $b$  from the sequence IT containing both and assigns the subsequence to S1. *Precondition:* a and b belong to the same sequence  $IT$ , a is equal to or before b and IT and S1 have the same type.

 $sortseg < K, I, seq\_impl \& S.$ conc $(sortseg < K, I, seq\_impl \& SI, int dir = leda::behind)$ 

appends S1 at the front  $dir = leda:: before)$  or rear  $dir =$  $leda::behind)$  end of S, makes S1 empty and returns S. Precondition:  $Skey(S.max\_item() ) < S1key(S1.min\_item() )$  if  $dir =$ leda: behind and  $S1 \text{.} key(S1 \text{.} max \text{.} item($   $)) < S \text{.} key(S \text{.} min \text{.} item( )$  if  $dir = leda::before.$ 

void  $S$ .merge(sortseq<K, I, seq\_impl>& S1)

merges the sequence  $S1$  into sequence S and makes  $S1$  empty. Precondition: all keys are distinct.

void S.print(ostream & out, string s, char  $c =$ <sup>''</sup>)

prints s and all elements of S separated by c onto stream out.

void S.print(string s, char  $c =$ '')

equivalent to  $S.\text{print}(cut, s, c)$ .

bool  $S == const~sortseq < K, I, seq\_impl > \& S1$ 

returns true if S agrees with S1 componentwise and false otherwise

 $sortseq K, I, seq\_impl$  $\ast$  sortseq $K, I$  $\geq$ :: my\_sortseq(seq\_item it)

returns a pointer to the sortseq containing it.

Precondition: The type of the *sortseq* containing it must be  $sortseq < K, I$ .

# Iteration

**forall items**(it, S) { "the items of S are successively assigned to it" }

**forall\_rev\_items**(it, S) { "the items of S are successively assigned to it in reverse order" }

**forall** $(i, S)$  { "the informations of all items of S are successively assigned to i" }

**forall defined**(k, S) { "the keys of all items of S are successively assigned to  $k$ " }

# 5. Implementation

Sorted sequences are implemented by skiplists [79]. Let  $n$  denote the current size of the sequence. Operations *insert*, *locate*, *lookup* and *del* take time  $O(\log n)$ , operations succ, pred, max, min\_item, key, inf, insert\_at and del\_item take time  $O(1)$ . clear takes time  $O(n)$  and *reverse items*  $O(l)$ , where l is the length of the reversed subsequence. Finger\_lookup(x) and finger\_locate(x) take time  $O(\log min(d, n - d))$  if x is the d-th item in S. Finger-lookup from front(x) and finger-locate from front(x) take time  $O(\log d)$  if x is the d-th item in S. Finger-lookup-from rear(x) and finger-locate from rear(x) take time  $O(\log d)$  if x is the n–d-th item in S. Finger\_lookup(it, x) and finger\_locate(it, x) take time  $O(\log min(d, n-d))$  where d is the number of items between it and the item containing x. Note that  $min(d, n-d)$  is the smaller of the distances from it to x if sequences are viewed as circularly closed. Split, delete\_subsequence and conc take time  $O(\log min(n_1, n_2))$  where  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the sizes of the results of *split* and *delete\_subsequence* and the arguments of *conc* respectively. Merge takes time  $O(\log((n_1 + n_2)/n_1))$  where  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the sizes of the two arguments. The space requirement of sorted sequences is linear in the length of the sequence (about  $25.5n$  Bytes for a sequence of size n plus the space for the keys and the informations.).

# 6. Example

We use a sorted sequence to list all elements in a sequence of strings lying lexicographically between two given search strings.

#include <LEDA/core/sortseq.h> #include <iostream> using leda::sortseq; using leda::string; using leda::seq\_item; using std::cin; using std::cout;

```
int main()
{
    sortseq<string, int> S;
    string s1, s2;
    cout << "Input a sequence of strings terminated by 'STOP'\n";
    while (cin \gg s1 && s1 != "STOP")
      S.insert(s1, 0);
    while(true) {
      cout \langle \langle \rangle "\n\nInput a pair of strings:\n";
      cin >> s1 >> s2;
      cout \langle\langle "All strings s with " \langle\langle s1 \langle\langle\cdot|\rangle \langle= s \langle= " \langle\langle s2 \langle\langle\cdot|\cdot|\cdot|\rangle;
      if(s2 < s1) continue;
      seq_item last = S.locate_pred(s2);
      seq_item first = S.\text{locate}(s1);if ( !first || !last || first == S.succ(last) ) continue;
      seq_item it = first;
      while(true) {
         cout \langle \langle \nabla \cdot \mathbf{w} \rangle \rangle and \langle \cdot \rangle satisfy (it);
         if(it == last) break;it = S.succ(it);}
    }
}
```
Further examples can be found in section Sorted Sequences of [66].

# Chapter 8

# Priority Queues

# 8.1 Priority Queues (p\_queue)

### 1. Definition

An instance Q of the parameterized data type  $p\text{-}queue < P, I$  is a collection of items (type  $pq\_item$ ). Every item contains a priority from a linearly ordered type  $P$  and an information from an arbitrary type  $I$ .  $P$  is called the priority type of  $Q$  and  $I$  is called the information type of Q. If P is a user-defined type, you have to define the linear order by providing the compare function (see Section 2.3). The number of items in  $Q$  is called the size of  $Q$ . If Q has size zero it is called the empty priority queue. We use  $\langle p, i \rangle$  to denote a pq item with priority  $p$  and information  $i$ .

Remark: Iteration over the elements of Q using iteration macros such as forall is not supported.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/p_queue.h$ 

#### 2. Types



### 3. Creation

 $p\text{-}queue < P, I > Q$ ; creates an instance Q of type  $p\text{-}queue < P, I >$  based on the linear order defined by the global compare function  $compare(const P\&, const P\&)$  and initializes it with the empty priority queue.

p\_queue<P,  $I > Q(int (\ast cmp)(const P\& , const P\& ));$ 

creates an instance Q of type  $p_{\textit{-queue}}$  < P, I based on the linear order defined by the compare function cmp and initializes it with the empty priority queue. Precondition: cmp must define a linear order on P.

### 4. Operations



### 5. Implementation

Priority queues are implemented by binary heaps [93]. Operations insert, del item, del min take time  $O(\log n)$ , find min, decrease p, prio, inf, empty take time  $O(1)$  and clear takes time  $O(n)$ , where n is the size of Q. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

# 6. Example

Dijkstra's Algorithm (cf. section 10)

# 8.2 Bounded Priority Queues (b priority queue)

### 1. Definition

An instance  $Q$  of the parameterized data type *b\_priority\_queue* $I$  is a collection of items (type  $b$ -pq-item). Every item contains a priority from a fixed interval [a.b] of integers (type *int*) and an information from an arbitrary type I. The number of items in  $Q$  is called the size of Q. If Q has size zero it is called the empty priority queue. We use  $\langle p, i \rangle$ to denote a *b\_pq\_item* with priority  $p \in [a..b]$  and information *i*.

Remark: Iteration over the elements of Q using iteration macros such as forall is not supported.

 $\#include \leq EDA/core/b\_prio.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

b\_priority\_queue<I>  $Q(int a, int b);$ 

creates an instance  $Q$  of type *b\_priority\_queue* $\lt I$ > with key type [a..b] and initializes it with the empty priority queue.





### 4. Implementation

Bounded priority queues are implemented by arrays of linear lists. Operations insert, find min, del item, decrease key, key, inf, and empty take time  $O(1)$ , del min (= del item for the minimal element) takes time  $O(d)$ , where d is the distance of the minimal element to the next bigger element in the queue (=  $O(b-a)$  in the worst case). clear takes time  $O(b - a + n)$  and the space requirement is  $O(b - a + n)$ , where n is the current size of the queue.

# Chapter 9

# Graphs and Related Data Types

# 9.1 Graphs ( graph )

#### 1. Definition

An instance G of the data type *graph* consists of a list V of nodes and a list E of edges (node and edge are item types). Distinct graph have disjoint node and edge lists. The value of a variable of type node is either the node of some graph, or the special value nil (which is distinct from all nodes), or is undefined (before the first assignment to the variable). A corresponding statement is true for the variables of type edge.

A graph with empty node list is called *empty*. A pair of nodes  $(v, w) \in V \times V$  is associated with every edge  $e \in E$ ; v is called the *source* of e and w is called the *target* of e, and v and w are called *endpoints* of  $e$ . The edge  $e$  is said to be *incident* to its endpoints.

A graph is either directed or undirected. The difference between directed and undirected graph is the way the edges incident to a node are stored and how the concept adjacent is defined.

In directed graph two lists of edges are associated with every node v:  $adj_{0}e_{0}g_{0}(v) =$  ${e \in E | v = source(e)},$  i.e., the list of edges starting in v, and  $in\_edges(v) = {e \in E | v =$  $target(e)$ , i.e., the list of edges ending in v. The list  $adj\_edges(v)$  is called the adjacency list of node v and the edges in  $adj$ -edges $(v)$  are called the edges adjacent to node v. For directed graph we often use *out edges* $(v)$  as a synonym for *adj edges* $(v)$ .

In undirected graph only the list  $adj\_edges(v)$  is defined for every every node v. Here it contains all edges incident to v, i.e.,  $adj_{edges}(v) = \{e \in E \mid v \in \{source(e), target(e)\}\}.$ An undirected graph may not contain self-loops, i.e., it may not contain an edge whose source is equal to its target.

In a directed graph an edge is adjacent to its source and in an undirected graph it is adjacent to its source and target. In a directed graph a node  $w$  is adjacent to a node  $v$  if there is an edge  $(v, w) \in E$ ; in an undirected graph w is adjacent to v if there is an edge  $(v, w)$  or  $(w, v)$  in the graph.

A directed graph can be made undirected and vice versa: G.make undirected() makes the directed graph G undirected by appending for each node v the list in  $edges(v)$  to the list  $adj\_edges(v)$  (removing self-loops). Conversely, G.make\_directed() makes the undirected graph G directed by splitting for each node v the list  $adj$ -edges(v) into the lists  $out_{edges}(v)$  and  $in_{edges}(v)$ . Note that these two operations are not exactly inverse to each other. The data type *ugraph* (cf. section 9.4) can only represent undirected graph.

#### Reversal Information, Maps and Faces

The reversal information of an edge e is accessed through  $G.reversal(e)$ , it has type edge and may or may not be defined  $(= nil)$ . Assume that *G.reversal(e)* is defined and let  $e' = G.\text{reversal}(e)$ . Then  $e = (v, w)$  and  $e' = (w, v)$  for some nodes v and w, G. reversal(e') is defined and  $e = G.\text{reversal}(e')$ . In addtion,  $e \neq e'$ . In other words, reversal deserves its name.

We call a directed graph *bidirected* if the reversal information can be properly defined for all edges in G, resp. if there exists a bijective function  $rev : E \to E$  with the properties of reversal as described above and we call a bidirected graph a map if all edges have their reversal information defined. Maps are the data structure of choice for embedded graph. For an edge e of a map G let  $face\_cycle\_succ(e) = cyclic\_adj\_pred(reversal(e))$ and consider the sequence e, face\_cycle\_succ(e), face\_cycle\_succ(face\_cycle\_succ(e)), .... The first edge to repeat in this sequence is e (why?) and the set of edges appearing in this sequence is called the face cycle containing e. Each edge is contained in some face cycle and face cycles are pairwise disjoint. Let  $f$  be the number of face cycles,  $n$  be the number of (non-isolated) nodes,  $m$  be the number of edges, and let  $c$  be the number of (non-singleton) connected components. Then  $q = (m/2 - n - f)/2 + c$  is called the genus of the map [91] (note that  $m/2$  is the number of edges in the underlying undirected graph). The genus is zero if and only if the map is planar, i.e., there is an embedding of G into the plane such that for every node  $v$  the counter-clockwise ordering of the edges around v agrees with the cyclic ordering of v's adjacency list. (In order to check whether a map is planar, you may use the function  $Is\_Plane\_Map()$  in 9.23.)

If a graph G is a map the faces of G can be constructed explicitly by  $G$  compute faces(). Afterwards, the faces of G can be traversed by different iterators, e.g.,  $f\text{orallfaces}(f, G)$ iterates over all faces,  $for all\_adj\_faces(v)$  iterates over all faces adjacent to node v. By using face maps or arrays (data types *face map* and *face array*) additional information can be associated with the faces of a graph. Note that any update operation performed on G invalidates the list of faces. See the section on face operations for a complete list of available operations for faces.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

*graph*  $G$ ; creates an object  $G$  of type *graph* and initializes it to the empty directed graph.

graph  $G(int \; n_s lots, \; int \; e_s lots);$ 

this constructor specifies the numbers of free data slots in the nodes and edges of G that can be used for storing the entries of node and edge arrays. See also the description of the *use\_node\_data*() and use\_edge\_data() operations in 9.8 and 9.9.

### 3. Operations



### a) Access operations





 $node$  G.source(edge e) returns the source node of edge e.

node  $G$ .target(edge e) returns the target node of edge e.

node G.opposite(node v, edge e)

returns  $target(e)$  if  $v = source(e)$  and  $source(e)$  otherwise.

node G.opposite(edge e, node v)

same as above.






## b) Update operations



 $edge \text{G.new-edge}(\text{node } v, \text{ edge } e, \text{ int } \text{dir} = \text{leda::\text{ behind}})$ 

adds a new edge  $x = (v, target(e))$  to G. x is appended to  $adj$ <sub>-edges</sub> $(v)$  and inserted in front of  $(dir = leda::before)$  or behind  $(dr = leda::behind)$ edge e into in\_edges( $target(e)$ ) (if G is directed) or  $adj_{\mathcal{L}}edges(target(e))$  (if G is undirected). The operation returns the new edge  $x$ .

Precondition:  $target(e) \neq v$  if G is undirected.

edge G.new edge(edge e1, edge e2, int  $d1 =$  leda:: behind, int  $d2 =$  leda: behind) adds a new edge  $x = (source(e1), target(e2))$  to

G. x is inserted in front of (if  $d1 = leda::before$ ) or behind (if  $d1 = leda:: behind$ ) edge  $e1$  into  $adj\_{edges}(source(e1))$  and in front of (if  $d2 =$  $leda::before)$  or behind (if  $d2 = leda::behind)$  edge e2 into in\_edges(target(e2)) (if G is directed) or adj\_edges(target(e2)) (if G is undirected). The operation returns the new edge  $x$ .





void G.move edge(edge e, node v, edge e2, int  $d =$  leda :: behind)

moves edge e to source v and target  $target(e2)$  by appending it to  $adj$ -edges $(v)$  and inserting it in front of (if  $d = leda$ : before) or behind (if  $d =$ leda: behind) edge e2 into in\_edges(target(e2)) (if G is directed) or  $adj$ -edges(target(e2)) (if G is undirected).

#### void G.move.edge(edge e, edge e1, edge e2, int  $d1 =$  leda:: behind, int  $d2 = leda::behind$

moves edge e to source  $source(e1)$  and target  $target(e2)$  by inserting it in front of (if  $d1 =$  $leda::before)$  or behind (if  $d1 = leda::behind)$  edge e1 into  $adj$ -edges(source(e1)) and in front of (if  $d2 = leda::before)$  or behind (if  $d2 = leda::behind)$ ) edge e2 into in\_edges( $target(e2)$ ) (if G is directed) or *adj\_edges(target(e2))* (if G is undirected).

- edge  $G.\text{rev-edge}(edge \ e)$  reverses  $e \ (move \ edge(e, target(e), source(e))).$
- void  $G.\text{rev}$  all edges ( ) reverses all edges of  $G.$
- void  $G.\text{sort\_nodes}(int (\ast cmp)(const \ node \& \ , \ const \ node \& \ )$

the nodes of G are sorted according to the ordering defined by the comparing function cmp. Subsequent executions of forall nodes step through the nodes in this order. (cf. TOPSORT1 in section 10).

void  $G.\text{sort\_edges}(int (\ast cmp)(const \cdot edge \& , const \cdot edge \& )$ 

the edges of G and all adjacency lists are sorted according to the ordering defined by the comparing function cmp. Subsequent executions of forall edges step through the edges in this order. (cf. TOP-SORT1 in section 10).

void G.sort\_nodes(const node\_array $\langle T \rangle \& A$ )

the nodes of G are sorted according to the entries of node\_array  $A$  (cf. section 9.8).

Precondition: T must be numerical, i.e., number type int, float, double, integer, rational or real.

void G.sort\_edges(const edge\_array $\langle T \rangle \& A$ ) the edges of G are sorted according to the entries of edge array  $A$  (cf. section 9.9). Precondition: T must be numerical, i.e., number type int, float, double, integer, rational or real.





## c) Reversal Edges and Maps





## For backward compatibility



## d) Faces and Planar Maps





 $list \leq edge \geq G$ .triangulate\_planar\_map()

triangulates planar map G and recomputes its list of faces

## e) Operations for undirected graphs







#### g) Non-Member Functions



### h) Iteration

All iteration macros listed in this section traverse the corresponding node and edge lists of the graph, i.e. they visit nodes and edges in the order in which they are stored in these lists.

forall  $\text{nodes}(v, G)$  $\{$  "the nodes of G are successively assigned to  $v$ " }

forall  $\text{edges}(e, G)$ { "the edges of G are successively assigned to  $e$ " }

forall\_rev\_nodes $(v, G)$  $\{$  "the nodes of G are successively assigned to v in reverse order"  $\}$ 

forall\_rev\_edges $(e, G)$ { "the edges of G are successively assigned to  $e$  in reverse order" }

forall hidden edges $(e, G)$ { "all hidden edges of G are successively assigned to  $e$ " } forall adjected ges $(e, w)$ { "the edges adjacent to node w are successively assigned to  $e$ " }

forall out  $\text{edges}(e, w)$ a faster version of forall adj edges for directed graphs.

forall in  $\text{edges}(e, w)$ { "the edges of in\_edges(w) are successively assigned to  $e$ " }

forall inout edges $(e, w)$ { "the edges of *out\_edges(w)* and *in\_edges(w)* are successively assigned to  $e^v$  }

forall adj undirected edges $(e, w)$ 

like **forall adj-edges** on the underlying undirected graph, no matter whether the graph is directed or undirected actually.

forall adj nodes $(v, w)$  $\{$  "the nodes adjacent to node w are successively assigned to v"  $\}$ 

#### Faces

Before using any of the following face iterators the list of faces has to be computed by calling G.compute faces( ). Note, that any update operation invalidates this list.

forall faces  $(f, M)$  $\{$  "the faces of M are successively assigned to  $f$ " }

forall face edges $(e, f)$ { "the edges of face f are successively assigned to  $e$ " }

forall adj faces $(f, v)$ 

{ "the faces adjacent to node v are successively assigned to  $f''$ }

#### 4. Implementation

Graphs are implemented by doubly linked lists of nodes and edges. Most operations take constant time, except for all nodes, all edges, del all nodes, del all edges, make map, make planar map, compute faces, all faces, make bidirected, clear, write, and read which take time  $O(n+m)$ , and adj-edges, adj-nodes, out-edges, in-edges, and adj-faces which take time  $O(output\; size)$  where n is the current number of nodes and m is the current number of edges. The space requirement is  $O(n+m)$ .

# 9.2 Parameterized Graphs ( GRAPH )

#### 1. Definition

A parameterized graph G is a graph whose nodes and edges contain additional (user defined) data. Every node contains an element of a data type *vtype*, called the node type of G and every edge contains an element of a data type etype called the edge type of G. We use  $\langle v, w, y \rangle$  to denote an edge  $(v, w)$  with information y and  $\langle x \rangle$  to denote a node with information  $x$ .

All operations defined for the basic graph type graph are also defined on instances of any parameterized graph type  $GRAPH \le vtype$ , etypes. For parameterized graph there are additional operations to access or update the information associated with its nodes and edges. Instances of a parameterized graph type can be used wherever an instance of the data type graph can be used, e.g., in assignments and as arguments to functions with formal parameters of type graph &. If a function  $f(qraph \& G)$  is called with an argument Q of type  $GRAPH \le vtype$ , etype> then inside f only the basic graph structure of Q can be accessed. The node and edge entries are hidden. This allows the design of generic graph algorithms, i.e., algorithms accepting instances of any parametrized graph type as argument.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph.h>$ 

#### 2. Types

 $GRAPH \leq vtype, \text{ etype} \geq \text{:}:\text{node_value\_type}$ 

the type of node data (vtype).

 $GRAPH$  < vtype, etype > :: edge\_value\_type

the type of edge data (etype).

#### 3. Creation

 $GRAPH$  < vtype, etype> G; creates an instance G of type  $GRAPH$  < vtype, etype> and initializes it to the empty graph.



*adj\_edges(target(e2))* (if G is undirected). The oper-

ation returns the new edge  $x$ .



edge G.new\_edge(node v, edge e1, node w, edge e2, const etype& x, int  $df = leda$ : behind, int  $d2 = leda$ : behind)



0 if reading was successful.

## 5. Implementation

Parameterized graph are derived from directed graph. All additional operations for manipulating the node and edge entries take constant time.

# 9.3 Static Graphs ( static graph )

### 1. Definition

1.1 Motivation. The data type *static graph* representing static graph is the result of two observations:

First, most graph algorithms do not change the underlying graph, they work on a constant or static graph and second, different algorithms are based on different models (we call them categories) of graph.

The LEDA data type graph represents all types of graph used in the library, such as directed, undirected, and bidirected graph, networks, planar maps, and geometric graph. It provides the operations for all of these graph in one fat interface. For efficiency reasons it makes sense to provide special graph data types for special purposes. The template data type static graph, which is parameterized with the graph category, provides specialized implementations for some of these graph types.

1.2 Static Graphs. A static graph consists of a fixed sequence of nodes and edges. The parameterized data type static graph  $\alpha$  category, node data, edge data is used to represent static graph. The first template parameter category defines the graph category and is taken from {*directed\_graph*, *bidirectional\_graph*, *opposite\_graph*} (see 1.3 for the details). The last two parameters are optional and can be used to define user-defined data structures to be included into the node and edge objects (see 1.4 for the details). An instance G of the parameterized data type  $static_graph$  contains a sequence V of nodes and a sequence E of edges. New nodes or edges can be appended only in a construction phase which has to be started by calling  $G.start_{constraint}$  ) and terminated by  $G$  finish construction(). For every node or edge x we define  $index(x)$  to be equal to the rank of x in its sequence. During the construction phase, the sequence of the source node index of all inserted edges must be non-decreasing. After the construction phase both sequences  $V$  and  $E$  are fixed.

1.3 Graph Categories. We distinguish between five categories where currently only the first three are supported by *static\_graph*:

- Directed Graphs (*directed graph*) represent the concept of a directed graph by providing the ability to iterate over all edges incident to a given node  $v$  and to ask for the target node of a given edge e.
- Bidirectional Graphs *(bidirectional graph)* extend directed graph by supporting in addition iterations over all incoming edges at a given node  $v$  and to ask for the source node of a given edge e.

• Opposite Graphs (opposite graph) are a variant of the bidirectional graph category. They do not support the computation of the source or target node of a given edge but allow walking from one terminal  $v$  of an edge  $e$  to the other *opposite one*.

Not yet implemented are bidirected and undirected graph.

1.4 Node and Edge Data. Static graph support several efficient ways - efficient compared to using *node\_arrays, edge\_arrays, node\_maps,* and *edge\_maps* - to associate data with the edges and nodes of the graph.

1.4.1 Dynamic Slot Assignment: It is possible to attach two optional template parameters  $data\_slots\leq int$  at compile time:

```
static_graph<directed_graph, data_slots<3>, data_slots<1> > G;
```
specifies a static directed graph G with three additional node slots and one additional edge slot. Node and edge arrays can use these data slots, instead of allocating an external array. This method is also supported for the standard LEDA data type graph. Please see the manual page for *node\_array* resp. *edge\_array* (esp. the operations *use\_node\_data* resp. use\_edge\_data) for the details.

The method is called *dynamic slot assignment* since the concrete arrays are assigned during runtime to the slots.

1.4.2 Static Slot Assignment: This method is even more efficient. A variant of the node and edge arrays, the so-called *node\_slot* and *edge\_slot* data types, are assigned to the slots during compilation time. These types take three parameters: the element type of the array, an integer slot number, and the type of the graph:

node\_slot<E, graph\_t, slot>; edge\_slot<E, graph\_t, slot>;

Here is an example for the use of static slot assignment in a maxflow graph algorithm. It uses three node slots for storing distance, excess, and a successor node, and two edge slots for storing the flow and capacity.

```
typedef static_graph<opposite_graph, data_slots<3>, data_slots<2> > maxflow_graph;
node_slot<node, maxflow_graph, 0> succ;
node_slot<int, maxflow_graph, 1> dist;
node_slot<edge, maxflow_graph, 2> excess;
edge_slot<int, maxflow_graph, 0> flow;
edge_slot<int, maxflow_graph, 1> cap;
```
When using the data types *node slot* resp. *edge slot* one has to include the files  $LEDA/graph/edge\_slot.h.$ 

1.4.3 Customizable Node and Edge Types: It is also possible to pass any structure derived from  $data_slosts<sub>t</sub>nt$  as second or third parameter. Thereby the nodes and edges are extended by named data members. These are added in addition to the data slots specified in the base type. In the example

```
struct flow_node:public data_slots<1>
{ int excess;
  int level;
}
struct flow_edge:public data_slots<2>
{ int flow;
  int cap;
}
```
typedef static\_graph<br/>bidirectional\_graph, flow\_node, flow\_edge> flow\_graph;

there are three data slots (one of them unnamed) associated with each node and four data slots (two of them unnamed) associated with each edge of a flow graph.

The named slots can be used as follows:

flow\_graph::node v; forall\_nodes(v,  $G$ ) v->excess = 0;

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/static_graph.$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $static\_graph \leq category, node\_data = data\_ slots \leq 0 >, edge_data = data\_ slots \leq 0 > S;$ 

creates an empty static graph G. category is either directed graph, or bidirectional graph, or opposite graph. The use of the other parameters is explained in the section Node and Edge Data given above.

#### 3. Types

static graph :: node the node type. Note: It is different from  $graph::node$ . static graph :: edge the edge type. Note: It is different from graph :: edge.

#### 4. Operations

The interface consists of two parts. The first part - the basic interface - is independent from the actual graph category, the specified operations are common to all graph. The second part of the interface is different for every category and contains macros to iterate over incident edges or adjacent nodes and methods for traversing a given edge.



#### Static Directed Graphs (static graph<directed graph>)

For this category the basic interface of *static graph* is extended by the operations:



### Static Bidirectional Graphs (static\_graph<br/>>bidirectional\_graph>)

For this category the basic interface of *static graph* is extended by the operations:





#### Static Opposite Graphs (static\_graph<opposite\_graph>)

For this category the basic interface of *static graph* is extended by the operations:



#### 5. Example

The simple example illustrates how to create a small graph and assign some values. To see how static graph can be used in a max flow algorithm - please see the source file  $mfs.c$ in the directory test/flow.

```
#include <LEDA/graph/graph.h>
#include <LEDA/graph/node_slot.h>
#include <LEDA/graph/edge_slot.h>
#include <LEDA/core/array.h>
using namespace leda;
struct node_weight:public data_slots<0>
{ int weight; }
struct edge_cap:public data_slots<0>
{ int cap; }
typedef static_graph<opposite_graph, node_weight, edge_cap> static_graph;
typedef static_graph::node st_node;
typedef static_graph::edge st_edge;
```

```
int main ()
{
   static_graph G;
   array<st_node> v(4);
   array<st_edge> e(4);
   G.start_construction(4,4);
   for(int i =0; i < 4; i++) v[i] = G.new-node();e[0] = G.new\_edge(v[0], v[1]);e[1] = G.new\_edge(v[0], v[2]);e[2] = G.new\_edge(v[1], v[2]);e[3] = G.new\_edge(v[3], v[1]);G.finish_construction();
   st_node v;
   st_edge e;
   forall_nodes(v, G) v->weight = 1;
  for all\_edges(e, G) e-> cap = 10;return 0;
}
```
## 9.4 Undirected Graphs ( ugraph )

#### 1. Definition

An instance U of the data type *ugraph* is an undirected graph as defined in section 9.1.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/ugraph.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

ugraph  $U$ ; creates an instance U of type ugraph and initializes it to the empty undirected graph.

ugraph  $U($ const graph $\& G$ ;

creates an instance U of type ugraph and initializes it with an undirected copy of G.

#### 3. Operations

see section 9.1.

#### 4. Implementation

see section 9.1.

# 9.5 Parameterized Ugraph ( UGRAPH )

#### 1. Definition

A parameterized undirected graph G is an undirected graph whose nodes and edges contain additional (user defined) data (cf. 9.2). Every node contains an element of a data type *vtype*, called the node type of  $G$  and every edge contains an element of a data type etype called the edge type of G.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/ugraph.h$ 

 $UGRAPH$  < vtype, etype> U;

creates an instance  $U$  of type  $uqraph$  and initializes it to the empty undirected graph.

#### 2. Operations

see section 9.2.

## 3. Implementation

see section 9.2.

# 9.6 Planar Maps ( planar map )

#### 1. Definition

An instance M of the data type *planar map* is the combinatorial embedding of a planar graph, i.e., M is bidirected (for every edge  $(v, w)$  of M the reverse edge  $(w, v)$  is also in  $M$ ) and there is a planar embedding of M such that for every node v the ordering of the edges in the adjacency list of  $v$  corresponds to the counter-clockwise ordering of these edges around  $v$  in the embedding.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/planar_map.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

planar\_map  $M$ (const graph & G);

creates an instance  $M$  of type  $planar$  map and initializes it to the planar map represented by the directed graph G. Precondition: G represents a bidirected planar map, i.e. for every edge  $(v, w)$  in G the reverse edge  $(w, v)$  is also in G and there is

a planar embedding of  $G$  such that for every node  $v$  the ordering of the edges in the adjacency list of  $v$  corresponds to the counterclockwise ordering of these edges around  $v$  in the embedding.



 $list \leq edge \geq M$ .triangulate() triangulates all faces of M by inserting new edges. The list of inserted edges is returned.

#### 4. Implementation

Planar maps are implemented by parameterized directed graph. All operations take constant time, except for new edge and del edge which take time  $O(f)$  where f is the number of edges in the created faces and triangulate and straight line embedding which take time  $O(n)$  where *n* is the current size (number of edges) of the planar map.

# 9.7 Parameterized Planar Maps (PLANAR\_MAP)

#### 1. Definition

A parameterized planar map M is a planar map whose nodes, edges and faces contain additional (user defined) data. Every node contains an element of a data type vtype, called the node type of M,every edge contains an element of a data type etype, called the edge type of  $M$ , and every face contains an element of a data type *f type* called the face type of M. All operations of the data type *planar map* are also defined for instances of any parameterized planar map type. For parameterized planar maps there are additional operations to access or update the node and face entries.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/planar_map.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

### PLANAR\_MAP<vtype, etype, ftype>  $M(const \, GRAPH \leq type \leq \& G);$

creates an instance  $M$  of type  $PLANAR\_MAP < type$ , type, type> and initializes it to the planar map represented by the parameterized directed graph G. The node and edge entries of G are copied into the corresponding nodes and edges of  $M$ . Every face  $f$  of  $M$ is assigned the default value of type  $ftype$ . Precondition: G represents a planar map.





### 4. Implementation

Parameterized planar maps are derived from planar maps. All additional operations for manipulating the node and edge contents take constant time.

# 9.8 Node Arrays ( node array )

#### 1. Definition

An instance A of the parameterized data type *node\_array*  $\leq$  is a partial mapping from the node set of a graph  $G$  to the set of variables of type  $E$ , called the element type of the array. The domain I of A is called the index set of A and  $A(v)$  is called the element at position v. A is said to be valid for all nodes in I. The array access operator  $A[v]$  checks its precondition (A must be valid for  $v$ ). The check can be turned off by compiling with the flag -DLEDA\_CHECKING\_OFF.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node_array.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

node array  $\leq E$  A; creates an instance A of type node array  $\leq E$  with empty index set.

node\_array $\leq E$ > A(const graph\_t& G);

creates an instance A of type *node\_array*  $\leq E$  and initializes the index set of  $A$  to the current node set of graph  $G$ .

node\_array $\leq E$ > A(const graph\_t& G, E x);

creates an instance A of type *node\_array* $\leq E$ , sets the index set of A to the current node set of graph G and initializes  $A(v)$  with x for all nodes  $v$  of  $G$ .

```
node_array <E> A(const graph_t& G, int n, E x);
                      creates an instance A of type node_array \leq E valid for up to n nodes
                      of graph G and initializes A(v) with x for all nodes v of G.
                      Precondition: n \geq |V|.
                      A is also valid for the next n - |V| nodes added to G.
```


void A.init(const graph\_t& G, int n, E x)

makes A valid for at most n nodes of G and sets  $A(v) =$ x for all nodes  $v$  of  $G$ . Precondition:  $n > |V|$ . A is also valid for the next  $n - |V|$  nodes added to G.

bool A.use node data (const graph  $t\& G$ )

use free data slots in the nodes of  $G$  (if available) for storing the entries of A. If no free data slot is available in G, an ordinary *node\_array*  $\leq E$  is created. The number of additional data slots in the nodes and edges of a graph can be specified in the  $graph::graph(int \ n\_s lots,$ int e\_slots) constructor. The result is true if a free slot is available and false otherwise.

bool A.use node data (*const graph t*&  $G, E \, x$ )

use free data slots in the nodes of G (if available) for storing the entries of A and initializes  $A(v) = x$  for all nodes  $v$  of  $G$ . If no free data slot is available in  $G$ , an ordinary *node\_array* $\leq E$  is created. The number of additional data slots in the nodes and edges of a graph can be specified in the  $graph::graph(int \; n_slots, int \; e_slots)$ constructor. The result is true if a free slot is available and false otherwise.

#### 4. Implementation

Node arrays for a graph G are implemented by C++vectors and an internal numbering of the nodes and edges of G. The access operation takes constant time, init takes time  $O(n)$ , where n is the number of nodes in G. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

Remark: A node array is only valid for a bounded number of nodes of G. This number is either the number of nodes of  $G$  at the moment of creation of the array or it is explicitely set by the user. Dynamic node arrays can be realized by node maps (cf. section 9.11).

## 9.9 Edge Arrays ( edge array )

#### 1. Definition

An instance A of the parameterized data type  $edge_7$  array  $\leq$  is a partial mapping from the edge set of a graph  $G$  to the set of variables of type  $E$ , called the element type of the array. The domain I of A is called the index set of A and  $A(e)$  is called the element at position e. A is said to be valid for all edges in I. The array access operator  $A[e]$  checks its precondition (A must be valid for  $e$ ). The check can be turned off by compiling with the flag -DLEDA\_CHECKING\_OFF.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/edge_array.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

edge\_array $\leq$  A; creates an instance A of type edge\_array $\leq$  with empty index set.

 $edge_{array} \leq E> A(const graph_t \& G);$ 

creates an instance A of type  $edge_{array \leq E>}$  and initializes the index set of  $A$  to be the current edge set of graph  $G$ .

edge\_array  $\leq E$  A(const graph\_t& G, E x);

creates an instance A of type  $edge_0$  array $\langle E \rangle$ , sets the index set of A to the current edge set of graph G and initializes  $A(v)$  with x for all edges  $v$  of  $G$ .

edge\_array $\leq E$ > A(const graph\_t& G, int n, E x); creates an instance A of type  $edge\_array \leq E$  valid for up to n edges of graph G and initializes  $A(e)$  with x for all edges e of G. Precondition:  $n \geq |E|$ . A is also valid for the next  $n - |E|$  edges added to G.



void A.init(const graph t& G, int n, E x)

makes A valid for at most n edges of G and sets  $A(e) = x$ for all edges e of G. Precondition:  $n > |E|$ . A is also valid for the next  $n - |E|$  edges added to G.

bool A.use edge data (const graph  $t\& G, E x$ )

use free data slots in the edges of  $G$  (if available) for storing the entries of A. The number of additional data slots in the nodes and edges of a graph can be specified in the  $graph::graph(int n_slots, int e_slots)$  constructor. The result is *true* if a free slot is available and *false* otherwise.

#### 4. Implementation

Edge arrays for a graph  $G$  are implemented by C++vectors and an internal numbering of the nodes and edges of G. The access operation takes constant time, init takes time  $O(n)$ , where n is the number of edges in G. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

Remark: An edge array is only valid for a bounded number of edges of G. This number is either the number of edges of  $G$  at the moment of creation of the array or it is explicitely set by the user. Dynamic edge arrays can be realized by edge maps (cf. section 9.12).

## 9.10 Face Arrays (face\_array)

#### 1. Definition

An instance A of the parameterized data type face array  $\leq E$  is a partial mapping from the face set of a graph  $G$  to the set of variables of type  $E$ , called the element type of the array. The domain I of A is called the index set of A and  $A(f)$  is called the element at position f. A is said to be valid for all faces in I. The array access operator  $A[f]$  checks its precondition  $(A \text{ must be valid for } f)$ . The check can be turned off by compiling with the flag -DLEDA\_CHECKING\_OFF.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/face_array.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

face\_array $\leq$  A; creates an instance A of type face\_array $\leq$  with empty index set.

 $face_array \leq E > A(const graph_t \& G);$ 

creates an instance A of type face\_array $\lt E$  and initializes the index set of A to the current face set of graph G.

 $face_array \leq E$ >  $A(const graph_t \& G, E x);$ 

creates an instance A of type  $face\_array \le E$ , sets the index set of A to the current face set of graph G and initializes  $A(f)$  with x for all faces  $f$  of  $G$ .

face\_array $\leq E$ > A(const graph\_t& G, int n, E x); creates an instance A of type face\_array $\lt E$  valid for up to n faces of graph G and initializes  $A(f)$  with x for all faces f of G. Precondition:  $n \geq |V|$ . A is also valid for the next  $n - |V|$  faces added to G.



void A.init(const graph t& G, int n, E x)

makes A valid for at most n faces of G and sets  $A(f) = x$ for all faces  $f$  of  $G$ . Precondition:  $n > |V|$ . A is also valid for the next  $n - |V|$  faces added to G.

bool A.use face data (const graph t&  $G, E \, x$ )

use free data slots in the faces of  $G$  (if available) for storing the entries of A. The number of additional data slots in the nodes and edges of a graph can be specified in the  $graph::graph(int n_slots, int e_slots)$  constructor. The result is true if a free slot is available and false otherwise.

#### 4. Implementation

Node arrays for a graph G are implemented by C++vectors and an internal numbering of the faces and edges of G. The access operation takes constant time, *init* takes time  $O(n)$ , where *n* is the number of faces in *G*. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

Remark: A face array is only valid for a bounded number of faces of G. This number is either the number of faces of  $G$  at the moment of creation of the array or it is explicitely set by the user. Dynamic face arrays can be realized by face maps (cf. section 9.11).

# 9.11 Node Maps ( node map )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *node\_map* $\leq E$  is a map for the nodes of a graph G, i.e., equivalent to  $map < node, E > (cf. 7.4)$ . It can be used as a dynamic variant of the data type node array (cf. 9.8). New: Since node map  $\leq$  is derived from node array  $\leq$ node maps can be passed (by reference) to functions with node array parameters. In particular, all LEDA graph algorithms expecting a *node\_array* $\leq E\&$  argument can be passed a *node\_map* $\leq E$ > instead.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node_map.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

node map  $\leq$  M; introduces a variable M of type node map  $\leq$  and initializes it to the map with empty domain.

node\_map $\leq E$ > M(const graph\_t& G);

introduces a variable M of type node map  $\leq E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

node\_map $\leq E$ > M(const graph\_t& G, E x);

introduces a variable  $M$  of type  $node\_map \leq E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of m are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .

#### 3. Operations

const graph t& M.get graph() returns a reference to the graph of M.

void  $M.\text{init}$  makes M a node map with empty domain.

void M.init(const graph  $t\& G$ )

makes M a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of m are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

void M.init(const qraph\_t& G, E x)

makes  $M$  a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .
bool M.use node data (const graph  $tk$  G, E x)



E&  $M[node\ v]$  returns the variable  $M(v)$ .

#### 4. Implementation

Node maps either use free node slots or they are implemented by an efficient hashing method based on the internal numbering of the nodes or they use. In each case an access operation takes expected time  $O(1)$ .

## 9.12 Edge Maps ( edge map )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type  $\text{ed} q e \text{m} ap \leq E$  is a map for the edges of a graph G, i.e., equivalent to  $map\leq edge, E\geq$  (cf. 7.4). It can be used as a dynamic variant of the data type edge array (cf. 9.9). New: Since edge map  $\leq$  is derived from edge array  $\leq$  edge maps can be passed (by reference) to functions with edge array parameters. In particular, all LEDA graph algorithms expecting an *edge\_array* $\leq E\$ & argument can be passed an  $edge\_map \leq E \geq \&$  instead.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/edge\_map.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

edge\_map < E> M; introduces a variable M of type edge\_map < E> and initializes it to the map with empty domain.

edge\_map $\leq E$ > M(const graph\_t& G);

introduces a variable M of type  $edge\_map\leq E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all edges of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

edge\_map $\leq E$ > M(const graph\_t& G, E x);

introduces a variable  $M$  of type edge map  $E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all edges of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of m are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .

#### 3. Operations

const graph t& M.get graph() returns a reference to the graph of M.

void  $M.\text{init}$  makes M a edge map with empty domain.

void M.init(const graph  $t\& G$ )

makes M a mapping  $m$  from the set of all edges of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of m are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

void M.init(const qraph\_t& G, E x)

makes M a mapping  $m$  from the set of all edges of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .

bool M.use edge data(const graph  $t \& G, E x$ )



 $E\&$   $M[edge e]$  returns the variable  $M(v)$ .

#### 4. Implementation

Edge maps are implemented by an efficient hashing method based on the internal numbering of the edges. An access operation takes expected time  $O(1)$ .

### 9.13 Face Maps (face map)

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type face map  $E$  is a map for the faces of a graph G, i.e., equivalent to  $map \leq face, E \geq (cf. 7.4)$ . It can be used as a dynamic variant of the data type face array (cf. 9.10). New: Since face map  $\langle E \rangle$  is derived from face array  $\langle E \rangle$ face maps can be passed (by reference) to functions with face array parameters. In particular, all LEDA graph algorithms expecting a  $face\_array \leq E \&$  argument can be passed a  $face\_map \leq E$  instead.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/face\_map.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

face map $\leq E> M$ ; introduces a variable M of type face map $\leq E>$  and initializes it to the map with empty domain.

 $face\_map \leq E$  M(const graph t& G);

introduces a variable M of type  $face\_map\leq E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all faces of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

 $face\_map \leq E$ >  $M(const \ graph_t \& G, E x);$ 

introduces a variable  $M$  of type  $face\_map \leq E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all faces of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of m are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .

#### 3. Operations

const graph t& M.get graph() returns a reference to the graph of M.

void  $M.\text{init}$  makes M a face map with empty domain.

void M.init(const graph  $t\& G$ )

makes  $M$  a mapping  $m$  from the set of all faces of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of m are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

void M.init(const qraph\_t& G, E x)

makes  $M$  a mapping  $m$  from the set of all faces of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .

E&  $M[\text{face } f]$  returns the variable  $M(v)$ .

#### 4. Implementation

Face maps are implemented by an efficient hashing method based on the internal numbering of the faces. An access operation takes expected time  $O(1)$ .

## 9.14 Two Dimensional Node Arrays ( node matrix )

#### 1. Definition

An instance M of the parameterized data type *node matrix*  $\epsilon E$  is a partial mapping from the set of node pairs  $V \times V$  of a graph to the set of variables of data type E, called the element type of M. The domain I of M is called the index set of M. M is said to be valid for all node pairs in  $I$ . A node matrix can also be viewed as a node array with element type  $node\_array \le E > (node\_array \le node\_array \le E > ).$ 

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node_matrix.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

node matrix  $\leq$  M; creates an instance M of type node matrix  $\leq$  and initializes the index set of M to the empty set.

node\_matrix $\leq$  M(const graph\_t& G);

creates an instance M of type *node\_matrix* $\langle E \rangle$  and initializes the index set to be the set of all node pairs of graph  $G$ , i.e.,  $M$  is made valid for all pairs in  $V \times V$  where V is the set of nodes currently contained in G.

node\_matrix $\leq E$ > M(const graph\_t& G, E x);

creates an instance M of type *node\_matrix* $\langle E \rangle$  and initializes the index set of  $M$  to be the set of all node pairs of graph  $G$ , i.e.,  $M$ is made valid for all pairs in  $V \times V$  where V is the set of nodes currently contained in G. In addition,  $M(v, w)$  is initialized with x for all nodes  $v, w \in V$ .

#### 3. Operations



Precondition: M must be valid for v and w.

#### 4. Implementation

Node matrices for a graph G are implemented by vectors of node arrays and an internal numbering of the nodes of G. The access operation takes constant time, the init operation takes time  $O(n^2)$ , where n is the number of nodes currently contained in G. The space requirement is  $O(n^2)$ . Note that a node matrix is only valid for the nodes contained in  $G$  at the moment of the matrix declaration or initialization  $(int)$ . Access operations for later added nodes are not allowed.

# 9.15 Two-Dimensional Node Maps ( node map2 )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *node\_map2*  $\leq E$  is a map2 for the pairs of nodes of a graph G, i.e., equivalent to  $map2 \leq node, node, E > (cf. 7.5)$ . It can be used as a dynamic variant of the data type *node\_matrix* (cf. 9.14).

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node\_map2.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

node map2 < E> M; introduces a variable M of type node map2 < E> and initializes it to the map2 with empty domain.

node\_map2 $\leq E$ > M(const graph\_t& G);

introduces a variable M of type  $node\_map2 \leq E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

 $node\_map2 \le E$  M(const graph t& G, E x);

introduces a variable M of type *node\_map2*  $\leq E$  and initializes it with a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$  into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .

#### 3. Operations

void  $M.\text{init}$  makes M a node map2 with empty domain. void M.init(const graph\_t&  $G$ ) makes M to a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$  into

the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of m are initialized by a call of the default constructor of type E.

void M.init(const graph t& G, E x)

makes  $M$  to a mapping  $m$  from the set of all nodes of  $G$ into the set of variables of type  $E$ . The variables in the range of  $m$  are initialized with a copy of  $x$ .

E&  $M(node\ v, node\ w)$  returns the variable  $M(v, w)$ .

bool M.defined(node v, node w)

returns true if  $(v, w) \in dom(M)$  and false otherwise.

#### 4. Implementation

Node maps are implemented by an efficient hashing method based on the internal numbering of the nodes. An access operation takes expected time  $O(1)$ .

## 9.16 Sets of Nodes ( node set )

#### 1. Definition

An instance S of the data type *node\_set* is a subset of the nodes of a graph  $G$ . S is said to be valid for the nodes of G.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node_set.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

node\_set  $S($ const graph $\& G$ ;

creates an instance  $S$  of type *node\_set* valid for all nodes currently contained in graph G and initializes it to the empty set.

#### 3. Operations



#### 4. Implementation

A node set S for a graph G is implemented by a combination of a list L of nodes and a node array of list items associating with each node its position in L. All operations take constant time, except for clear which takes time  $O(S)$ . The space requirement is  $O(n)$ , where  $n$  is the number of nodes of  $G$ .

## 9.17 Sets of Edges (edge\_set)

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $S$  of the data type *edge\_set* is a subset of the edges of a graph  $G$ .  $S$  is said to be valid for the edges of G.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/edge_set.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $edge_set$   $S(const$  graph & G);

creates an instance  $S$  of type  $edge_set$  valid for all edges currently in graph G and initializes it to the empty set.

#### 3. Operations



#### 4. Implementation

An edge set S for a graph G is implemented by a combination of a list L of edges and an edge array of list items associating with each edge its position in  $L$ . All operations take constant time, except for clear which takes time  $O(S)$ . The space requirement is  $O(n)$ , where  $n$  is the number of edges of  $G$ .

# 9.18 Lists of Nodes ( node list )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *node list* is a doubly linked list of nodes. It is implemented more efficiently than the general list type  $list < node > (6.7)$ . However, it can only be used with the restriction that every node is contained in at most one *node list*. Also many operations supported by  $list \leq node$  (for instance size) are not supported by node\_list.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node\_list.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

node list  $L$ ; introduces a variable  $L$  of type node list and initializes it with the empty list.

#### 3. Operations





 $\pmb{\quad \text{for all}}(x,L)\ \{\text{``the elements of }L\text{ are successively assigned to }x\text{''}\ \}$ 

# 9.19 Node Partitions ( node partition )

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $P$  of the data type *node partition* is a partition of the nodes of a graph  $G$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node\_partition.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

```
node<sub>-</sub>partition P(const graph\& G;
                       creates a node partition P containing for every node v in G a block
                        \{v\}.3. Operations
```


#### 4. Implementation

A node partition for a graph G is implemented by a combination of a partition P and a node array of partition item associating with each node in G a partition item in P. Initialization takes linear time, union blocks takes time  $O(1)$  (worst-case), and same block and find take time  $O(\alpha(n))$  (amortized). The cost of a split is proportional to the cost of the blocks dismantled. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ , where n is the number of nodes of G.

# 9.20 Node Priority Queues ( node pq )

#### 1. Definition

An instance Q of the parameterized data type *node\_pq*< $P$ > is a partial function from the nodes of a graph  $G$  to a linearly ordered type  $P$  of priorities. The priority of a node is sometimes called the information of the node. For every graph G only one  $node\_pq\leq P$ may be used and every node of  $G$  may be contained in the queue at most once (cf. section 8.1 for general priority queues).

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/node_pah >$ 

#### 2. Creation

```
node_pq<P>Q(const\ graph_t \& G);
```
creates an instance Q of type *node\_pq*< $P$ > for the nodes of graph G with  $dom(Q) = \emptyset$ .

#### 3. Operations





#### 4. Implementation

Node priority queues are implemented by binary heaps and node arrays. Operations insert, del node, del min, decrease p take time  $O(\log m)$ , find min and empty take time  $O(1)$  and clear takes time  $O(m)$ , where m is the size of Q. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ , where  $n$  is the number of nodes of  $G$ .

# 9.21 Bounded Node Priority Queues (b\_node\_pq)

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type  $b$ -node-pq $\langle N \rangle$  is a priority queue of nodes with integer priorities with the restriction that the size of the minimal interval containing all priorities in the queue is bounded by  $N$ , the sequence of the priorities of the results of calls of the method del min is monotone increasing, and every node is contained in at most one queue. When applied to the empty queue the del min - operation returns a special default minimum node defined in the constructor of the queue.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/b\_node\_pq.h$ 

#### 2. Creation

b node pq < N > PQ; introduces a variable PQ of type b node pq < N > and initializes it with the empty queue with default minimum node *nil*.

b\_node\_pq< $N$ >  $PQ(node v);$ 

introduces a variable  $PQ$  of type  $b$ -node-pq $\langle N \rangle$  and initializes it with the empty queue with default minimum node  $v$ .

#### 3. Operations



#### 4. Implementation

Bounded node priority queues are implemented by cyclic arrays of doubly linked node lists.

#### 5. Example

Using a *b\_node\_pq* in Dijktra's shortest paths algorithm.

```
int dijkstra(const GRAPH<int,int>& g, node s, node t)
{ node_array<int> dist(g,MAXINT);
 b_node_pq<100> PQ(t); // on empty queue del_min returns t
 dist[s] = 0;
```

```
for (node v = s; v := t; v = PQ.del_min())
  { int dv = dist[v];
    edge e;
   forall_adj_edges(e,v)
   { node w = g.opposite(v,e);
      int d = dv + g.inf(e);
     if (d < dist[w])
     { if (dist[w] != MAXINT) PQ.del(w);
        dist[w] = d;PQ.insert(w,d);
      }
     }
   }
 return dist[t];
}
```
# 9.22 Graph Generators ( graph gen )





#### Planar graph: Combinatorial Constructions

A maximal planar map with n nodes,  $n \geq 3$ , has  $3n - 6$  uedges. It is constructed iteratively. For  $n = 1$ , the graph consists of a single isolated node, for  $n = 2$ , the graph consists of two nodes and one uedge, for  $n = 3$  the graph consists of three nodes and three uedges. For  $n > 3$ , a random maximal planar map with  $n - 1$  nodes is constructed first and then an additional node is put into a random face.

The generator with the additional parameter m first generates a maximal planar map and then deletes all but m edges.

The generators with the word map replaced by graph, first generate a map and then delete one edge from each uedge.



#### Planar graph: Geometric Constructions

We have two kinds of geometric constructions: triangulations of point sets and intersection graph of line segments. The functions triangulation map choose points in the unit square and compute a triangulation of them and the functions *random\_planar\_qraph* construct the intersection graph of segments.

The generators with the word map replaced by graph, first generate a map and then delete one edge from each uedge.





void random planar graph(graph& G, node\_array<double>& xcoord,

 $node_array \leq double \geq \&\ ycoord, \ int\ n)$ 

creates a random planar graph  $G$  with  $n$  nodes embedded into the unit sqare. The embedding is given by *xcoord*[v] and *ycoord*[v] for every node v of G. The generator chooses  $n$  segments whose endpoints have random coordinates of the form  $x/K$ , where K is the smallest power of two greater or equal to  $n$ , and  $x$  is a random integer in 0 to  $K - 1$ . It then constructs the arrangement defined by the segments and keeps the  $n$  nodes with the smallest  $x$ -coordinates. Finally, it adds edges to make the graph connected.

void random planar graph( $graph\& G, int n$ ) creates a random planar graph  $G$  with  $n$  nodes. Uses the preceding function.

#### Series-Parallel Graphs

void random sp graph( $graph\& G, int\ n, int\ m$ )

creates a random series-parallel graph  $G$  with  $n$  nodes and m edges.

# 9.23 Miscellaneous Graph Functions ( graph misc )

### 1. Operations







 $list \leq node$  > Delete Loops( $graph \& G$ ) returns the list of nodes with self-loops and deletes all self-loops.

# 9.24 Markov Chains ( markov chain )

#### 1. Definition

We consider a Markov Chain to be a graph  $G$  in which each edge has an associated nonnegative integer weight  $w[e]$ . For every node (with at least one outgoing edge) the total weight of the outgoing edges must be positive. A random walk in a Markov chain starts at some node s and then performs steps according to the following rule:

Initially, s is the current node. Suppose node v is the current node and that  $e_0, \ldots, e_{d-1}$ are the edges out of  $v$ . If  $v$  has no outgoing edge no further step can be taken. Otherwise, the walk follows edge  $e_i$  with probability proportional to  $w[e_i]$  for all  $i, 0 \leq i < d$ . The target node of the chosen edge becomes the new current node.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/markov_{chain}.$ h >

#### 2. Creation

markov\_chain M(const graph& G, const edge\_array <int> x w, node  $s = nil$ ); creates a Markov chain for the graph  $G$  with edge weights  $w$ . The node s is taken as the start vertex  $(G$ first\_node() if s is nil).

#### 3. Operations



# 9.25 Dynamic Markov Chains ( dynamic markov chain )

#### 1. Definition

A Markov Chain is a graph G in which each edge has an associated non-negative integer weight  $w[e]$ . For every node (with at least one outgoing edge) the total weight of the outgoing edges must be positive. A random walk in a Markov chain starts at some node s and then performs steps according to the following rule:

Initially, s is the current node. Suppose node v is the current node and that  $e_0, \ldots, e_{d-1}$ are the edges out of  $v$ . If  $v$  has no outgoing edge no further step can be taken. Otherwise, the walk follows edge  $e_i$  with probability proportional to  $w[e_i]$  for all  $i, 0 \leq i < d$ . The target node of the chosen edge becomes the new current node.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/markov_{chain}.$ h >

#### 2. Creation

dynamic\_markov\_chain M(const graph& G, const edge\_array $\langle int \rangle$ & w, node s = nil); creates a Markov chain for the graph  $G$  with edge weights  $w$ . The node s is taken as the start vertex  $(G$ first\_node() if s is nil.

#### 3. Operations



## 9.26 GML Parser for Graphs ( gml graph )

#### 1. Definition

An instance parser of the data type *qml\_qraph* is a parser for graph in GML format [48]. It is possible to extend the parser by user defined rules. This parser is used by the read\_qml of class graph. The following is a small example graph (a triangle) in GML format.

```
# This is a comment.
graph [ # Lists start with '['.
 directed 1 # This is a directed graph (0 for undirected).
 # The following is an object of type string.
 # It will be ignored unless you specify a rule for graph.text.
 text "This is a string object."
 node [ id 1 ] # This defines a node with id 1.
 node [ id 2 ]
 node [ id 3 ]
 edge [ # This defines an edge leading from node 1 to node 2.
   source 1
   target 2
 ]
 edge [
   source 2
   target 3
 ]
 edge [
   source 3
   target 1
 ]
] # Lists end with ']'.
```
An input in GML format is a list of GML objects. Each object consists of a key word and a value. A value may have one out of four possible types, an integer (type  $qml\_int$ ), a double (type  $qml\_double)$ , a string (type  $qml\_string)$ , or a list of GML objects (type  $gml\_list$ ). Since a value can be a list of objects, we get a tree structure on the input. We can describe a class C of objects being in the same list and having the same key word by the so-called path. The path is the list of key words leading to an object in the class C.

In principle, every data structure can be expressed in GML format. This parser specializes on graphs. A graph is represented by an object with key word *graph* and type *qml\_list*. The nodes of the graph are objects with path *graph.node* and type *gml list*. Each node has a unique identifier, which is represented by an object of type  $qml\_int$  with path  $graph.node.id.$  An edge is an object of type  $qml_list$  with the path  $graph-edge$ . Each edge has a source and a target. These are objects of type *qml int* with path *graph.edge.source* and graph.edge.target, respectively. The integer values of source and target refer to node identifiers. There are some global graph attributes, too. An object of type *gml\_int* with path graph.directed determines whether the graph is undirected (value 0) or directed (every other integer). The type of node parameters and edge parameters in parameterized graph (see manual page GRAPH) can be given by objects of type  $qml\_string$ with path  $graph nodeType$  and  $graph-edgeType$ , respectively. Parameters of nodes and edges are represented by objects of type gml string with path graph.node.parameter and graph.edge.parameter, respectively.

No list has to be in a specific order, e.g., you can freely mix node and edge objects in the graph list. If there are several objects in a class where just one object is required like graph.node.id, only the last such object is taken into account.

Objects in classes with no predefined rules are simply ignored. This means that an application A might add specific objects to a graph description in GML format and this description is still readable for another application B which simply does not care about the objects which are specific for A.

This parser supports reading user defined objects by providing a mechanism for dealing with those objects by means of callback functions. You can specify a rule for, e.g., objects with path *graph.node.weight* and type *gml\_double* like in the following code fragment.

```
...
bool get node weight(const gml object* gobj, graph* G, node v)
\{double w = gobj - 2get_double();
  do something with w, the graph and the corresponding node v
 return true; or false if the operation failed
}
...
main()
\left\{ \right.char* filename;
  ...
 graph G;
 gml graph parser(G);
 parser.append("graph"); parser.append("node");
parser.append("weight");
 parser.add_node_rule_for_cur_path(get_node_weight,gml_double);
  // or short parser.add_node_rule(get_node_weight,gml_double,"weight");
 bool parsing ok = parser.parse(filename);
  ...
}
```
You can add rules for the graph, for nodes, and for edges. The difference between them is the type. The type of node rules is as in the example above bool (\*gml node rule)(const gml object\*, graph\*, node), the type for edge rules is bool (\*gml edge rule)(const gml object\*, graph\*, edge), and the type for graph rules is bool (\*gml graph rule)(const gml object\*, graph\*). A GML object is represented by an instance of class gml object. You can get its value by using double gml object::get double(), int gml object::get int() or char\* gml\_object::get\_string(). If one of your rules returns  $false$  during parsing, then parsing fails and the graph is cleared.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/gmL graph.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $gml_graph$  parser (graph & G);

creates an instance *parser* of type *gml\_graph* and initializes it for graph G.

 $gmL graph$  parser (graph & G, const char  $\ast$  filename);

creates an instance parser of type gml graph and reads graph G from the file filename.

 $gmL graph$  parser (graph & G, istream & ins);

creates an instance parser of type gml graph and reads graph G from the input stream *ins*.

#### 3. Operations

#### 3.1 Parsing

bool parser.parse(const char ∗ filename)

parses the input taken from the file filename using the current set of rules. The graph specified in the constructor is set up accordingly. This operation returns false and clears the graph, if syntax or parse errors occur. Otherwise true is returned.

bool parser.parse(istream& ins)

parses the input taken from the input stream ins.

bool parser.parse string(string s)

parses the input taken from string s.

#### 3.2 Path Manipulation

void parser.reset\_path() resets the current path to the empty path.

void parser.append(const char  $*$  key)

appends key to the current path.

void parser.goback() removes the last key word from the current path. If the current path is empty this operation has no effect.

#### 3.3 User Defined Rules

void parser.add graph rule for cur path $(gml_graph_rule f, gml_value_type t)$ adds graph rule  $f$  for value type  $t$  and for the current path. void parser.add.node.rule.for.cur.path(gml\_node\_rule f, gml\_value\_type t) adds node rule f for value type t and for the current path. void parser.add edge rule for cur path(gml edge rule f, gml value type t) adds edge rule f for value type t and for the current path. void parser.add graph rule(gml\_graph\_rule f, gml\_value\_type t, char  $*$  key = 0) adds graph rule f for value type t and path  $graph(key)$  to

*parser*, if key is specified. Otherwise,  $f$  is added for the current path.

void parser.add node rule(gml\_node\_rule f, gml\_value\_type t, char  $*$  key = 0) adds node rule f for path *graph.node.key* (or the current path, if no key is specified) and value type  $t$  to *parser*.

void parser.add edge rule(gml\_edge\_rule f, gml\_value\_type t, char  $*$  key = 0)

adds edge rule f for path *graph.edge.key* (or the current path, if no key is specified) and value type  $t$  to *parser*.

void parser.add.new.graph.rule(gml.graph.rule f)

adds graph rule  $f$  to parser. During parsing  $f$  is called whenever an object *o* with path *graph* and type *qml* list is encountered. f is called before objects in the list of o are parsed.

void parser.add.new\_node\_rule( $gmL node$ -rule f)

adds node rule f for path  $graphnode$  and value type  $gml_list$ to *parser*.  $f$  is called before objects in the corresponding list are parsed.

void parser.add.new\_edge\_rule( $gmLedge$ -rule f)

adds edge rule f for path graph.edge and value type  $gml\_list$ to *parser*. f is called before objects in the corresponding list are parsed.

void parser.add.graph.done.rule(gml\_graph\_rule f)

adds graph rule f to parser. During parsing f is called whenever an object *o* with path *graph* and type *gml\_list* is encountered.  $f$  is called after all objects in the list of  $o$  are parsed.

void parser.add.node.done.rule(gml\_node\_rule f)

adds node rule  $f$  to *parser* for path  $graphnode$  and value type  $qml_list.$  f is called after all objects in the corresponding list are parsed.

void parser.add.edge.done.rule(gml\_edge\_rule f)

adds edge rule f to parser for path graph.edge and value type  $gml\_list.$  f is called after all objects in the corresponding list are parsed.

#### 4. Implementation

The data type gml graph is realized using lists and maps. It inherits from gml parser which uses gml\_object, gml\_objecttree, and gml\_pattern. gml\_pattern uses dictionaries.

### 9.27 The LEDA graph input/output format

The following passage describes the format of the output produced by the function graph::write(ostream& out). The output consists of several lines which are separated by endl. Comment-lines have a # character in the first column and are ignored. The output can be partitioned in three sections:

#### Header Section

The first line always contains the string LEDA.GRAPH. If the graph type is not parameterized, i.e. graph or ugraph, the following two lines both contain the string void. In case the graph is parameterized, i.e. GRAPH or UGRAPH, these lines contain a description of the node type and the edge type, which is obtained by calling the macro LEDA TYPE NAME.The fourth line specifies if the graph is either directed (-1) or undirected (-2).

#### Nodes Section

The first line contains n, the number of nodes in the graph. The nodes are ordered and numbered according to their position in the node list of the graph. Each of the following n lines contains the information which is associated with the respective node of the graph. When the information of a node (or an edge) is sent to an output stream, it is always enclosed by the strings  $|\{\text{and }\}\|$ . If the graph is not parameterized, then the string between these parantheses is empty, so that all the n lines contain the string  $|\{\}\|$ .

#### Edges Section

The first line contains m, the number of edges in the graph. The edges of the graph are ordered by two criteria: first according to the number of their source node and second according to their position in the adjacency list of the source node. Each of the next m lines contains the description of an edge which consists of four space-separated parts:

- (a) the number of the source node
- (b) the number of the target node
- (c) the number of the reversal edge or 0, if no such edge is set
- (d) the information associated with the edge (cf. nodes section)

Note: For the data type planar map the order of the edges is important, because the ordering of the edges in the adjacency list of a node corresponds to the counter-clockwise ordering of these edges around the node in the planar embedding. And the information about reversal edges is also vital for this data type.

# Chapter 10

# Graph Algorithms

This chapter gives a summary of the graph algorithms contained in LEDA, basic graph algorithms for reachability problems, shortest path algorithms, matching algorithms, flow algorithms,  $\ldots$ .

All graph algorithms are generic, i.e., they accept instances of any user defined parameterized graph type  $GRAPH \le vtype$ , etype $\ge$  as arguments.

All graph algorithms are available by including the header file  $\triangle EDA/graph/graph\_alg.h$ . Alternatively, one may include a more specific header file.

An important subclass of graph algorithms are network algorithms. The input to most network algorithms is a graph whose edges or nodes are labeled with numbers, e.g., shortest path algorithms get edge costs, network flow algorithms get edge capacities, and min cost flow algorithms get edge capacities and edge costs. We use NT to denote the number type used for the edge and node labels.

Most network algorithms come in three kinds: A templated version in which NT is a template parameter, and reinstantiated and precompiled versions for the number types int (always) and *double* (except for a small number of functions). The function name of the templated version ends in  $\mathcal{T}$ . Thus MAX FLOW  $\mathcal{T}$  is the name of the templated version of the max flow algorithm and MAX FLOW is the name of the instantiated version.

In order to use the templated version a file  $\langle \text{LEDA/graph/templates/XXX.h} \rangle$  must be included, e.g., in order to use the templated version of the maxflow algorithm, one must include <LEDA/graph/templates/max flow.h>

Special care should be taken when using network algorithms with a number type NT that can incur rounding error, e.g., the type double. The functions perform correctly if the arithmetic is exact. This is the case if all numerical values in the input are integers (albeit stored as a number of type  $NT$ ), if none of the intermediate results exceeds the maximal integer representable by the number type  $(2^{52}$  in the case of *doubles*), and if no round-off errors occur during the computation. We give more specific information on the
arithmetic demand for each function below. If the arithmetic incurs rounding error, the computation may fail in two ways: give a wrong answer or run forever.

# 10.1 Basic Graph Algorithms ( basic graph alg )

bool TOPSORT(const graph& G, node\_array $\leq int \geq \&$  ord)

TOPSORT takes as argument a directed graph  $G(V, E)$ . It sorts G topologically (if G is acyclic) by computing for every node  $v \in V$  an integer ord[v] such that  $1 \leq \text{ord}[v] \leq |V|$  and  $\text{ord}[v] < \text{ord}[w]$  for all edges  $(v, w) \in E$ . TOPSORT returns true if G is acyclic and false otherwise. The algorithm ([52]) has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

bool TOPSORT(const graph & G, list <node > & L)

a variant of TOPSORT that computes a list L of nodes in topological order (if  $G$  is acyclic). It returns true if  $G$  is acyclic and false otherwise.

bool  $\qquad \qquad \text{TOPSORT1}(graph \& G)$ 

a variant of TOPSORT that rearranges nodes and edges of G in topological order (edges are sorted by the topological number of their target nodes).

list $\langle$ node> DFS(const graph $\& G$ , node s, node\_array $\langle$ bool> $\&$  reached)

DFS takes as argument a directed graph  $G(V, E)$ , a node s of G and a node array reached of boolean values. It performs a depth first search starting at s visiting all reachable nodes v with reached  $[v] =$  false. For every visited node v reached |v| is changed to true. DFS returns the list of all reached nodes. The algorithm ([87]) has running time  $O(|V|+|E|)$ .

## $list \leq edge$  DFS NUM(const graph& G, node\_array $\leq int \geq k$  dfsnum,  $node_array\&compnum$

DFS\_NUM takes as argument a directed graph  $G(V, E)$ . It performs a depth first search of G numbering the nodes of  $G$  in two different ways. dfsnum is a numbering with respect to the calling time and compnum a numbering with respect to the completion time of the recursive calls. DFS\_NUM returns a depth first search forest of G (list of tree edges). The algorithm ([87]) has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

list $\langle$ node> BFS(const graph $\& G$ , node s, node\_array $\langle$ int> $\&$  dist)

BFS takes as argument a directed graph  $G(V, E)$ , a node s of G and a node array *dist* of integers. It performs a breadth first search starting at s visiting all nodes v with  $dist[v] = -1$  reachable from s. The dist value of every visited node is replaced by its distance to s. BFS returns the list of all visited nodes. The algorithm ([60]) has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

list<node> BFS(const graph& G, node s, node\_array<int>& dist, node array<edge>& pred)

> performs a bread first search as described above and computes for every node v the predecessor edge  $pred[v]$  in the bfs shortest path tree. (You can use the function COMPUTE SHORTEST PATH to extract paths from the tree (cf. Section 10.2).)

### int  $COMPONENTS(const graph & G, node_array < int>%$

COMPONENTS takes a graph  $G(V, E)$  as argument and computes the connected components of the underlying undirected graph, i.e., for every node  $v \in V$  an integer compnum[v] from [0...c-1] where c is the number of connected components of  $G$  and  $v$  belongs to the *i*-th connected component iff  $common[v] = i$ . COMPONENTS returns c. The algorithm  $(|60|)$  has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

int STRONG\_COMPONENTS(const graph& G, node\_array<int>& compnum) STRONG COMPONENTS takes a directed graph  $G(V, E)$  as argument and computes for every node  $v \in V$  an integer  $common[v]$  from  $[0 \dots c-$ 1 where c is the number of strongly connected components of  $G$  and  $v$ belongs to the *i*-th strongly connected component iff  $common[v] = i$ . STRONG COMPONENTS returns c. The algorithm  $([60])$  has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

#### int BICONNECTED\_COMPONENTS(const graph& G,

 $edge_{array}$  $\⊂>common$ 

BICONNECTED COMPONENTS computes the biconnected components of the undirected version of G. A biconnected component of an undirected graph is a maximal biconnected subgraph and a biconnected graph is a graph which cannot be disconnected by removing one of its nodes. A graph having only one node is biconnected.

Let  $c$  be the number of biconnected component and let  $c'$  be the number of biconnected components containing at least one edge,  $c - c'$  is the number of isolated nodes in  $G$ , where a node v is isolated if is not connected to a node different from  $v$  (it may be incident to self-loops). The function returns c and labels each edge of  $G$  (which is not a self-loop) by an integer in  $[0 \dots c' - 1]$ . Two edges receive the same label iff they belong to the same biconnected component. The edge labels are returned in compnum. Be aware that self-loops receive no label since self-loops are ignored when interpreting a graph as an undirected graph.

The algorithm ([22]) has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

#### $GRAPH \leq node$ , edge> TRANSITIVE CLOSURE(const graph& G)

TRANSITIVE CLOSURE takes a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$  as argument and computes the transitive closure of G. It returns a directed graph  $G' = (V', E')$  such that  $G': inf(.)$  is a bijective mapping from  $V'$ to V and  $(v, w) \in E' \Leftrightarrow$  there is a path from  $G': inf(v')$  to  $G': inf(w')$  in G. (The edge information of  $G'$  is undefined.) The algorithm ([42]) has running time  $O(|V| \cdot |E|)$ .

### $GRAPH \leq node$ , edge> TRANSITIVE REDUCTION(const graph& G)

TRANSITIVE REDUCTION takes a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$  as argument and computes the transitive reduction of G. It returns a directed graph  $G' = (V', E')$ . The function  $G': inf(.)$  is a bijective mapping from  $V'$  to  $V$ . The graph  $G$  and  $G'$  have the same reachability relation, i.e. there is a path from  $v'$  to  $w'$  in  $G' \Leftrightarrow$  there is a path from  $G':\inf(v')$ to  $G':\inf(w')$  in G. And there is no graph with the previous property and less edges than  $G'$ . (The edge information of  $G'$  is undefined.) The algorithm ([42]) has running time  $O(|V| \cdot |E|)$ .

- void MAKE TRANSITIVELY\_CLOSED(graph& G) MAKE\_TRANSITIVELY\_CLOSED transforms G into its transitive closure by adding edges.
- void MAKE TRANSITIVELY REDUCED(qraph& G) MAKE TRANSITIVELY REDUCED transforms G into its transitive reduction by removing edges.

# 10.2 Shortest Path Algorithms ( shortest path )

Let G be a graph, s a node in G, and c a cost function on the edges of G. Edge costs may be positive or negative. For a node v let  $\mu(v)$  be the length of a shortest path from s to v (more precisely, the infimum of the lengths of all paths from s to v). If v is not reachable from s then  $\mu(v) = +\infty$  and if v is reachable from s through a cycle of negative cost then  $\mu(v) = -\infty$ . Let  $V^+$ ,  $V^f$ , and  $V^-$  be the set of nodes v with  $\mu(v) = +\infty$ ,  $-\infty < \mu(v) < +\infty$ , and  $\mu(v) = -\infty$ , respectively.

The solution to a single source shortest path problem  $(G, s, c)$  is a pair  $(dist, pred)$  where dist is a node\_array $\langle NT \rangle$  and pred is a node\_array $\langle edge \rangle$  with the following properties. Let  $P = \{ \text{pred}[v] : v \in V \text{ and } \text{pred}[v] \neq nil \}$ . A P-cycle is a cycle all of whose edges belong to  $P$  and a  $P$ -path is a path all of whose edges belong to  $P$ .

- $v \in V^+$  iff  $v \neq s$  and  $pred[v] = nil$  and  $v \in V^f \cup V^-$  iff  $v = s$  or  $pred[v] \neq nil$ .
- $s \in V^f$  if  $pred[s] = nil$  and  $s \in V^-$  otherwise.
- $v \in V^f$  if v is reachable from s by a P-path and  $s \in V^f$ . P restricted to  $V^f$  forms a shortest path tree and  $dist[v] = \mu(s, v)$  for  $v \in V^f$ .
- All P-cycles have negative cost and  $v \in V^-$  iff v lies on a P-cycle or is reachable from a P-cycle by a P-path.

Most functions in this section are template functions. The template parameter  $NT$  can be instantiated with any number type. In order to use the template version of the function the .h-file

### #include <LEDA/graph/templates/shortest\_path.h>

must be included. The functions are pre-instantiated with int and double. The function names of the pre-instantiated versions are without the suffix \_T.

Special care should be taken when using the functions with a number type NT that can incur rounding error, e.g., the type double. The functions perform correctly if all arithmetic performed is without rounding error. This is the case if all numerical values in the input are integers (albeit stored as a number of type  $NT$ ) and if none of the intermediate results exceeds the maximal integer representable by the number type  $(2^{52}$ in the case of doubles). All intermediate results are sums and differences of input values, in particular, the algorithms do not use divisions and multiplications. All intermediate values are bounded by  $nC$  where n is the number of nodes and C is the maximal absolute value of any edge cost.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

bool SHORTEST\_PATH\_T(const graph& G, node s, const edge\_array $\langle NTS \& c,$ 

 $node_array < NT> \&\ dist,\ node_array < edges \&\ pred)$ 

SHORTEST PATH solves the single source shortest path problem in the graph  $G(V, E)$  with respect to the source node s and the cost-function given by the edge array  $c$ .

The procedure returns false if there is a negative cycle in G that is reachable from s and returns true otherwise.

It runs in linear time on acyclic graph, in time  $O(m +$  $n \log n$ ) if all edge costs are non-negative, and runs in time  $O(\min(D, n)m)$  otherwise. Here D is the maximal number of edges on any shortest path.

 $list \leq edge$  COMPUTE SHORTEST PATH(const graph & G, node s, node t,  $const$  node\_array $\leq$ edge> $\&$  pred)

computes a shortest path from s to t assuming that pred stores a valid shortest path tree with root s (as it can be computed with the previous function). The returned list contains the edges on a shortest path from  $s$  to  $t$ . The running time is linear in the length of the path.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

node\_array<int> CHECKSP\_T(const graph& G, node s, const edge\_array< $NT \& c$ , const node\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  dist,

const node\_array $\leq$ edge $\&$  pred)

checks whether the pair (dist, pred) is a correct solution to the shortest path problem  $(G, s, c)$  and returns a node\_array $\leq int$ > *label* with *label*[v] < 0 if v has distance  $-\infty$  (-2 for nodes lying on a negative cycle and −1 for a node reachable from a negative cycle),  $label[v] = 0$  if v has finite distance, and  $label[v] > 0$  if v has distance  $+\infty$ . The program aborts if the check fails. The algorithm takes linear time.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

void  $\Lambda$ CYCLIC\_SHORTEST\_PATH\_T(const graph&  $G$ , node s,

const edge\_array < $NT \geq k$  c,

node\_array $\langle NT \rangle \&\ \text{dist},\ \text{node\_array} \&\ \text{pred}$ 

solves the single source shortest path problem with respect to source s. The algorithm takes linear time. Precondition: G must be acyclic.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ void DIJKSTRAT(const graph  $\& G$ , node s, const edge\_array <NT >  $\times$  cost,  $node_array \leq NTS\&\text{dist},\text{node_array} \leq \leq k$  pred)

solves the shortest path problem in a graph with non-negative edges weights.

Precondition: The costs of all edges are non-negative.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

void DIJKSTRA T(const graph  $\& G$ , node s, const edge\_array < $NT \& cost$ ,

 $node_array < NT> \& dist)$ 

as above, but pred is not computed.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

 $NT$  DIJKSTRA T(const graph & G, node s, node t, const edge array < $NT \geq x$  c,

 $node_array \leq edge \geq \& pred)$ 

computes a shortest path from s to t and returns its length. The cost of all edges must be non-negative. The return value is unspecified if there is no path from  $s$  to  $t$ . The array  $pred$ records a shortest path from s to t in reverse order, i.e.,  $pred[t]$ is the last edge on the path. If there is no path from  $s$  to  $t$ or if  $s = t$  then  $pred[t] = nil$ . The worst case running time is  $O(m + n \log n)$ , but frequently much better.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

bool BELLMAN FORD B T(const graph & G, node s, const edge array < $NT \geq x$  c,

 $node_array \leq NTS\&\text{dist},\text{node_array} \leq \leq \&\text{pred}$ 

BELLMAN\_FORD\_B solves the single source shortest path problem in the graph  $G(V, E)$  with respect to the source node s and the cost-function given by the edge array c.

BELLMAN\_FORD\_B returns false if there is a negative cycle in G that is reachable from s and returns true otherwise. The algorithm ([11]) has running time  $O(\min(D, n)m)$  where D is the maximal number of edges on any shortest path. The algorithm is only included for pedagogical purposes.

void  $BFGEN(GRAPH\leq int, int\geq \& G$ , int n, int m, bool non negative  $= true)$ 

generates a graph with at most  $n$  nodes and at most  $m$  edges. The edge costs are stored as edge data. The running time of BELLMAN FORD B on this graph is  $\Omega(nm)$ . The edge weights are non-negative if *non-negative* is true and are arbitrary otherwise.

Precondition:  $m \ge 2n$  and  $m \le n^2/2$ .

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

bool BELLMAN\_FORD\_T(const graph& G, node s, const edge\_array < $NT \geq c$ ,

 $node_array \leq NTS\&\text{dist},\text{node_array} \leq \text{edge} \geq \&\text{pred}$ 

BELLMAN\_FORD\_T solves the single source shortest path problem in the graph  $G(V, E)$  with respect to the source node s and the cost-function given by the edge array c.

BELLMAN\_FORD\_T returns false if there is a negative cycle in G that is reachable from s and returns true otherwise. The algorithm ([11]) has running time  $O(\min(D, n)m)$  where D is the maximal number of edges in any shortest path.

The algorithm is never significantly slower than BELL-MAN FORD B and frequently much faster.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ bool ALL PAIRS SHORTEST PATHS T(qraph& G, const edge\_array < $NT \geq c$ ,

node\_matrix < $NT$ > $\&$  DIST)

returns *true* if G has no negative cycle and returns *false* otherwise. In the latter case all values returned in DIST are unspecified. In the former case the following holds for all  $v$ and w: if  $\mu(v, w) < \infty$  then  $DIST(v, w) = \mu(v, w)$  and if  $\mu(v, w) = \infty$  then the value of  $DIST(v, w)$  is arbitrary. The procedure runs in time  $O(nm + n^2 \log n)$ .

bool KSHORTEST\_PATHS(graph & G, node s, node t, const edge\_array < int > & c, int k,  $list \leq list \leq edge \geq \cdot \cdot \cdot \& sps, int \& nops)$ 

> K SHORTEST PATHS solves the k shortest simple paths problem in the graph  $G(V, E)$  with respect to the source node  $s$ , the target node  $t$ , and the cost-function given by the edge array  $c$ .  $k$  is an input parameter specifying the number of paths to be computed.

> sps reports the *nops* shortest simple paths computed, each specified as a list of edges from s to t. nops is an output parameter that gives the number of reported paths. It is usually k, except in the case that there are more than  $k$  shortest paths of the same length, then all of them are reported or in the case that there are less than k paths from s to t. In both cases, nops deviates from k and specifies the number of reported paths.

### rational MINIMUM RATIO CYCLE(qraph & G, const edge\_array<int> & c,

#### const edge\_array <int >  $\&$  p, list <edge >  $\&$  C\_start)

Returns a minimum cost to profit ratio cycle *C*\_start and the ratio of the cycle. For a cycle C let  $c(C)$  be the sum of the cvalues of the edges on the cycle and let  $p(C)$  be the sum of the p-values of the edges on the cycle. The cost to profit ratio of the cycle is the quotient  $c(C)/p(C)$ . The cycle C<sub>-</sub>start realizes the minimum ratio for any cycle  $C$ . The procedure runs in time  $O(nm \log(n \cdot C \cdot P))$  where C and P are the maximum cost and profit of any edge, respectively. The function returns zero if there is no cycle in G.

Precondition: There are no cycles of cost zero or less with respect to either  $c$  or  $p$ .

# 10.3 Maximum Flow ( max flow )

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a directed graph, let s and t be distinct vertices in G and let cap:  $E \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  be a non-negative function on the edges of G. For an edge e, we call  $cap(e)$ the capacity of e. An  $(s, t)$ -flow or simply flow is a function  $f : E \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  satisfying the capacity constraints and the flow conservation constraints:

(1) 
$$
0 \le f(e) \le cap(e) \qquad \text{for every edge } e \in E
$$
  
(2) 
$$
\sum_{e \text{; source}(e)=v} f(e) = \sum_{e \text{;target}(e)=v} f(e) \qquad \text{for every node } v \in V \setminus \{s, t\}
$$

The value of the flow is the net flow into t (equivalently, the net flow out of  $s$ ). The net flow into t is the flow into t minus the flow out of t. A flow is maximum if its value is at least as large as the value of any other flow.

All max flow implementations are template functions. The template parameter NT can be instantiated with any number type. In order to use the template version of the function the files

#include <LEDA/graph/graph\_alg.h> #include <LEDA/graph/templates/max\_flow.h>

must be included.

There are pre-instantiations for the number types *int* and *double*. The pre-instantiated versions have the same function names except for the suffix \_T. In order to use them either

```
#include <LEDA/graph/max_flow.h>
```
or

```
#include <LEDA/graph/graph_alg.h>
```
has to be included (the latter file includes the former). The connection between template functions and pre-instantiated functions is discussed in detail in the section "Templates for Network Algorithms" of the LEDA book.

Special care should be taken when using the template functions with a number type NT that can incur rounding error, e.g., the type double. The section "Algorithms on Weighted Graphs and Arithmetic Demand" of the LEDA book contains a general discussion of this issue. The template functions are only guaranteed to perform correctly if all arithmetic performed is without rounding error. This is the case if all numerical values in the input are integers (albeit stored as a number of type  $NT$ ) and if none of the intermediate results exceeds the maximal integer representable by the number type  $(2^{53} - 1)$  in the case of doubles). All intermediate results are sums and differences of input values, in particular, the algorithms do not use divisions and multiplications.

The algorithms have the following arithmetic demands. Let C be the maximal absolute value of any edge capacity. If all capacities are integral then all intermediate values are bounded by  $d \cdot C$ , where d is the out-degree of the source.

The pre-instantiations for number type *double* compute the maximum flow for a modified capacity function  $cap1$ , where for every edge  $e$ 

$$
cap1[e] = sign(cap[e])\lfloor |cap[e]| \cdot S|/S
$$

and S is the largest power of two such that  $S < 2^{53}/(d \cdot C)$ .

The value of the maximum flow for the modified capacity function and the value of the maximum flow for the original capacity function differ by at most  $m \cdot d \cdot C \cdot 2^{-52}$ .

The following functions are available:

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $\Box \text{INLINE}$  NT MAXFLOW T(const graph & G, node s, node t, const edge\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  cap, edge\_array < $NT$  $\&$  f) computes a maximum  $(s, t)$ -flow f in the network  $(G, s, t, cap)$  and returns the value of the flow. The implementation uses the preflow-push method of Goldberg and Tarjan [45] with the local and global relabeling heuristic and the gap heuristic. The highest level rule is used to select active nodes. The section on maximum flow of the LEDA book gives full information. template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $\Box \text{INLINE}$  NT MAXFLOW T(const graph & G, node s, node t, const edge\_array < $NT \geq x$  cap, edge\_array < $NT \geq x$  f,  $list \leq node \geq x \leq cut$ 

as above, also computes a minimum  $s - t$  cut in G.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

 $\Box \text{INLINE}$  bool CHECKMAXFLOW  $\mathrm{T}(\text{const} \text{ graph} \& G, \text{node} \text{ s}, \text{node} \text{ t},$ const edge\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  cap,

const edge\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  f)

checks whether f is a maximum flow in the network  $(G, s, t, cap)$ . The functions returns false if this is not the case.

bool MAXFLOW\_SCALE CAPS(const graph& G, node s, edge\_array <double>& cap)

replaces cap[e] by cap1 [e] for every edge e, where cap1 [e] is as defined above. The function returns false if the scaling changed some capacity, and returns true otherwise.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

 $\Box \text{INLINE} \text{NT MAXFLOW_T} \text{(graph\& G, node s, node t, const edge_{array} < N \text{TN} \text{ for } \text{map},$ const edge\_array < $NT \geq k$  ucap, edge\_array < $NT \geq k$  f)

> computes a maximum  $(s, t)$ -flow f in the network  $(G, s, t, ucap)$  s.th.  $f(e)$  $lcap[e]$  for every edge e. If a feasible flow exists, its value returned; otherwise the return value is -1.

void max flow gen rand  $GRAPH \leq int, int \& G, node \& s, node \& t, int n, int m)$ A random graph with n nodes, m edges, and random edge capacities in  $[2,11]$ for the edges out of s and in [1,10] for all other edges.

void max flow gen CG1( $GRAPH \leq int, int \geq k$ , node $k$ , node $k$ , t, int n) A generator suggested by Cherkassky and Goldberg.

void max flow gen  $CG2(GRAPH\leq int, int\geq \& G, node \& s, node \& t, int n)$ Another generator suggested by Cherkassky and Goldberg.

void max flow gen AMO( $GRAPH \leq int$ ,  $int \& G$ , node  $\& s$ , node  $\& t$ ,  $int n$ ) A generator suggested by Ahuja, Magnanti, and Orlin.

# 10.4 Min Cost Flow Algorithms ( min cost flow )

bool FEASIBLE FLOW(const graph & G, const node\_array <int>  $\&$  supply, const edge\_array <int >  $\&$  lcap,

const edge\_array $\langle int \rangle \&$  ucap, edge\_array $\langle int \rangle \&$  flow) FEASIBLE FLOW takes as arguments a directed graph  $G$ , two edge arrays  $lcap$  and  $ucap$  giving for each edge a lower and upper capacity bound, an edge array cost specifying for each edge an integer cost and a node array supply defining for each node v a supply or demand (if  $supply[v] < 0$ ). If a feasible flow (fulfilling the capacity and mass balance conditions) exists it computes such a flow and returns true, otherwise false is returned.



bool MIN COST FLOW(const graph & G, const edge array  $\langle int \rangle \&$  lcap,

const edge\_array <int >  $\&$  ucap, const edge\_array <int > & cost,

const node\_array <int >  $\&$  supply,

 $edge_{array}$  $\leq$  int>& flow)

MIN COST FLOW takes as arguments a directed graph  $G(V, E)$ , an edge\_array  $lcap (ucap)$  giving for each edge a lower (upper) capacity bound, an edge array cost specifying for each edge an integer cost and a node<sub>-array</sub> supply defining for each node v a supply or demand (if  $supply[v] < 0$ ). If a feasible flow (fulfilling the capacity and mass balance conditions) exists it computes such a flow of minimal cost and returns true, otherwise false is returned.

bool MIN\_COST\_FLOW(const graph& G, const edge\_array<int>& cap,

const edge\_array <int > & cost,

const node\_array <int >  $\&$  supply,

 $edge_{array}$  $\lt{int>}$ &  $flow)$ 

This variant of MIN COST FLOW assumes that  $lcap[e] = 0$  for every edge  $e \in E$ .

int MIN\_COST\_MAX\_FLOW(const graph& G, node s, node t, const edge\_array <int >  $\&$  cap, const edge\_array $\langle int \rangle \& \text{cost},$  $edge_{array}$  $\leq$  int>& flow)

> MIN COST MAX FLOW takes as arguments a directed graph  $G(V, E)$ , a source node s, a sink node t, an edge array cap giving for each edge in  $G$  a capacity, and an edge array cost specifying for each edge an integer cost. It computes for every edge e in G a flow  $flow[e]$  such that the total flow from s to  $t$  is maximal, the total cost of the flow is minimal, and  $0 \leq flow[e] \leq cap[e]$  for all edges e. MIN COST MAX FLOW returns the total flow from s to t.

# 10.5 Minimum Cut ( min cut )

A cut C in a network is a set of nodes that is neither empty nor the entire set of nodes. The weight of a cut is the sum of the weights of the edges having exactly one endpoint in  $C$ .



 $MIN$  CUT takes a graph  $G$  and an edge array weight that gives for each edge a non-negative integer weight. The algorithm ([84]) computes a cut of minimum weight. A cut of minimum weight is returned in C and the value of the cut is the return value of the function. The running time is  $O(nm + n^2 \log n)$ . The function uses a heuristic to speed up its computation. Precondition: The edge weights are non-negative.

 $list \leq node$ > MIN\_CUT(const graph& G, const edge\_array $\leq int \geq k$  weight) as above, but the cut  $C$  is returned.

int  $CUT\_VALUE(const\ graph \& G, \ const\ edge\_array \leq int>>\& weight,$ const list <a>conde>& C)

returns the value of the cut C.

# 10.6 Maximum Cardinality Matchings in Bipartite Graphs (mcb\_matching)

A matching in a graph G is a subset M of the edges of G such that no two share an endpoint. A node cover is a set of nodes  $NC$  such that every edge has at least one endpoint in NC . The maximum cardinality of a matching is at most the minimum cardinality of a node cover. In bipartite graph, the two quantities are equal.

### $list \leq edge$  MAX CARD BIPARTITE MATCHING  $graph \& G$

returns a maximum cardinality matching. Precondition: G must be bipartite.

### list <edge> MAX CARD BIPARTITE MATCHING(graph& G, node\_array <br/>sbool>& NC)

returns a maximum cardinality matching and a minimum cardinality node cover NC . The node cover has the same cardinality as the matching and hence proves the optimality of the matching. Precondition: G must be bipartite.

## bool CHECKMCB(const graph & G, const list  $\leq$  edge $\geq$  & M,

### const node\_array <br/> bool> &  $NC$

checks that  $M$  is a matching in  $G$ , i.e., that at most one edge in  $M$ is incident to any node of  $G$ , that  $NC$  is a node cover, i.e., for every edge of  $G$  at least one endpoint is in  $NC$  and that  $M$  and  $NC$  have the same cardinality. The function writes diagnostic output to cerr, if one of the conditions is violated.

## list <edge> MAX CARD BIPARTITE MATCHING(graph& G, const list <node> & A, const list <node >  $\& B)$

returns a maximum cardinality matching. Precondition: G must be bipartite. The bipartition of  $G$  is given by  $A$  and  $B$ . All edges of  $G$ must be directed from A to B.

## $list \leq edge$  MAX CARD BIPARTITE MATCHING(qraph& G, const list <node > & A, const list<node> $\& B,$  $node_array \leq bool \geq k NC$

returns a maximum cardinality matching. A minimal node cover is returned in NC. The node cover has the same cardinality as the matching and hence proves the maximality of the matching. Precondition: G must be bipartite. The bipartition of G is given by  $A$  and B. All edges of G must be directed from A to B.

We offer several implementations of bipartite matching algorithms. All of them require

that the bipartition  $(A, B)$  is given and that all edges are directed from A to B; all of them return a maximum cardinality matching and a minimum cardinality node cover. The initial characters of the inventors are used to distinguish between the algorithms. The common interface is

```
list<edge> MAX_CARD_BIPARTITE_MATCHING_XX(graph& G,
                                           const list<node>& A,
                                           const list<node>& B,
                                           node_array<bool>& NC,
                                           bool use_heuristic = true);
```
where XX is to be replaced by either HK, ABMP, FF, or FFB. All algorithms can be asked to use a heuristic to find an initial matching. This is the default.

HK stands for the algorithm due to Hopcroft and Karp [46]. It has running time  $O(\sqrt{n}m)$ .

ABMP stands for algorithm due to Alt, Blum, Mehlhorn, and Paul [1]. The algorithm has running time  $O(\sqrt{n}m)$ . The algorithm consists of two major phases. In the first phase all augmenting paths of length less than Lmax are found, and in the second phase the remaining augmenting paths are determined. The default value of  $Lmax$  is  $0.1\sqrt{n}$ . Lmax is an additional optional parameter of the procedure.

FF stands for the algorithm due to Ford and Fulkerson [35]. The algorithm has running time  $O(nm)$  and FFB stands for a simple and slow version of FF. The algorithm FF has an additional optional parameter use bfs of type bool. If set to true, breadth-first-search is used in the search for augmenting paths, and if set to false, depth-first-search is used.

Be aware that the algorithms  $XX$  change the graph  $G$ . They leave the graph structure unchanged but reorder adjacency lists (and hence change the embedding). If this is undesirable you must restore the original order of the adjacency lists as follows.

```
edge_array<int> edge_number(G); int i = 0;
forall_nodes(v,G)
  for all\_adj\_edges(e, G) edge_number[e] = i++;call matching algorithm;
G.sort_edges(edge_number);
```
# 10.7 Bipartite Weighted Matchings and Assignments (mwb\_matching)

We give functions

- to compute maximum and minimum weighted matchings in bipartite graph,
- to check the optimality of matchings, and
- to scale edge weights, so as to avoid round-off errors in computations with the number type double.

All functions for computing maximum or minimum weighted matchings provide a proof of optimality in the form of a potential function pot; see the chapter on bipartite weighted matchings of the LEDA book for a discussion of potential functions.

The functions in this section are template functions. The template parameter  $NT$  can be instantiated with any number type. In order to use the template version of the function the appropriate .h-file must be included.

## #include <LEDA/graph/templates/mwb\_matching.h>

There are pre-instantiations for the number types *int* and *double*. The pre-instantiated versions have the same function names except for the suffix \_T. In order to use them either

```
#include <LEDA/graph/mwb_matching.h>
```
or

```
#include <LEDA/graph/graph_alg.h>
```
has to be included (the latter file includes the former). The connection between template functions and pre-instantiated functions is discussed in detail in the section "Templates for Network Algorithms" of the LEDA book. The function names of the pre-instantiated versions and the template versions only differ by an additional suffix \_T in the names of the latter ones.

Special care should be taken when using the template functions with a number type NT that can incur rounding error, e.g., the type double. The section "Algorithms on Weighted Graphs and Arithmetic Demand" of the LEDA book contains a general discussion of this issue. The template functions are only guaranteed to perform correctly if all arithmetic performed is without rounding error. This is the case if all numerical values in the input are integers (albeit stored as a number of type  $NT$ ) and if none of the intermediate results exceeds the maximal integer representable by the number type  $(2^{53} - 1)$  in the case of doubles). All intermediate results are sums and differences of input values, in particular, the algorithms do not use divisions and multiplications.

The algorithms have the following arithmetic demands. Let C be the maximal absolute value of any edge cost. If all weights are integral then all intermediate values are bounded by  $3C$  in the case of maximum weight matchings and by  $4nC$  in the case of the other matching algorithms. Let  $f = 3$  in the former case and let  $f = 4n$  in the latter case.

The pre-instantiations for number type *double* compute the optimal matching for a modified weight function  $c1$ , where for every edge  $e$ 

$$
c1[e] = sign(c[e]) \lfloor |c[e]| \cdot S \rfloor / S
$$

and S is the largest power of two such that  $S < 2^{53}/(f \cdot C)$ .

The weight of the optimal matching for the modified weight function and the weight of the optimal matching for the original weight function differ by at most  $n \cdot f \cdot C \cdot 2^{-52}$ .

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $list \leq edge$  MAXWEIGHT\_BIPARTITE MATCHING T(qraph& G, const edge\_array < $NT$ >& c,  $node_array < NT> \& pot)$ 

computes a matching of maximal cost and a potential function pot that is tight with respect to M. The running time of the algorithm is  $O(n \cdot$  $(m + n \log n))$ . The argument pot is optional. Precondition: G must be bipartite.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $list \leq edge$  MAXWEIGHT\_BIPARTITE MATCHING T(qraph& G,

> const list<node> $\&$  A, const list <a>><br/>code>& B, const edge\_array < $NT \geq k$  c,  $node_array < NT>&$  pot

As above. It is assumed that the partition  $(A, B)$  witnesses that G is bipartite and that all edges of  $G$  are directed from  $A$  to  $B$ . If  $A$  and B have different sizes then is is advisable that  $A$  is the smaller set; in general, this leads to smaller running time. The argument pot is optional.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ bool CHECKMWBM T(const graph & G, const edge\_array < $NT \& c$ , const list  $\leq$  edge $\& \mathcal{M}$ , const node\_array  $\lt{NT} \>$  pot)

checks that pot is a tight feasible potential function with respect to M and that  $M$  is a matching. Tightness of pot implies that  $M$  is a maximum weighted matching.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $list \leq edge$  MAX WEIGHT ASSIGNMENT T(graph& G, const edge array <NT > & c,  $node_array < NT>&$  pot

> computes a perfect matching of maximal cost and a potential function pot that is tight with respect to  $M$ . The running time of the algorithm is  $O(n \cdot (m + n \log n))$ . If G contains no perfect matching the empty set of edges is returned. The argument pot is optional. Precondition: G must be bipartite.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $list \leq edge$ > MAXWEIGHT\_ASSIGNMENT\_T(qraph& G, const list <node>& A, const list $\langle$ node $\rangle$ & B, const edge\_array < $NT \geq k$  c,  $node_array < NT> \& pot)$ 

> As above. It is assumed that the partition  $(A, B)$  witnesses that G is bipartite and that all edges of  $G$  are directed from  $A$  to  $B$ . The argument pot is optional.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ bool CHECK MAX WEIGHT ASSIGNMENT T(const graph & G, const edge\_array < $NT$ > $\& c,$ const list  $\leq$  edge $\geq$  & M, const node\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  pot)

> checks that pot is a tight feasible potential function with respect to M and that  $M$  is a perfect matching. Tightness of pot implies that  $M$  is a maximum cost assignment.

template  $\langle class \rangle$ list<edge> MIN\_WEIGHT\_ASSIGNMENT\_T(graph& G, const edge\_array< $NT \& c$ ,  $node_array < NT>&$  pot)

> computes a perfect matching of minimal cost and a potential function pot that is tight with respect to  $M$ . The running time of the algorithm is  $O(n \cdot (m + n \log n))$ . If G contains no perfect matching the empty set of edges is returned. The argument pot is optional. Precondition: G must be bipartite.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $list \leq edge$  MIN\_WEIGHT\_ASSIGNMENT\_T(graph & G, const list <node> & A, const list <node >  $\& B$ , const edge\_array < $NT$ > $\& c,$ 

 $node_array < NT>&$  pot

As above. It is assumed that the partition  $(A, B)$  witnesses that G is bipartite and that all edges of  $G$  are directed from  $A$  to  $B$ . The argument pot is optional.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

#### bool CHECK MIN WEIGHT ASSIGNMENT T(const graph& G,

const edge\_array < $\langle NT \rangle \& c$ , const list <edge >  $\& M$ ,  $const$  node\_array  $\langle NT \rangle \& pot$ 

checks that pot is a tight feasible potential function with respect to M and that  $M$  is a perfect matching. Tightness of pot implies that  $M$  is a minimum cost assignment.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ list<edge> MWMCB\_MATCHING\_T(graph& G, const list<node>& A, const list <node>  $\& B$ , const edge\_array < $\&$   $\&$   $\&$   $\&$  $node_array < NT>&$  pot

> Returns a maximum weight matching among the matchings of maximum cardinality. The potential function pot is tight with respect to a modified cost function which increases the cost of every edge by  $L = 1+2kC$  where C is the maximum absolute value of any weight and  $k = \min(|A|, |B|)$ . It is assumed that the partition  $(A, B)$  witnesses that G is bipartite and that all edges of  $G$  are directed from  $A$  to  $B$ . If  $A$  and  $B$  have different sizes, it is advisable that  $A$  is the smaller set; in general, this leads to smaller running time. The argument *pot* is optional.

# bool MWBM SCALE WEIGHTS (const graph & G, edge\_array < double > & c)

replaces c[e] by  $c1$ [e] for every edge e, where  $c1$ [e] was defined above and  $f = 3$ . This scaling function is appropriate for the maximum weight matching algorithm. The function returns false if the scaling changed some weight, and returns *true* otherwise.

bool MWA SCALE WEIGHTS (const graph & G, edge\_array < double > & c) replaces c[e] by  $c1$ [e] for every edge e, where  $c1$ [e] was defined above and  $f = 4n$ . This scaling function should be used for the algorithms that compute minimum of maximum weight assignments or maximum weighted matchings of maximum cardinality. The function returns *false* if the scaling changed some weight, and returns true otherwise.

# 10.8 Maximum Cardinality Matchings in General Graphs ( mc matching )

A matching in a graph G is a subset M of the edges of G such that no two share an endpoint.

An odd-set cover *OSC* of G is a labeling of the nodes of G with non-negative integers such that every edge of  $G$  (which is not a self-loop) is either incident to a node labeled 1 or connects two nodes labeled with the same  $i, i \geq 2$ .

Let  $n_i$  be the number of nodes labeled i and consider any matching N. For i,  $i \geq 2$ , let  $N_i$  be the edges in N that connect two nodes labeled i. Let  $N_1$  be the remaining edges in *N*. Then  $|N_i| \leq \lfloor n_i/2 \rfloor$  and  $|N_1| \leq n_1$  and hence

$$
|N| \le n_1 + \sum_{i \ge 2} \lfloor n_i/2 \rfloor
$$

for any matching  $N$  and any odd-set cover  $OSC$ .

It can be shown that for a maximum cardinality matching M there is always an odd-set cover OSC with

$$
|M| = n_1 + \sum_{i \ge 2} \lfloor n_i/2 \rfloor,
$$

thus proving the optimality of M. In such a cover all  $n_i$  with  $i \geq 2$  are odd, hence the name.

list<edge> MAX CARD MATCHING EDMONDS(const graph& G,  $node_array>$   $OSC$ , int heur  $= 1$ )

> computes a maximum cardinality matching  $M$  in a general graph  $G$  and returns it as a list of edges. The original algorithm was developed by Edmond in [27]. An efficient implementation was presented by Gabow and Edmond in [39]. It has running time  $O(nm \cdot \alpha(n,m))$ . With heur = 1 the algorithm uses a greedy heuristic to find an initial matching. An oddset cover that proves the maximality of  $M$  is returned in  $OSC$ .

list<edge> MAX CARD MATCHING KECECIOGLU(const graph& G,  $node_array>$   $OSC$ , int heur  $= 1$ )

> a variant of Gabow/Edmond's algorithm using an heuristic proposed by J. Kececioglu and J. Pecquer.

list<edge> MAX CARD MATCHING GABOW(const graph& G,

 $node_array>$   $OSC$ )

a new algorithm by Gabow ([40]) with running time  $O(\sqrt{n} \cdot m)$ . The implementation was done by Ansaripour,Danaei and Mehlhorn ([2]).

bool CHECKMAX CARD MATCHING(const graph& G, const list <edge>& M, const node\_array $\langle int \rangle \& \; OSC$ 

> checks whether  $M$  is a maximum cardinality matching in  $G$  and  $OSC$  is a proof of optimality. Aborts if this is not the case.

 $list \leq edge$ > MAX CARD MATCHING(const graph& G, node\_array $\leq int \geq \&$  OSC,

int heur  $= 1$ )

computes a maximum cardinality matching in a general G and an odd-set cover *OSC* by calling *MAX\_CARD\_MATCHING\_GABOW*.

 $list \leq edge$  MAX CARD MATCHING(const graph & G, int heur = 0)

as above, but no proof of optimality is returned.

# 10.9 General Weighted Matchings ( mw matching )

We give functions

- to compute maximum-weight matchings,
- to compute maximum-weight or minimum-weight perfect matchings, and
- to check the optimality of weighted matchings

in general graph.

You may skip the following subsections and restrict on reading the function signatures and the corresponding comments in order to use these functions. If you are interested in technical details, or if you would like to ensure that the input data is well chosen, or if you would like to know the exact meaning of all output parameters, you should continue reading.

The functions in this section are template functions. It is intended that in the near future the template parameter  $NT$  can be instantiated with any number type. Please note that for the time being the template functions are only guaranteed to perform correctly for the number type int. In order to use the template version of the function the appropriate .h-file must be included.

#include <LEDA/graph/templates/mw\_matching.h>

There are pre-instantiations for the number types *int*. In order to use them either

#include <LEDA/graph/mw\_matching.h>

or

```
#include <LEDA/graph/graph_alg.h>
```
has to be included (the latter file includes the former). The connection between template functions and pre-instantiated functions is discussed in detail in the section "Templates for Network Algorithms" of the LEDA book. The function names of the pre-instantiated versions and the template versions only differ by an additional suffix \_T in the names of the latter ones.

**Proof of Optimality.** Most of the functions for computing maximum or minimum weighted matchings provide a proof of optimality in the form of a dual solution represented by pot, BT and b. We briefly discuss their semantics: Each node is associated with a potential which is stored in the node array pot. The array  $BT$  (type array  $\times two\_tuple \le NT$ ,  $int \ge$ ) is used to represent the nested family of odd cardinality sets which is constructed

during the course of the algorithm. For each (non-trivial) blossom B, a two tuple  $(z_B, p_B)$ is stored in BT, where  $z_B$  is the potential and  $p_B$  is the parent index of B. The parent index  $p_B$  is set to −1 if B is a surface blossom. Otherwise,  $p_B$  stores the index of the entry in BT corresponding to the immediate super-blossom of B. The index range of BT is  $[0, \ldots, k-1]$ , where k denotes the number of (non-trivial) blossoms. Let B' be a sub-blossom of  $B$  and let the corresponding index of  $B'$  and  $B$  in  $BT$  be denoted by  $i'$ and i, respectively. Then,  $i' < i$ . In b (type node\_array int>) the parent index for each node u is stored  $(-1$  if u is not contained in any blossom).

Heuristics for Initial Matching Constructions. Each function can be asked to start with either an empty matching (heur = 0), a greedy matching (heur = 1) or an (adapted) fractional matching ( $heur = 2$ ); by default, the fractional matching heuristic is used.

Graph Structure. All functions assume the underlying graph (type *qraph*) to be connected, simple, and loopfree. They work on the underlying undirected graph of the directed graph parameter.

Edge Weight Restrictions. The algorithms use divisions. In order to avoid rounding errors for the number type *int*, please make sure that all edge weights are multiples of 4; the algorithm will automatically multiply all edge weights by 4 if this condition is not met. (Then, however, the returned dual solution is valid only with respect to the modified weight function.) Moreover, in the maximum-weight (non-perfect) matching case all edge weights are assumed to be non-negative.

Arithmetic Demand. The arithmetic demand for integer edge weights is as follows. Let  $C$  denote the maximal absolute value of any edge weight and let  $n$  be the number of nodes of the graph.

In the perfect weighted matching case we have for a potential  $pot[u]$  of a node u and for a potential  $z_B$  of a blossom  $B$ :

$$
-nC/2 \leq \text{pot}[u] \leq (n+1)C/2 \quad \text{and} \quad -nC \leq z_B \leq nC.
$$

In the non-perfect matching case we have for a potential  $pot[u]$  of a node u and for a potential  $z_B$  of a blossom B:

$$
0 \leq \text{pot}[u] \leq C \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq z_B \leq C.
$$

The function CHECK WEIGHTS may be used to test whether the edge weights are feasible or not. It is automatically called at the beginning of each of the algorithms provided in this chapter.

Single Tree vs. Multiple Tree Approach: All functions can either run a *single tree* approach or a multiple tree approach. In the single tree approach, one alternating tree is grown from a free node at a time. In the multiple tree approach, multiple alternating trees are grown simultaneously from all free nodes. On large instances, the multiple tree approach is significantly faster and therefore is used by default. If #define SST APPROACH is defined before the template file is included all functions will run the single tree approach.

Worst-Case Running Time: All functions for computing maximum or minimum weighted (perfect or non-perfect) matchings guarantee a running time of  $O(nm \log n)$ , where  $n$  and  $m$  denote the number of nodes and edges, respectively.

```
template \langle \text{class } NT \ranglelist \leq edge MAX WEIGHT MATCHING T(const graph & G, const edge array <NT > & w,
                                              bool check = true, int heur = 2)
```
computes a maximum-weight matching  $M$  of the underlying undirected graph of graph  $G$  with weight function  $w$ . If *check* is set to *true*, the optimality of  $M$  is checked internally. The heuristic used for the construction of an initial matching is determined by heur .

Precondition: All edge weights must be non-negative.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

list<edge> MAXWEIGHT\_MATCHING\_T(const graph& G, const edge\_array< $NT \& w$ ,  $node_array < NT>$ & pot,  $array <$ two\_tuple $\lt NT$ , int> >& BT, node\_array<int>& b,

bool check  $= true$ , int heur  $= 2$ )

computes a maximum-weight matching M of the underlying undirected graph of graph  $G$  with weight function  $w$ . The function provides a proof of optimality in the form of a dual solution given by pot, BT and b. If check is set to true, the optimality of  $M$  is checked internally. The heuristic used for the construction of an initial matching is determined by *heur*.

Precondition: All edge weights must be non-negative.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ bool CHECK MAX WEIGHT MATCHING T(const qraph& G,

> const edge\_array < $NT \geq x$  w, const list  $\leq$ edge $\& M$ , const node\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  pot, const array $\lt{two\_tuple} \lt{NT}$ , int>  $\triangleright \& BT$ , const node\_array $\leq int \& b$ )

checks if M together with the dual solution represented by pot, BT and b are optimal. The function returns true if  $M$  is a maximum-weight matching of  $G$  with weight function  $w$ .

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $list \leq edge$  MAXWEIGHT PERFECT MATCHING T(const qraph& G,

> const edge\_array < $NT$ > $\& w$ , bool check  $= true$ , int heur  $= 2$ )

computes a maximum-weight perfect matching M of the underlying undirected graph of graph  $G$  and weight function  $w$ . If  $G$  contains no perfect matching the empty set of edges is returned. If check is set to true, the optimality of  $M$  is checked internally. The heuristic used for the construction of an initial matching is determined by *heur*.

```
template \langle \text{class } NT \ranglelist<edge> MAXWEIGHT_PERFECT_MATCHING_T(const graph& G,
                                                           const edge_array <NT>\& w,
                                                           node_array < NT>& pot,
                                                           array <t>two\_tuple < NT, int>\&\ BT, node_array \langle int \rangle \&\ b,bool check = true,
                                                           int heur = 2)
```
computes a maximum-weight perfect matching M of the underlying undirected graph of graph  $G$  with weight function  $w$ . If  $G$  contains no perfect matching the empty set of edges is returned. The function provides a proof of optimality in the form of a dual solution given by pot, BT and b. If check is set to true, the optimality of  $M$  is checked internally. The heuristic used for the construction of an initial matching is determined by *heur*.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ bool CHECK MAX WEIGHT PERFECT MATCHING T(const graph& G, const edge\_array < $NT \geq w$ , const list  $\leq$  edge $\geq$  & M, const node\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  pot, const array $\lt{two\_tuple} \lt NT$ ,  $int$ >& BT, const node\_array $\langle int \rangle \& b$ ) checks if M together with the dual solution represented by pot, BT and

b are optimal. The function returns true if  $M$  is a maximum-weight perfect matching of  $G$  with weight function  $w$ .

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

list<edge> MIN\_WEIGHT\_PERFECT\_MATCHING\_T(const graph& G,

const edge\_array < $NT \geq x$  w, bool check  $= true,$ int heur  $= 2$ )

computes a minimum-weight perfect matching M of the underlying undirected graph of graph  $G$  with weight function  $w$ . If  $G$  contains no perfect matching the empty set of edges is returned. If check is set to true, the optimality of  $M$  is checked internally. The heuristic used for the construction of an initial matching is determined by *heur*.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$  $list \leq edge$  MIN\_WEIGHT\_PERFECT\_MATCHING\_T $\cos t$  graph  $\& G$ , const edge\_array < $NT \geq x$  w,  $node_array < NT> \& pot,$  $array two\_tuple < NT, int>$  $\&\ BT, \ node_array < int>>\&\ b,$  $bool \, check = true,$ int heur  $= 2$ )

computes a minimum-weight perfect matching M of the underlying undirected graph of graph  $G$  with weight function  $w$ . If  $G$  contains no perfect matching the empty set of edges is returned. The function provides a proof of optimality in the form of a dual solution given by pot, BT and b. If check is set to true, the optimality of  $M$  is checked internally. The heuristic used for the construction of an initial matching is determined by *heur*.

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ bool CHECK MIN WEIGHT PERFECT MATCHING T(const graph& G, const edge\_array < $NT \rightarrow \& w$ , const list <edge >  $\& M$ , const node\_array < $NT$ > $\&$  pot, const array $\lt{two\_tuple} \lt NT$ ,  $int$ >& BT, const node\_array<int>& b) checks if M together with the dual solution represented by pot, BT and b are optimal. The function returns true if  $M$  is a minimum-weight matching of  $G$  with weight function  $w$ .

template  $\langle \text{class } NT \rangle$ 

bool CHECK WEIGHTS T(const graph& G, edge\_array <NT>& w, bool perfect) returns true, if  $w$  is a feasible weight function for  $G$ ; false otherwise. perfect must be set to true in the perfect matching case; otherwise it must be set to false. If the edge weights are not multiplicatives of 4 all edge weights will be scaled by a factor of 4. The modified weight function is returned in  $w$  then. This function is automatically called by each of the maximum weighted machting algorithms provided in this chapter, the

user does not have to take care of it.

## 10.10 Stable Matching ( stable matching )

We are given a bipartite graph  $G = (A \cup B, E)$  in which the edges incident to every vertex are linearly ordered. The order expresses preferences. A matching  $M$  in  $G$  is stable if there is no pair  $(a, b) \in E \setminus M$  such that  $(1)$  a is unmatched or prefers b over its partner in M and (2) b is unmatched or prefers a over its partner in M. In such a situation a has the intention to switch to b and b has the intention to switch to a, i.e., the pairing is unstable.

We provide a function to compute a correct input graph from the preference data, a function that computes the stable matching when the graph is given and a function that checks whether a given matching is stable.

void StableMatching(const graph & G, const list  $\mathcal{S}$ h,  $\Delta A$ , const list<node>  $\& B$ , list <edge>  $\& M$ )

> The function takes a bipartite graph G with sides A and B and computes a maximal stable matching M which is A-optimal. The graph is assumed to be bidirected, i.e, for each  $(a, b) \in E$  we also have  $(b, a) \in E$ . It is assumed that adjacency lists record the preferences of the vertices. The running time is  $O(n+m)$ . Precondition: The graph G is bidirected and a map. Sets  $A$  and  $B$  only contain nodes of graph  $G$ . In addition they are disjoint from each other.

bool CheckStableMatching(const graph& G, const list<node>& A, const list <node>  $\& B$ , const list <edge>  $\& M$ ) returns true if  $M$  is a stable matching in  $G$ . The running time is  $O(n+m)$ . Precondition: A and B only contain nodes from G. The graph  $G$  is bipartite with respect to lists  $A$  and B.

void CreateInputGraph(graph& G, list <node>  $\&$  A, list <node>  $\&$  B,

 $node\_map\leq int\geq \&~nodes\_a,~node\_map\leq int\geq \&~nodes\_b,$ const list<int> $\&$  InputA, const list<int> $\&$  InputB, const map $\langle int, list \rangle > \&$  preferencesA, const map $\langle int, list \langle int \rangle \rangle$  preferences B)

The function takes a list of objects InputA and a list of objects InputB. The objects are represented bei integer numbers, multiple occurences of the same number in the same list are ignored. The maps preferencesA and preferencesB give for each object i the list of partner candidates with respect to a matching. The lists are decreasingly ordered according to the preferences. The function computes the input data  $G$ ,  $A$  and  $B$  for calling the function StableMatching(constgraph&,...). The maps nodes  $a$  and nodes  $b$  provide the objects in  $A$  and  $B$ corresponding to the nodes in the graph.

Precondition: The entries in the lists in the preference maps only contain elements from  $InputB$  resp. InputA.

There are no multiple occurences of an element in the same such list.

## 10.11 Minimum Spanning Trees ( min span )

 $list \leq edge$ > SPANNING TREE(const graph& G)

SPANNING TREE takes as argument a graph  $G(V, E)$ . It computes a spanning tree T of the underlying undirected graph, SPANNING TREE returns the list of edges of T. The algorithm  $([60])$  has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

void SPANNING\_TREE1(graph& G) SPANNING TREE takes as argument a graph  $G(V, E)$ . It computes a spanning tree T of the underlying undirected graph by deleting the edges in G that do not belong to  $T$ . The algorithm ([60]) has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ . list <edge> MIN\_SPANNING\_TREE(const graph & G, const edge\_array <int>  $\&$  cost)

MIN SPANNING TREE takes as argument a graph  $G(V, E)$  and an edge array cost giving for each edge an integer cost. It computes a minimum spanning tree  $T$  of the underlying undirected graph of graph  $G$ , i.e., a spanning tree such that the sum of all edge costs is minimal. MIN SPANNING TREE returns the list of edges of T. The algorithm  $([54])$  has running time  $O(|E| \log |V|)$ .

- $list \leq edge$ > MIN\_SPANNING\_TREE(const graph& G, const leda\_cmp\_base <edge> $\&$  cmp) A variant using a compare object to compare edge costs.
- $list \leq edge$ > MIN\_SPANNING\_TREE(const graph& G, int  $(*cmp)(const$  edge&, const edge& ))

A variant using a compare function to compare edge costs.

# 10.12 Euler Tours ( euler\_tour )

An Euler tour in an undirected graph G is a cycle using every edge of G exactly once. A graph has an Euler tour if it is connected and the degree of every vertex is even.



# 10.13 Algorithms for Planar Graphs ( plane graph alg )



int KURATOWSKI(graph& G, list<node>& V, list<edge>& E,

 $node_arraydeg)$ 

KURATOWSKI computes a Kuratowski subdivision  $K$  of  $G$  as follows.  $V$  is the list of all nodes and subdivision points of K. For all  $v \in V$  the degree  $deg[v]$  is equal to 2 for subdivision points, 4 for all other nodes if K is a  $K_5$ , and -3 (+3) for the nodes of the left (right) side if K is a  $K_{3,3}$ . E is the list of all edges in the Kuratowski subdivision.

 $list \leq edge$ > TRIANGULATE PLANAR MAP(graph& G)

TRIANGULATE PLANAR MAP takes a directed graph G representing a planar map. It triangulates the faces of  $G$  by inserting additional edges. The list of inserted edges is returned. Precondition: G must be connected.

The algorithm ([49]) has running time  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .





returns true if  $G$  is a plane map after the call.

# 10.14 Graph Drawing Algorithms (graph\_draw)

This section gives a summary of the graph drawing algorithms contained in LEDA. Before using them the header file <LEDA/graph/graph draw.h> has to be included.







# 10.15 Graph Morphism Algorithms ( graph morphism )

### 1. Definition

An instance alg of the parameterized data type  $graph_morphism < graph_t$ , impl > is an algorithm object that supports finding graph isomorphisms, subgraph isomorphisms, graph monomorphisms and graph automorphisms. The first parameter type parametrizes the input graphs' types. It defaults to graph. The second parameter type determines the actual algorithm implementation to use. There are two implementations available so far which work differently well for certain types of graphs. More details can be found in the report Graph Isomorphism Implementation for LEDA by Johannes Singler. It is available from our homepage. You can also contact our support team to get it: support@algorithmic-solutions.com resp. support@quappa.com.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_morph.$ 

### 2. Implementation

Allowed implementations parameters are vf2<graph\_t> and conauto<graph\_t, ord\_t>.

### 3. Example

```
#include <LEDA/graph/graph_morphism.h>
```

```
// declare the input graphs.
graph g1, g2;
// In order to use node compatibility, declare associated node maps for the
// attributes and a corresponding node compatibility function
// (exemplary, see above for the definition of identity_compatibility).
node\_map<int> min1(g1), mn2(g2);identity_compatibility<int> ic(nm1, nm2);
// do something useful to build up the graphs and the attributes
// instantiate the algorithm object
graph_morphism<graph, conauto<graph> > alg;
// declare the node and edge mapping arrays
node_array<node> node_mapping(g2);
edge_array<edge> edge_mapping(g2);
// prepare a graph morphism data structure for the first graph.
```
```
graph_morphism_algorithm<>::prep_graph pg1 = alg.prepare_graph(g1, ic);
// find the graph isomorphism.
bool isomorphic = alg.find_iso(pg1, g2, \&node_mapping, \&edge_mapping, ic);
// delete the prepared graph data structure again.
alg.delete_prepared_graph(pg1);
```
Please see demo/graph\_iso/gw\_isomorphism.cpp for an interactive demo program.

## 10.16 Graph Morphism Algorithm Functionality ( graph morphism algorithm )

#### 1. Types

 $\#include \le EDA/graph/graph\_morph\_morphism\_algorithm.h >$  $graph_{\text{morphism\_algorithm}}$  are graph  $t > \text{...}$  node the type of an input graph node  $graph_{\text{morphism\_algorithm}}$  graph  $t >$ : edge the type of an input graph edge  $graph\_morphism\_algorithm \le graph_t \ge \dots node\_morphism$ the type for a found node mapping  $graph\_morphism\_algorithm \le graph_t \ge \text{if} \space edge\_morphism$ the type for a found edge mapping  $graph_morphism\_algorithm \le graph_t \ge \text{:\:} node\_compact$ the type for a node compatibility functor  $graph_{\text{unorthism\_algorithm}} \leq graph_{\text{unorth}} \geq \text{if} \space edge_{\text{compat}}$ the type for an edge compatibility functor  $graph_morphism\_algorithm \leq graph_t \geq \dots morphism$ the type for a found node and edge mapping  $graph_morphism\_algorithm \le graph_t \ge \text{::}morphism\_list$ the type of a list of all found morphisms  $graph\_morphism\_algorithm \le graph\_t > :: callback$ the type for the callback functor  $graph_{\text{morphism\_algorithm}}$  are graph  $t >$ : cardinality  $t$ the number type of the returned cardinality

 $graph\_morphism\_algorithm \verb|< graph_t>::prep\_graph$ 

the type of a prepared graph data structure



cardinality t alg.cardinality iso(const graph t & g1, const graph t & g2,  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT NODE CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

> searches for a graph isomorphism between g1 and g2 and returns its cardinality. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg.find all iso(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,

 $list$  < morphism  $*$  >  $\&$  isomorphisms,

 $const$  node\_compat&\_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,

 $const$   $edge\_complex$   $edge\_comp$  =  $DEFAULT\_EDGE\_CMP$ searches for all graph isomorphisms between g1 and g2 and returns them through *isomorphisms*. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg. enumerate iso (const graph t & g1, const graph t & g2,  $led a\_{callback}\_{base\leq morphism\geq \& \_{callback},$  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

searches for all graph isomorphisms between g1 and g2 and calls the callback functor callb for each one. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

bool alg.find sub(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,  $node_{\text{th}}$  node\_morph = NULL,  $edge\_morph$  \*  $-edge\_morph = NULL$ ,  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP, const edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp =  $DEFAULT\_EDGE\_CMP$ searches for a subgraph isomorphism from  $g2$  to  $g1$ 

and returns it through node morph and edge morph if a non-NULL pointer to a node map and a non-NULL pointer to an edge map are passed respectively. Those must be initialized to g2 and will therefore carry references to the mapped node or edge in g1. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than g1 to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg.cardinality sub(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

> searches for a subgraph isomorphism from g2 to g1 and returns its cardinality. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than  $g1$  to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg.find all sub(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,

 $list$  < morphism  $*$  > & \_isomorphisms,  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp =  $DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP$ , const edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

> searches for all subgraph isomorphisms from g2 to g1 and returns them through isomorphisms. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than g1 to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg.enumerate sub(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,  $led a\_{callback}\_{base\leq morphism\geq \& \_{callback},$  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

> searches for all subgraph isomorphisms from g2 to g1 and calls the callback functor callb for each one. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than g1 to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

bool alg.find mono(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,  $node\_morphism * _node\_morph = NULL,$  $edge\_morphism * \_edge\_map\_morph = NULL,$  $const$  node\_compat&\_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP. const edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp =  $DEFAULT\_EDGE\_CMP$ searches for a graph monomorphism from g2 to g1 and returns it through node morph and edge morph if a non-NULL pointer to a node map and a non-NULL pointer to an edge map are passed respectively. Those must be initialized to g2 and will therefore carry references to the mapped node or edge in g1. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than g1 to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg.cardinality mono(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

> searches for a graph monomorphism from g2 to g1 and returns its cardinality. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than g1 to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg.find all mono(const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,

 $list$  < morphism  $*$  > & \_isomorphisms,  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

> searches for all graph monomorphisms from g2 to g1 and returns them through isomorphisms. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than g1 to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

cardinality t alg.enumerate mono(const graph t  $\&$  g1, const graph t  $\&$  g2,  $led a_{\text{c} \alpha}$ callback base $\langle \text{morphism>} \& \text{c} \alpha$ llback,  $const$  node\_compat& \_node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& \_edge\_comp =

> searches for all graph monomorphisms from g2 to g1 and calls the callback functor callb for each one. g2 must not have more nodes or more edges than g1 to make a mapping possible. The possible mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp.

> This method can be called with prepared graph data structures as input for either graph, too.

bool alg.is.graph.isomorphism(const graph\_t& g1, const graph\_t& g2,

DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

 $node_{\mathit{morphism}} \text{const} * node_{\mathit{morph}},$  $edge\_morphism \text{ const}*edge\_morph = NULL,$  $const$  node\_compat& node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP)

checks whether the morphism given by node morph and edge morph (optional) is a valid graph isomorphisms between g1 and g2. The allowed mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp.

bool alg.is subgraph isomorphism (const graph t& g1, const graph t& g2,  $node_{\text{morphism const}} * node_{\text{morph},n}$  $edge\_morphism \; const * edge\_morph = NULL,$  $const$  node\_compat& node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& edge\_comp = DEFAULT EDGE CMP) checks whether the morphism given by node morph and edge morph (optional) is a valid subgraph isomorphisms from g1 to g2. The allowed mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp. bool alg.is graph monomorphism  $\cos t$  graph t $\&$  q1, const graph t $\&$  q2, node morphism const ∗ node morph,  $edge\_morphism \ const * edge\_morph = NULL,$  $const$  node\_compat& node\_comp = DEFAULT\_NODE\_CMP,  $const$  edge\_compat& edge\_comp =

DEFAULT\_EDGE\_CMP)

checks whether the morphism given by node morph and edge morph (optional) is a valid graph monomorphisms from g2 to g1. The allowed mappings can be restricted by the node and edge compatibility functors node comp and edge comp.

# Chapter 11

# Graphs and Iterators

### 11.1 Introduction

#### 11.1.1 Iterators

Iterators are a powerful technique in object-oriented programming and one of the fundamental design patterns [41]. Roughly speaking, an iterator is a small, light-weight object, which is associated with a specific kind of linear sequence. An iterator can be used to access all items in a linear sequence step-by-step. In this section, different iterator classes are introduced for traversing the nodes and the edges of a graph, and for traversing all ingoing and/or outgoing edges of a single node.

Iterators are an alternative to the iteration macros introduced in sect. 9.1.3.(i). For example, consider the following iteration pattern:

node v; forall\_nodes (n, G) { ... }

Using the class  $Nodelt$  introduced in sect. 11.2, this iteration can be re-written as follows:

```
for (NodeIt it (G); it.valid(); ++it) { ... }
```
The crucial differences are:

• Iterators provide an intuitive means of movement through the topology of a graph.

- Iterators are not bound to a loop, which means that the user has finer control over the iteration process. For example, the continuation condition it.  $valid()$  in the above loop could be replaced by another condition to terminate the loop once a specific node has been found (and the loop may be re-started at the same position later on).
- The meaning of iteration may be modified seamlessly. For example, the filter iterators defined in sect. 11.9 restrict the iteration to a subset that is specified by an arbitrary logical condition (predicate). In other words, the nodes or edges that do not fulfill this predicate are filtered out automatically during iteration.
- The functionality of iteration may be extended seamlessly. For example, the observer iterators defined in sect. 11.11 can be used to record details of the iteration. A concrete example is given in sect. 11.11: an observer iterator can be initialized such that it records the number of iterations performed by the iterator.
- Iterator-based implementations of algorithms can be easily integrated into environments that are implemented according to the STL style [71], (this style has been adopted for the standard  $C_{++}$  library). For this purpose, sect. 11.12 define adapters, which convert graph iterators into STL iterators.

#### 11.1.2 Handles and Iterators

Iterators can be used whenever the corresponding handle can be used. For example, node iterators can be used where a node is requested or edge iterators can be used where an edge is requested. For adjacency iterators, it is possible to use them whenever an edge is  $requested<sup>1</sup>$ .

An example shows how iterators can be used as handles:

```
NodeIt it(G);
leda::node_array<int> index(G);
leda::node v;
int i=0;
for all\_nodes(v, G) index[v]=++i;while (it.valid()) {
 cout << "current node " << index(it) << endl; }
```
#### 11.1.3 STL Iterators

Those who are more used to STL may take advantage from the following iterator classes: NodeIt n, EdgeIt e, AdjIt n, AdjIt e, OutAdjIt n, OutAdjIt e, InAdjIt n, InAdjIt e.

<sup>1</sup>Since the edge of an adjacency iterator changes while the fixed node remains fixed, we decided to focus on the edge.

The purpose of each iterator is the same as in the corresponding standard iterator classes NodeIt, EdgeIt . . . The difference is the interface, which is exactly that of the STL iterator wrapper classe (see sect. 11.12 for more information).

An example shows why these classes are useful (remember the example from the beginning):

```
NodeIt_n base(G);
for(NodeIt_n::iterator it=base.begin();it!=base.end(); ++it) {
 cout << "current node " << index(*it) << endl; }
```
As in STL collections there are public type definitions in all STL style graph iterators. The advantage is that algorithms can be written that operate independingly of the underlying type (note: NodeIt\_n and NodeIt\_n::iterator are equal types).

### 11.1.4 Circulators

Circulators differ from Iterators in their semantics. Instead of becoming invalid at the end of a sequence, they perform cyclic iteration. This type of "none–ending–iterator" is heavily used in the CGAL .

### 11.1.5 Data Accessors

Data accessor is a design pattern<sup>[73]</sup> that decouples data access from underlying implementation. Here, the pattern is used to decouple data access in graph algorithms from how data is actually stored outside the algorithm.

Generally, an attributed graph consists of a (directed or undirected) graph and an arbitrary number of node and edge attributes. For example, the nodes of a graph are often assigned attributes such as names, flags, and coordinates, and likewise, the edges are assigned attributes such as lengths, costs, and capacities.

More formally, an *attribute*  $a$  of a set  $S$  has a certain type  $T$  and assigns a value of T to every element of S (in other words, a may be viewed as a function  $a: S \to T$ ). An *attributed set*  $A = (S, a_1, \ldots, a_m)$  consists of a set S and attributes  $a_1, \ldots, a_m$ . An attributed graph is a (directed or undirected) graph  $G = (V, E)$  such that the node set V and the edge set  $E$  are attributed.

Basically, LEDA provides two features to define attributes for graph:

- Classes  $GRAPH$  and  $UGRAPH$  (sects. 9.2 and 9.5) are templates with two arguments, vtype and etype, which are reserved for a node and an edge attribute, respectively. To attach several attributes to nodes and edges, *vtype* and *etype* must be instantiated by structs whose members are the attributes.
- A node array (sect. 9.8) or node map (sect. Node Maps) represents a node attribute, and analogously, edge arrays (sect. Edge Arrays) and edge maps (sect. 9.12), represent edge attributes. Several attributes can be attached to nodes and edges by instantiating several arrays or maps.

Data accessors provide a uniform interface to access attributes, and the concrete organization of the attributes is hidden behind this interface. Hence, if an implementation of an algorithm does not access attributes directly, but solely in terms of data accessors, it may be applied to any organization of the attributes (in contrast, the algorithms in sect. Graph Algorithms require an organization of all attributes as node and edge arrays).

Every data accessor class DA comes with a function template get:

T get(DA da, Iter it);

This function returns the value of the attribute managed by the data accessor da for the node or edge marked by the iterator *it*. Moreover, most data accessor classes also come with a function template set:

void set(DA da, Iter it, T value);

This function overwrites the value of the attribute managed by the data accessor da for the node or edge marked by the iterator it by value.

The data accessor classes that do not provide a function template set realize attributes in such a way that a function set does not make sense or is even impossible. The *constant* accessor in sect. 11.14 is a concrete example: it realizes an attribute that is constant over the whole attributed set and over the whole time of the program. Hence, it does not make sense to provide a function set. Moreover, since the constant accessor class organizes its attribute in a non-materialized fashion, an overwriting function set is even impossible.

Example: The following trivial algorithm may serve as an example to demonstrate the usage of data accessors and their interplay with various iterator types. The first, nested loop accesses all edges once. More specifically, the outer loop iterates over all nodes of the graph, and the inner loop iterates over all edges leaving the current node of the outer loop. Hence, for each edge, the value of the attribute managed by the data accessor da is overwritten by t. In the second loop, a linear edge iterator is used to check whether the first loop has set all values correctly.

```
template <class T, class DA>
void set_and_check (graph& G, DA da, T t) {
  for (NodeIt nit(G); nit.valid(); ++nit)
    for (OutAdjIt oait(nit); oait.valid(); ++oait)
      set (da, eit, t);
  for (EdgeIt eit(G); eit.valid(); ++eit)
    if (get(da, it) != t) cout << "Error!" << end1;}
```
To demonstrate the application of function *set\_and\_check*, we first consider the case that G is an object of the class  $GRAPH$  derived from graph (sect. 9.1), that the template argument vtype is instantiated by a struct type attributes, and that the int-member  $my_1$ -attributes shall be processed by set-and-check with value 1. Then DA can be instantiated as a node member da:

```
node_member_da<attributes,int> da (&attributes::my_attr);
set_and_check (G, da, 1);
```
Now we consider the case that the attribute to be processed is stored in an  $edge_{array}$  int> named  $my_attr_array$ :

node\_array\_da<int> da (my\_attr\_array); set\_and\_check (G, da, 1);

Hence, all differences between these two cases are factored out into a single declaration statement.

### 11.1.6 Graphiterator Algorithms

Several basic graph algorithms were re–implemented to use only graph iterators and data accessors. Moreover they share three design decisions:

- 1. algorithms are instances of classes
- 2. algorithm instances have the ability to "advance"
- 3. algorithm instances provide access to their internal states

An example for an algorithm that supports the first two decisions is:

```
class Algorithm {
  int state, endstate;
public:
  Algorithm(int max) : endstate(max), state(0) \{ \}void next() { state++; }
  bool finished() { return state>=endstate; }
};
```
With this class Algorithm we can easily instantiate an algorithm object:

```
Algorithm alg(5);
while (!alg.finished()) alg.next();
```
This small piece of code creates an algorithm object and invokes "next()" until it has reached an end state.

An advantage of this design is that we can write basic algorithms, which can be used in a standardized way and if needed, inspection of internal states and variables can be provided without writing complex code. Additionally, it makes it possible to write persistent algorithms, if the member variables are persistent.

Actually, those algorithms are quite more flexible than ordinary written algorithm functions:

```
template<class Alg>
class OutputAlg {
  Alg alg;
public:
  OutputAlg(int m) : alg(m) {
    cout << "max state: " << m << endl; }
  void next() {
    cout << "old state: " << alg.state;
    alg.next();
    cout << " new state: " << alg.state << endl; }
  bool finished() { return alg.finished(); }
};
```
This wrapper algorithm can be used like this:

```
OutputAlg<Algorithm> alg(5);
while (!alg.finished()) alg.next();
```
In addition to the algorithm mentioned earlier this wrapper writes the internal states to the standard output.

This is as efficient as rewriting the "Algorithm"-class with an output mechanism, but provides more flexibility.

### 11.2 Node Iterators ( NodeIt )

#### 1. Definition

a variable it of class NodeIt is a linear node iterator that iterates over the node set of a graph; the current node of an iterator object is said to be "marked" by this object.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $NodeIt$  it; introduces a variable it of this class associated with no graph.  $NodeIt$  it (const leda: graph & G); introduces a variable it of this class associated with G.

The graph is initialized by G. The node is initialized by  $G$ .first\_node().

 $NodeIt$  it (const leda:: graph & G, leda:: node n); introduces a variable  $it$  of this class marked with  $n$  and associated with G. Precondition:  $n$  is a node of  $G$ .





### 4. Implementation

Creation of an iterator and all methods take constant time.

## 11.3 Edge Iterators ( EdgeIt )

#### 1. Definition

a variable it of class EdgeIt is a linear edge iterator that iterates over the edge set of a graph; the current edge of an iterator object is said to be "marked" by this object.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation



Precondition: e is an edge of G.





#### 4. Implementation

Creation of an iterator and all methods take constant time.

## 11.4 Face Iterators ( FaceIt )

#### 1. Definition

a variable it of class FaceIt is a linear face iterator that iterates over the face set of a graph; the current face of an iterator object is said to be "marked" by this object.

Precondition: Before using any face iterator the list of faces has to be computed by calling G.compute faces( ). Note, that any update operation invalidates this list.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

FaceIt it; introduces a variable it of this class associated with no graph. FaceIt it(const leda:: graph& G); introduces a variable  $it$  of this class associated with  $G$ . The graph is initialized by  $G$ . The face is initialized by G.first face( ). FaceIt it(const leda:: graph& G, leda:: face n); introduces a variable  $it$  of this class marked with  $n$  and associated with G.

Precondition:  $n$  is a face of  $G$ .





#### 4. Implementation

Creation of an iterator and all methods take constant time.

## 11.5 Adjacency Iterators for leaving edges ( OutAdjIt )

#### 1. Definition

a variable it of class OutAdjIt is an adjacency iterator that marks a node (which is fixed in contrast to linear node iterators) and iterates over the edges that leave this node.

There is a variant of the adjacency iterators, so–called circulators which are heavily used in the CGAL<sup>2</sup> . The names of the classes are OutAdjCirc and InAdjCirc and their interfaces are completely equal to the iterator versions while they internally use e.g. cyclic adj succ() instead of adj succ().

 $\#include \leq LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $OutAdjIt$  it; introduces a variable it of this class associated with no graph.

<sup>2</sup>See the CGAL homepage at http://www.cs.uu.nl/CGAL/.

 $OutAdjIt$  it (const leda: graph  $\& G$ );

introduces a variable it of this class associated with G. The node is initialized by  $G$ . first node() and the edge by  $G$ .first\_adj\_edge(n) where n is the marked node.

OutAdjIt it(const leda:: graph& G, leda:: node n); introduces a variable  $it$  of this class marked with  $n$  and associated with G. The marked edge is initialized by  $G$  first adj edge(n). Precondition: *n* is a node of *G*.

OutAdjIt it(const leda:: graph& G, leda:: node n, leda:: edge e); introduces a variable *it* of this class marked with  $n$  and  $e$  and associated with  $G$ . Precondition: *n* is a node and *e* an edge of G and  $source(e) = n$ .







#### 4. Implementation

Creation of an iterator and all methods take constant time.

## 11.6 Adjacency Iterators for incoming edges ( InAdjIt )

#### 1. Definition

a variable it of class InAdjIt is an adjacency iterator that marks a node (which is fixed in contrast to linear node iterators) and iterates over the incoming edges of this node.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation



#### 3. Operations

void  $it.\text{init}(const\text{ }leda::graph\&\text{ }G)$ 

associates it with  $G$  and marks it with  $n'$  =  $G$ .first\_node() and  $G$ .first\_adj\_edge(n').





#### 4. Implementation

Creation of an iterator and all methods take constant time.

## 11.7 Adjacency Iterators ( AdjIt )

#### 1. Definition

a variable it of class AdjIt is an adjacency iterator that marks a node (which is fixed in contrast to linear node iterators) and iterates over the edges that leave or enter this node. At first, all outgoing edges will be traversed.

Internally, this iterator creates two instances of OutAdjIt and InAdjIt. The iteration is a sequenced iteration over both iterators. Note that this only fits for directed graph, for undirected graph you should use OutAdjIt instead.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $AdjIt$  it; introduces a variable it of this class associated with no graph.

AdjIt it(const leda:: graph& G);

introduces a variable  $it$  of this class associated with  $G$ . The marked node is initialized by  $n = G$ . first node() and the edge by  $G$ .first\_adj\_edge $(n)$ .

AdjIt it(const leda:: graph& G, leda:: node n); introduces a variable  $it$  of this class marked with  $n$  and associated with G. The marked edge is initialized by by  $G$  first  $adj$ -edge $(n)$ . Precondition:  $n$  is a node of  $G$ .

AdjIt it(const leda:: graph& G, leda:: node n, leda:: edge e); introduces a variable *it* of this class marked with  $n$  and  $e$  and associated with G. Precondition: *n* is a node and *e* an edge of G and  $source(e) = n$ .







#### 4. Implementation

Creation of an iterator and all methods take constant time.

## 11.8 Face Circulators ( FaceCirc )

#### 1. Definition

a variable fc of class  $FaceCirc$  is a face circulator that circulates through the set of edges of a face as long as the graph is embedded combinatorically correct, i.e. the graph has to be bidirected and a map (see 9.1).

 $\#include \leq LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

FaceCirc  $fc$ ; introduces a variable  $fc$  of this class associated with no graph.

FaceCirc  $fc(const$  leda:: graph& G);

introduces a variable  $fc$  of this class associated with  $G$ . The edge is initialized to nil.

FaceCirc  $fc(const \, leda::graph \& G, \,led: c. edge \, e);$ 

introduces a variable  $fc$  of this class marked with  $e$  and associated with G. Precondition: e is an edge of G.

#### 3. Operations



### 4. Implementation

Creation of a circulator and all methods take constant time.

## 11.9 Filter Node Iterator ( FilterNodeIt )

#### 1. Definition

An instance it of class FilterNodeIt< Predicate, Iter > encapsulates an object of type Iter and creates a restricted view on the set of nodes over which this internal iterator iterates. More specifically, all nodes that do not fulfill the predicate defined by Predicate are filtered out during this traversal.

Class FilterEdgeIt and FilterAdjIt are defined analogously, i.e. can be used for edge iterators or adjacency iterators, respectively.

Precondition: The template parameter Iter must be a node iterator, e.g. NodeIt or FilterNodeIt<pred,NodeIt>. Predicate must be a class which provides a method  $operator()$  according to the following signature: bool operator() (Iter).

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $FilterNodeIt \le Predicate, Iter > it;$ 

introduces a variable it of this class, not bound to a predicate or iterator.

FilterNodeIt<br/>  $\leq$  Predicate  $\geq$  it(const Predicate  $\geq$  pred, const Iter& base\_it); introduces a variable *it* of this class bound to *pred* and *base\_it*.

#### 3. Operations

void *it.init(const Predicate& pred, const Iter& base\_it)* 

initializes it, which is bound to *pred* and *base\_it* afterwards. Precondition: *it* is not yet bound to a predicate or iterator.

#### 4. Implementation

Constant overhead.

#### 5. Example

Suppose each node has an own colour and we only want to see those with a specific colour, for example red (we use the LEDA colours). At first the data structures:

```
GRAPH<color,double> G;
NodeIt it(G);
```
We would have to write something like this:

```
while(it.valid()) {
  if (G[it.get_node()]==red) do_something(it);
  ++it;
}
```
With the filter wrapper class we can add the test if the node is red to the behaviour of the iterator.

```
struct RedPred {
  bool operator() (const NodeIt& it) const {
  return G[it.get_node()]==red; }
} redpred;
FilterNodeIt<RedPred,NodeIt> red_it(redpred,it);
```
This simplifies the loop to the following:

```
while(red it.valid()) {
  do_something(red_it);
  ++red_it; }
```
All ingredients of the comparison are hard-wired in struct RedPred: the type of the compared values (color), the comparison value (red) and the binary comparison (equality). The following class CompPred renders these three choices flexible.

### 11.10 Comparison Predicate ( CompPred )

#### 1. Definition

An instance cp of class  $CompPred \leq Iter, DA, Comp \geq$  is a predicate comparator that produces boolean values with the given compare function and the attribute associated with an iterator.

#### $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$

#### 2. Creation

 $CompPred <$ Iter, DA, Comp> cp(const DA& da, const Comp& comp, typename  $DA::value\_type$  val); introduces a variable  $cp$  of this class and associates it to the given data accessor da, compare function comp and value val.

Precondition: Comp is a pointer-to-function type which takes two values of type *typename DA*:: *value\_type* and produces a boolean return value. Comp might also be a class with member function bool operator ( $\langle$  )(typename  $DA$ :: value\_type, typename  $DA$ :: value\_type).

#### 3. Example

In the following example, a node iterator for red nodes will be created. At first the basic part (see sect.  $11.13$  for explanation of the data accessor node array da):

```
graph G;
NodeIt it(G);
node_array<color> na_colour(G,black);
node_array_da<color> da_colour(na_colour);
assign_some_color_to_each_node();
```
Now follows the definition of a "red iterator" (Equal<T> yields true, if the given two values are equal):

```
template<class T>
class Equal {
  public:
  bool operator() (T t1, T t2) const {
  return t1 == t2; }
};
```

```
typedef CompPred<NodeIt,node_array_da<color>,Equal<color> > Predicate;
Predicate PredColour(da_colour, Equal<color>(),red);
FilterNodeIt<Predicate,NodeIt> red_it(PredColour,it);
```
This simplifies the loop to the following:

```
while(red_it.valid()) {
  do_something(red_it);
++red_it; }
```
Equal<T> is a class that compares two items of the template parameter T by means of a method bool operator() $(T,T)$ ;. There are some classes available for this purpose: Equal<T>, Unequal<T>, LessThan<T>, LessEqual<T>, GreaterThan<T> and GreaterEqual<T> with obvious semantics, where T is the type of the values. Predicates of the STL can be used as well since they have the same interface.

### 11.11 Observer Node Iterator ( ObserverNodeIt )

#### 1. Definition

An instance it of class  $ObserverNodeIt \leq Obs$ , Iter> is an observer iterator. Any method call of iterators will be "observed" by an internal object of class Obs.

Class ObserverEdgeIt and ObserverAdjIt are defined analogously, i.e. can be used for edge iterators or adjacency iterators, respectively.

Precondition: The template parameter Iter must be a node iterator.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

```
ObserverNodeIt \leq Obs,Iter>it;
```
introduces a variable it of this class, not bound to an observer or iterator.

ObserverNodeIt<Obs, Iter> it(Obs& obs, const Iter& base\_it);

introduces a variable it of this class bound to the observer obs and base it.

Precondition: Obs must have methods observe\_constructor(), observe forward(), observe update(). These three methods may have arbitrary return types (incl. void).



#### 4. Example

First two simple observer classes. The first one is a dummy class, which ignores all notifications. The second one merely counts the number of calls to operator++ for all iterators that share the same observer object through copy construction or assignment (of course, a real implementation should apply some kind of reference counting or other garbage collection).

In this example, the counter variable *count* of class SimpleCountObserver will be initialized with the counter variable *count* of class DummyObserver, i.e. the variable is created only once.

```
template <class Iter>
class DummyObserver {
  int* _count;
public:
 DummyObserver() : _count(new int(0)) { }
 void notify_constructor(const Iter& ) { }
 void notify_forward(const Iter& ) { }
 void notify_update(const Iter& ) { }
  int counter() const { return *_count; }
  int* counter_ptr() const { return _count; }
 bool operator==(const DummyObserver& D) const {
    return _count==D._count; }
};
template <class Iter, class Observer>
class SimpleCountObserver {
  int* _count;
public:
  SimpleCountObserver() : _count(new int(0)) { }
 SimpleCountObserver(Observer& obs) :
    _count(obs.counter_ptr()) { }
 void notify_constructor(const Iter& ) { }
 void notify_forward(const Iter& ) { ++(*_count); }
 void notify_update(const Iter& ) { }
  int counter() const { return *_count; }
  int* counter_ptr() const { return _count; }
 bool operator==(const SimpleCountObserver& S) const {
    return _count==S._count; }
};
```
Next an exemplary application, which counts the number of calls to operator++ of all adjacency iterator objects inside dummy algorithm. Here the dummy observer class is used only as a "Trojan horse," which carries the pointer to the counter without affecting the code of the algorithm.

```
template<class Iter>
bool break_condition (const Iter&) { ... }
template<class ONodeIt, class OAdjIt>
void dummy_algorithm(ONodeIt& it, OAdjIt& it2) {
 while (it.valid()) {
   for (it2.update(it); it2.valid() && !break_condition(it2); ++it2)
   ++it;
 }
}
int write_count(graph& G) {
 typedef DummyObserver<NodeIt> DummyObs;
 typedef SimpleCountObserver<AdjIt,DummyObs> CountObs;
 typedef ObserverNodeIt<DummyObs, NodeIt> ONodeIt;
 typedef ObserverAdjIt<CountObs,AdjIt> OAdjIt;
 DummyObs observer;
 ONodeIt it(observer,NodeIt(G));
 CountObs observer2(observer);
 0AdjIt it2(observer2,AdjIt(G));
 dummy_algorithm(it,it2);
 return it2.get_observer().counter();
}
```
## 11.12 STL Iterator Wrapper ( STLNodeIt )

#### 1. Definition

An instance it of class *STLNodeIt*< DataAccessor, Iter > is a STL iterator wrapper for node iterators (e.g. NodeIt, FilterNodeIt<pred,NodeIt>). It adds all type tags and methods that are necessary for STL conformance; see the standard draft working paper for details. The type tag value type is equal to typename DataAccessor::value type and the return value of operator\*.

Class STLEdgeIt and STLAdjIt are defined analogously, i.e. can be used for edge iterators or adjacency iterators, respectively.

Precondition: The template parameter Iter must be a node iterator. DataAccessor must be a data accessor.

class name	operator*() returns
NodeIt_n	node
EdgeIt_e	edge
AdjIt_n	node
AdjIt_e	edge
OutAdjIt_n	node
OutAdjIt_e	edge
InAdjIt_n	node
InAdjIt_e	edge

Note: There are specialized versions of STL wrapper iterator classes for each kind of iterator that return different LEDA graph objects.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $STLNodeIt \leq DataAccessor, Iter \geq it(DataAccessor da, const. Iter \& base-it);$ introduces a variable it of this class bound to  $da$  and  $base\_it$ .



typename DataAccessor :: value type& ∗it

returns a reference to the associated value, which originally comes from data accessor da. If the associated iterator it is not valid, a dummy value reference is returned and should not be used.

Precondition:  $access(DA, it)$  returns a non constant reference to the data associated to *it* in DA. This functions is defined for all implemented data accessors (e.g. node array da, edge array da).

### 11.13 Node Array Data Accessor ( node array da )

#### 1. Definition

An instance da of class node\_array\_da $\langle T \rangle$  is instantiated with a LEDA node\_array $\langle T \rangle$ .

The data in the node array can be accessed by the functions  $get(da, it)$  and set(da, it, value) that take as parameters an instance of node\_array\_da<T> and an iterator, see below.

 $node_array\_da \leq T$ : value\_type is a type and equals T.

For node map $\langle T \rangle$  there is the variant node map  $da \langle T \rangle$  which is defined completely analogous to *node\_array\_da*  $\langle T \rangle$ . Classes *edge\_array\_da*  $\langle T \rangle$  and *edge\_map\_da*  $\langle T \rangle$  are defined analogously, as well.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $node_array\_da < T>da$ ;

introduces a variable da of this class that is not bound.

 $node_array\_da \leq T$  a(leda::node\_array $\leq T \geq \&$  na); introduces a variable da of this class bound to na.


# 4. Implementation

Constant Overhead.

# 5. Example

We count the number of 'red nodes' in a parameterized graph G.

```
int count_red(graph G, node_array<color> COL) {
  node_array_da<color> Color(COL);
  int counter=0;
  NodeIt it(G);
  while (it.valid()) {
    if (get(Color,it)==red) counter++;
    it++; }
  return counter;
}
```
Suppose we want to make this 'algorithm' flexible in the representation of colors. Then we could write this version:

```
template<class DA>
int count_red_t(graph G, DA Color) {
  int counter=0;
  NodeIt it(G);
  while (it.valid()) {
    if (get(Color,it)==red) counter++;
    it++; }
 return counter;
}
```
With the templatized version it is easily to customize it to match the interface of the version:

```
int count_red(graph G, node_array<color> COL) {
 node_array_da<color> Color(COL);
 return count_red_t(G,Color); }
```
# 11.14 Constant Accessors ( constant da )

# 1. Definition

An instance ca of class constant  $da \leq T$  is bound to a specific value of type T, and the function  $qet(ca, it)$  simply returns this value for each iterator.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

```
constant\_da < T> ca(T t);
```
introduces a variable ca of this class bound to the given value t.

## 3. Operations

 $T \qquad \qquad \text{get}(const \; constant \; da \leq T \geq \& \; ca \; const \; Iter \& \; it)$ 

returns the value to which ca is bound.

# 4. Example

With the template function of sect. 11.13 we can write a function that counts the number of nodes in a graph:

```
int count_all(graph G) {
 constant_da<color> Color(red);
 return count_red_t(G,Color); }
```
# 11.15 Node Member Accessors ( node member da )

# 1. Definition

An instance da of class node\_member\_da<Str,  $T$ > manages the access to a node parameter that is organized as a member of a struct type, which is the first template argument of a parameterized graph GRAPH<Str,?>. The parameter is of type T and the struct of type Str.

Classes  $edge\_member\_da \le Str, T$  is defined completely analogously.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

# 2. Creation

 $node\_member\_da \leq Str, T> da;$ 

introduces a variable da of this class that is not bound.

 $node\_member\_da \leq Str, T> da (Ptr ptr);$ 

introduces a variable  $da$  of this class, which is bound to  $ptr$ .

## 3. Operations



## 4. Implementation

Constant Overhead.

The instance da accesses its parameter through a pointer to member of type Ptr, which is defined for example by typedef T Str::\*Ptr.

#### 5. Example

We have a parameterized graph G where the node information type is the following struct type Str:

```
struct Str {
  int x;
  color col; };
```
We want to count the number of red nodes. Since we have the template function of sect. 11.13 we can easily use it to do the computation:

```
int count_red(GRAPH<Str,double> G) {
 node_member_da<Str,color> Color(&Str::col);
 return count_red_t(G,Color); }
```
# 11.16 Node Attribute Accessors ( node attribute da )

# 1. Definition

An instance da of class *node\_attribute\_da*< $T$ > manages the access to a node parameter with type T of a parameterized graph GRAPH<T,?>.

Classes  $edge\_attribute\_da < T$  is defined completely analogously.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

# 2. Creation

 $node\_attribute\_da < T>da$ ;

introduces a variable da of this class.

## 3. Operations



# 4. Implementation

Constant Overhead.

#### 5. Example

Given a parameterized graph G with nodes associated with colours, we want to count the number of red nodes. Since we have the template function of sect. 11.13 we can easily use it to do the computation:

```
int count_red(GRAPH<color,double> G) {
 node_attribute_da<color> Color;
 return count_red_t(G,Color); }
```
# 11.17 Breadth First Search (flexible) ( GIT BFS )

# 1. Definition

An instance algorithm of class  $GIT_BFS$   $OutAdjIt$ , Queuetype, Mark  $\triangleright$  is an implementation of an algorithm that traverses a graph in a breadth first order. The queue used for the search must be provided by the caller and contains the source(s) of the search.

- If the queue is only modified by appending the iterator representing the source node onto the queue, a normal breadth first search beginning at the node of the graph is performed.
- It is possible to initialize the queue with several iterators that represent different roots of breadth first trees.
- By modifying the queue while running the algorithm the behaviour of the algorithm can be changed.
- After the algorithm performed a breadth first search, one may append another iterator onto the queue to restart the algorithm.

Iterator version: There is an iterator version of this algorithm: BFS It. Usage is similar to that of node iterators without the ability to go backward in the sequence.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

# 2. Creation

 $GIT_BFS$ <  $OutAdjIt$ ,  $Queuetype$ ,  $Mark$ algorithm(const Queuetype & q, Mark & ma);

> creates an instance *algorithm* of this class bound to the Queue  $q$ and data accessor ma.

# Preconditions:

- Queuetype is a queue parameterized with items of type OutAdjIt.
- q contains the sources of the traversal (for each source node an adjacency iterator referring to it) and
- ma is a data accessor that provides read and write access to a boolean value for each node (accessed through iterators). This value is assumed to be freely usable by algorithm.

 $GIT_BFS$ < $OutAdjIt$ ,  $Queuetype$ ,  $Mark$ 

algorithm(const Queuetype & q, Mark & ma, const OutAdjIt & ai);

creates an instance *algorithm* of this class bound to the queue  $q$ , data accessor *ma* and the adjacency iterator *ai* representing the source node of the breadth first traversal.

#### 3. Operations



gives direct access to internal Queue.

#### 4. Example

This example shows how to implement an algorithmic iterator for breadth first search:

```
class BFS_It {
 AdjIt _source;
 node_array<da> handler;
 node_array_da<bool> _mark;
 queue<AdjIt> _q;
  GIT_BFS<AdjIt,queue<AdjIt>,node_array_da<br/>bool>> > _search;
public:
 BFS_It(graph& G) :
   _source(AdjIt(G)), _handler(G,false),
   _mark(_handler), _search(_q,_mark)
   {
    _search.get_queue().clear();
   _search.get_queue().append(_source);
   }
 bool valid() const { return !_search.finished(); }
 node get_node() const { return _search.current().get_node(); }
 BFS_It& operator++() {
  _search.next(); return *this; }
};
```
With this iterator you can easily iterate through a graph in breadth first fashion :

```
graph G;
BFS_It it(G);
while (it.valid()) {
  // do something reasonable with 'it.get_node()'
  ++it;
}
```
# 5. Implementation

Each operation requires constant time. Therefore, a normal breadth-first search needs  $\mathcal{O}(m+n)$  time.

# 11.18 Depth First Search (flexible) ( GIT DFS )

#### 1. Definition

An instance *algorithm* of class GIT\_DFS< OutAdjIt, Stacktype, Mark > is an implementation of an algorithm that traverses a graph in a depth first order. The stack used for the search must be provided by the caller and contains the source(s) of the search.

- If the stack is only modified by pushing the iterator representing the source node onto the stack, a normal depth first search beginning at the node of the graph is performed.
- It is possible to initialize the stack with several iterators that represent different roots of depth first trees.
- By modifying the stack while running the algorithm the behaviour of the algorithm can be changed.
- After the algorithm performed a depth first search, one may push another iterator onto the stack to restart the algorithm.

A next step may return a state which describes the last action. There are the following three possibilities:

- 1. dfs shrink: an adjacency iterator was popped from the stack, i.e. the treewalk returns in root-direction
- 2. dfs leaf: same as dfs shrink, but a leaf occured
- 3. dfs grow depth: a new adjacency iterator was appended to the stack because it was detected as not seen before, i.e. the treewalk goes in depth-direction
- 4. dfs grow breadth: the former current adjacency iterator was replaced by the successor iterator, i.e. the treewalk goes in breadth-direction

Iterator version: There is an iterator version of this algorithm: DFS It. Usage is similar to that of node iterators without the ability to go backward in the sequence.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

```
GIT_DFS< OutAdjIt, Stacktype, Markalgorithm(const Stacktype& st, Mark& ma);
```
creates an instance algorithm of this class bound to the stack st and data accessor ma.

# Preconditions:

- Stacktype is a stack parameterized with items of type OutAdjIt.
- $\bullet$  st contains the sources of the traversal (for each source node an adjacency iterator referring to it) and
- ma is a data accessor that provides read and write access to a boolean value for each node (accessed through iterators). This value is assumed to be freely usable by algorithm.

#### $GIT_DFS$ <  $OutAdjIt$ ,  $Stacktype$ ,  $Mark$

 $algorithm (const. Stacktype & st. \textit{Mark\&} \textit{ma}, \textit{const} \textit{OutAdjIt\&} \textit{ai});$ 

creates an instance algorithm of this class bound to the stack st, data accessor ma and the adjacency iterator ai representing the source node of the depth first traversal.

#### 3. Operations





# 4. Implementation

Each operation requires constant time. Therefore, a normal depth-first search needs  $\mathcal{O}(m+n)$  time.

# 11.19 Topological Sort (flexible) ( GIT TOPOSORT )

#### 1. Definition

An instance algorithm of class  $GIT\_TOPOSORT \lt \text{OutAdjIt}$ , Indeg, Queuetype  $\gt$  is an implementation of an algorithm that iterates over all nodes in some topological order, if the underlying graph is acyclic. An object of this class maintains an internal queue, which contains all nodes (in form of adjacency iterators where the current node is equal to the fixed node) that are not yet passed, but all its predecessors have been passed.

Iterator version: There is an iterator version of this algorithm: TOPO\_It. Usage is similar to that of node iterators without the ability to go backward in the sequence and only a graph is allowed at creation time. Additionally there is **TOPO\_rev\_It** which traverses the graph in reversed topological order.

 $\#include \le EDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

 $GIT\_TOPOSORT \le OutAdjIt$ , Indeg, Queuetype >  $algorithm(Index\ indeq\&\ indeq tree);$ 

> creates an instance algorithm of this class bound to indeg. The internal queue of adjacency iterators is empty.

## Preconditions:

• Indeg is a data accessor that must provide both read and write access

- *indegree* stores for every node that corresponds to any iterator the number of incoming edges (has to be to computed before)
- Queuetype is a queue parameterized with elements of type OutAdjIt

The underlying graph need not be acyclic. Whether or not it is acyclic can be tested after execution of the algorithm (function cycle found()).

# 3. Operations



# 4. Implementation

The asymptotic complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(m + n)$ , where m is the number of edges and n the number of nodes.

# 5. Example

This algorithm performs a normal topological sort if the queue is initialized by the set of all nodes with indegree zero:

Definition of algorithm, where indeg is a data accessor that provides full data access to the number of incoming edges for each node:

GIT\_TOPOSORT<OutAdjIt,Indeg,Queuetype<Nodehandle> > algorithm(indeg);

Initialization of get\_queue() with all nodes of type  $\text{OutAdjIt}: \text{nodetype}$  that have zero indegree, i.e. get(indeg,it)==indeg.value null.

```
while ( !algorithm.finished() ) {
  // do something reasonable with algo.current()
  algo.next();
}
```
The source code of function toposort count() is implemented according to this pattern and may serve as a concrete example.

# 11.20 Strongly Connected Components (flexible) ( GIT\_SCC)

# 1. Definition

An instance algorithm of class  $GIT\_SCC < Out$ , In, It, OutSt, InSt, NSt, Mark > is an implementation of an algorithm that computes the strongly connected components.

Iterator version: There is an iterator version of this algorithm: SCC It. Usage is similar to that of node iterators without the ability to go backward in the sequence and only a graph is allowed at creation time. Method compnumb() returns the component number of the current node.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $GIT\_SCC$   $Out, In, It, OutSt, InSt, NSt, Mark$ algorithm(OutSt ost, InSt ist, Mark ma, Out oai, const It& it, In iai); creates an instance algorithm of this class bound to the stack st and data accessor ma.

## Preconditions:

- Out is an adjacency iterator that iterates over the outgoing edges of a fixed vertex
- In is an adjacency iterator that iterates over the incoming edges of a fixed vertex
- OutSt is stack parameterized with items of type Out
- InSt is stack parameterized with items of type In

• Mark is a data accessor that has access to a boolean value that is associated with each node of the graph

# 3. Operations



# 4. Implementation

Each operation requires constant time. The algorithm has running time  $\mathcal{O}(|V| + |E|)$ .

# 11.21 Dijkstra(flexible) ( GIT DIJKSTRA )

# 1. Definition

An instance algorithm of this class is an implementation of Dijkstra that can be flexibly initialized, stopped after each iteration of the core loop, and continued, time and again.

Iterator version: There is an iterator version of this algorithm: DIJKSTRA It. Usage is more complex and is documented in the graphiterator leda extension package.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/graph/graph\_iterator.h>$ 

# 2. Creation

 $GIT$ \_DIJKSTRA< OutAdjIt, Length, Distance, PriorityQueue, QueueItem > algorithm(const Length& l, Distance & d, const QueueItem & qi); creates an instance algorithm of this class.

The length and distance data accessors are initialized by the parameter list. The set of sources is empty. Length is a read only data accessor that gives access to the length of edges and Distance is a read/write data accessor that stores the distance of the nodes. PriorityQueue is a Queue parameterized with element of type OutAdjIt and QueueItem is a data accessor gives access to elements of type PriorityQueue::pq item.

Precondition: All edge lengths are initialized by values that are large enough to be taken as infinity.

Remark: This precondition is not necessary for the algorithm to have a defined behavior. In fact, it may even make sense to break this precondition deliberately. For example, if the distances have been computed before and shall only be updated after inserting new edges, it makes perfect sense to start the algorithm with these distances.

For a completely new computation, the node distances of all nodes are initialized to infinity(i.e. distance.value max).

#### 3. Operations

 $PriorityQueue \& algorithm.getQueue()$ 

gives direct access to internal priority queue.





# 4. Example

Class GIT DIJKSTRA may be used in a deeper layer in a hierarchy of classes and functions. For example, you may write a function which computes shortes path distances with given iterators and data accessors:

```
template<class OutAdjIt, class Length, class Distance,
         class PriorityQueue, class QueueItem>
void GIT_dijkstra_core(OutAdjIt s, Length& length, Distance& distance,
 PriorityQueue& pq, QueueItem& qi) {
  GIT_DIJKSTRA<OutAdjIt,Length,Distance,PriorityQueue,QueueItem>
    internal_dijk(length,distance,qi);
  internal_dijk.get_queue()=pq;
  set(distance,s,distance.value_null);
  if (s.valid()) {
    internal_dijk.init(s);
    internal_dijk.finish_algo();
 }
}
```
In another layer, you would instantiate these iterators and data acessors for a graph and invoke this function.

# 5. Implementation

The asymptotic complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(m + n \cdot T(n))$ , where  $T(n)$  is the(possibly amortized) complexity of a single queue update.

For the priority queues described in Chapter 8.1, it is  $T(n) = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ .

# Chapter 12

# Basic Data Types for Two-Dimensional Geometry

LEDA provides a collection of simple data types for computational geometry, such as points, vectors, directions, hyperplanes, segments, rays, lines, affine transformations, circles, polygons, and operations connecting these types.

The computational geometry kernel has evolved over time. The first kernel (types *point*, line, . . . ) was restricted to two-dimensional geometry and used floating point arithmetic as the underlying arithmetic. We found it very difficult to implement reliable geometric algorithms based on this kernel. See the chapter on computational geometry of [66] for some examples of the danger of floating point arithmetic in geometric computations. Starting with version 3.2 we therefore also provided a kernel based on exact rational arithmetic (types rat point, rat segment ...). (This kernel is still restricted to two dimensions.) From version 4.5 on we offer a two-dimensional kernel based on the type real, which also guarantees exact results. The corresponding data types are named real-point,

All two-dimensional object types defined in this section support the following operations:

# Equality and Identity Tests



## I/O Operators

 $real\_segment, \ldots$ 



# 12.1 Points ( point )

# 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *point* is a point in the two-dimensional plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We use  $(x, y)$  to denote a point with first (or x-) coordinate x and second (or y-) coordinate y.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/point.h>$ 

# 2. Types



returns  $area(p, q, r)$  (see below).





# Non-Member Functions





i.e., it returns  $+1$  if point c lies left of the directed line through a and b, 0 if a,b, and c are collinear, and  $-1$ otherwise.

# int cmp signed dist(*const point & a, const point & b, const point & c,*  $const$  point  $\& d)$

compares (signed) distances of  $c$  and  $d$  to the straight line passing through  $a$  and  $b$  (directed from  $a$  to  $b$ ). Returns  $+1$  (−1) if c has larger (smaller) distance than d and 0 if distances are equal.



computes the signed area of the triangle determined by a,b,c, positive if orientation(a, b, c) > 0 and negative otherwise.





# 12.2 Segments ( segment )

# 1. Definition

An instance s of the data type segment is a directed straight line segment in the twodimensional plane, i.e., a straight line segment  $[p, q]$  connecting two points  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . p is called the *source* or start point and  $q$  is called the *target* or end point of  $s$ . The length of s is the Euclidean distance between p and q. If  $p = q$  s is called empty. We use line(s) to denote a straight line containing s. The angle between a right oriented horizontal ray and s is called the direction of s.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/segment.h >$ 

## 2. Types



#### 3. Creation

segment s(const point  $\& p$ , const point  $\& q$ );

introduces a variable s of type segment. s is initialized to the segment  $[p, q]$ .

segment s(const point & p, const vector & v);

introduces a variable s of type segment. s is initialized to the segment  $[p, p + v]$ . Precondition:  $v.dim() = 2$ .

segment s(double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2);

introduces a variable s of type segment. s is initialized to the segment  $[(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)].$ 

segment  $s$ (const point  $x$  p, double alpha, double length);

introduces a variable s of type segment. s is initialized to the segment with start point  $p$ , direction *alpha*, and length length.

sequent s; introduces a variable s of type segment. s is initialized to the empty segment.

segment  $s(const segment \& s1, int);$ 

introduces a variable s of type segment. s is initialized to a copy of  $s_1$ .

# 4. Operations







returns true if  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are parallel and false otherwise.

# 12.3 Straight Rays ( ray )

# 1. Definition

An instance r of the data type ray is a directed straight ray in the two-dimensional plane. The angle between a right oriented horizontal ray and  $r$  is called the direction of  $r$ .

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/ray.h$ 

## 2. Types



# 4. Operations









# 12.4 Straight Lines ( line )

# 1. Definition

An instance l of the data type line is a directed straight line in the two-dimensional plane. The angle between a right oriented horizontal line and  $l$  is called the direction of  $l$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/line.h>$ 

# 2. Types



# 3. Creation

line  $l($ const point $\& p$ , const point $\& q$ );

introduces a variable  $l$  of type *line*.  $l$  is initialized to the line passing through points  $p$  and  $q$  directed form  $p$  to  $q$ .

- line  $l$ (const segment  $s$ ); introduces a variable l of type line. I is initialized to the line supporting segment s.
- *line*  $l(\text{const } ray\& r);$  introduces a variable l of type line. I is initialized to the line supporting ray r.

line  $l(const point \& p, const vector \& v);$ 

introduces a variable  $l$  of type *line*.  $l$  is initialized to the line passing through points p and  $p + v$ .

line  $l(const point \& p, double alpha);$ 

introduces a variable  $l$  of type *line.*  $l$  is initialized to the line passing through point p with direction alpha.

line l; introduces a variable l of type line. l is initialized to the line passing through the origin with direction 0.

# 4. Operations







# Non-Member Functions



computes orientation(*a*, *b*, *p*), where  $a \neq b$  and *a* and  $b$  appear in this order on line  $l$ .

int cmp slopes (const line &  $l1$ , const line &  $l2$ ) returns compare(slope( $l_1$ ), slope( $l_2$ )).

# 12.5 Circles ( circle )

# 1. Definition

An instance C of the data type *circle* is an oriented circle in the plane passing through three points  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $p_3$ . The orientation of C is equal to the orientation of the three defining points, i.e. *orientation* $(p_1, p_2, p_3)$ . If  $|\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}| = 1$  C is the empty circle with center  $p_1$ . If  $p_1, p_2, p_3$  are collinear C is a straight line passing through  $p_1, p_2$  and  $p_3$  in this order and the center of  $C$  is undefined.

 $\#include$   $\leq$   $LEDA/geo/circle.h$  >

# 2. Types



# 3. Creation

circle  $C$ (const point  $\α$ , const point  $\β$ );

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *circle.*  $C$  is initialized to the oriented circle through points  $a, b$ , and  $c$ .

circle  $C($ const point $\& a$ , const point $\& b$ );

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *circle*.  $C$  is initialized to the counter-clockwise oriented circle with center a passing through b.

- circle  $C(const\ point\& a)$ ; introduces a variable C of type circle. C is initialized to the trivial circle with center a.
- circle  $C$ ; introduces a variable C of type circle. C is initialized to the trivial circle with center (0, 0).

circle  $C$ (const point & c, double r);

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *circle.*  $C$  is initialized to the circle with center c and radius r with positive (i.e. counterclockwise) orientation.

circle  $C(double x, double y, double r);$ 

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *circle*.  $C$  is initialized to the circle with center  $(x, y)$  and radius r with positive (i.e. counter-clockwise) orientation.

circle C(const circle& c, int);

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *circle*.  $C$  is initialized to a copy of c. The second argument is for compatability with  $rat\_circle.$ 

# 4. Operations





double C.sqr. dist(const point  $(x, p)$  returns the squared distance between C and p. double  $C$ . distance (*const line & l*) returns the distance between  $C$  and  $l$ . double C.distance(const circle & D) returns the distance between C and D. bool radical axis(const circle & C1, const circle & C2, line & rad\_axis) if the radical axis for  $C1$  and  $C2$  exists, it is assigned to rad\_axis and true is returned; otherwise the result is false.
# 12.6 Polygons ( POLYGON )

## 1. Definition

There are three instantiations of *POLYGON*: *polygon* (floating point kernel), rat polygon (rational kernel) and *real polygon* (real kernel). The respective header file name corresponds to the type name (with ".h" appended).

An instance P of the data type  $POLYGON$  is a cyclic list of points (equivalently segments) in the plane. A polygon is called simple if all nodes of the graph induced by its segments have degree two and it is called weakly simple, if its segments are disjoint except for common endpoints and if the chain does not cross itself. See the LEDA book for more details.

A weakly simple polygon splits the plane into an unbounded region and one or more bounded regions. For a simple polygon there is just one bounded region. When a weakly simple polygon  $P$  is traversed either the bounded region is consistently to the left of  $P$  or the unbounded region is consistently to the left of  $P$ . We say that  $P$  is positively oriented in the former case and negatively oriented in the latter case. We use  $P$  to also denote the region to the left of P and call this region the positive side of P.

The number of vertices is called the size of P. A polygon with empty vertex sequence is called empty.

Only the types rat polygon and real polygon guarantee correct results. Almost all operations listed below are available for all the three instantiations of POLYGON . There is a small number of operations that are only available for polygon, they are indicated as such.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/generic/POLYGON.h>$ 

## 2. Types



to the empty polygon.

POLYGON  $P(const \text{ list}$  >  $\&pt pl$ ,  $CHECK_TYPE$  check =  $POLYGON$  :: WEAKLY\_SIMPLE,  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orientation =  $POLYGON :: RESPECT \_ ORIENTATION);$ 

> introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to the polygon with vertex sequence  $pl$ . If respect-orientation is DISREGARD ORIENTATION, the positive orientation is chosen.

> Precondition: If check is SIMPLE, pl must define a simple polygon, and if check is WEAKLY SIMPLE, pl must define a weakly simple polygon. If no test is to performed, the second argument has to be set to NO CHECK. The constants NO CHECK, SIMPLE, and WEAKLY SIMPLE are part of a local enumeration type CHECK TYPE.

POLYGON P(const polygon & Q, int prec = rat point: default precision);

introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to a rational approximation of the (floating point) polygon Q of coordinates with denominator at most prec. If prec is zero, the implementation chooses prec large enough such that there is no loss of precision in the conversion.







the buffer tube  $T$  as the set of all points in the complement of  $P$  whose distance to  $P$  is at most d. Then the function returns  $P \cup T$ . For  $d < 0$  let T denote the set of all points in P whose distance to the complement is less than |d|. Then the result is  $P \setminus T$ . p specifies the number of points used to represent convex corners. At the moment, only  $p = 1$ and  $p = 3$  are supported. (This function is experimental.)

The functions in the following group are only available for *polygons*. They have no counterpart for *rat\_polygons*.



## All functions below assume that  $\boldsymbol{P}$  is weakly simple.





#### Iterations Macros

**forall\_vertices** $(v, P)$  { "the vertices of P are successively assigned to rat\_point v" }

for<br>all segments(s, P) { "the edges of  $P$  are successively assigned to rat<br> segment  $s$ " }

## Non-Member Functions



# 12.7 Generalized Polygons ( GEN POLYGON )

## 1. Definition

There are three instantiations of  $POLYGON$ : gen polygon (floating point kernel), rat gen polygon (rational kernel) and real gen polygon (real kernel). The respective header file name corresponds to the type name (with ".h" appended).

An instance P of the data type  $GEN\text{-}POLYGON$  is a regular polygonal region in the plane. A regular region is an open set that is equal to the interior of its closure. A region is polygonal if its boundary consists of a finite number of line segments.

The boundary of a GEN\_POLYGON consists of zero or more weakly simple closed polygonal chains. There are two regions whose boundary is empty, namely the empty region and the full region. The full region encompasses the entire plane. We call a region non-trivial if its boundary is non-empty. The boundary cycles  $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_k$  of a *GEN\_POLYGON* are ordered such that no  $P_i$  is nested in a  $P_j$  with  $i < j$ .

Only the types rat polygon and real polygon guarantee correct results. Almost all operations listed below are available for all the three instantiations of POLYGON . There is a small number of operations that are only available for polygon, they are indicated as such.

A detailed discussion of polygons and generalized polygons can be found in the LEDA book.

The local enumeration type KIND consists of elements EMPTY, FULL, and NON\_TRIVIAL.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/generic/GEN_POLYGON.h>$ 

## 2. Types

 $GEN\_POLYGON::coord\_type$ 

the coordinate type (e.g. rational).

 $GEN\_POLYGON::point\_type$ 

the point type (e.g.  $rat\_point$ ).

 $GEN\_POLYGON::segment\_type$ 

the segment type (e.g.  $rat\_segment$ ).

 $GEN\_POLYGON::$  polygon\_type

the polygon type (e.g.  $rat\_polygon$ ).

 $GEN\_POLYGON$ :: float\_type

the corresponding floating-point type (*gen\_polygon*).

#### 3. Creation

 $GEN_POLYGON$   $P(KIND k = GEN_POLYGON_REP::EMPTY);$ 

introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $GEN\_POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to the empty polygon if  $k$  is EMPTY and to the full polygon if  $k$  is FULL.

 $GEN_POLYGON$   $P(const$   $POLYGON$   $p$ ,

 $CHECK_TYPE$  check = WEAKLY\_SIMPLE,  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect-orientation = RESPECT ORIENTATION );

> introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $GEN_POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to the polygonal region with boundary  $p$ . If respect orientation is DISREGARD ORIENTATION, the orientation is chosen such P is bounded.

> Precondition: p must be a weakly simple polygon. If check is set appropriately this is checked.

 $GEN_POLYGON$   $P(const$  list <  $POINT$  > & pl,

 $CHECK_TYPE$  check =  $GEN_POLYGON$ :: WEAKLY\_SIMPLE,  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orientation = RESPECT ORIENTATION );

introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $GEN_POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to the polygon with vertex sequence pl. If respect\_orientation is DISREGARD\_ORIENTATION, the orientation is chosen such that  $P$  is bounded.

Precondition: If check is SIMPLE, pl must define a simple polygon, and if check is WEAKLY SIMPLE, pl must define a weakly simple polygon. If no test is to performed, the second argument has to be set to NO CHECK. The three constants NO CHECK, SIMPLE, and WEAKLY SIMPLE are part of a local enumeration type CHECK TYPE.

GEN\_POLYGON P(const list<POLYGON>& PL,  $CHECK_TYPE$  check =  $CHECK_REP$ );

> introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $GEN\_POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to the polygon with boundary representation PL. Precondition: PL must be a boundary representation. This conditions is checked if check is set to CHECK REP.

#### $GEN\_POLYGON$   $P(const$  list<  $GEN\_POLYGON$  >&  $PL);$

introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $GEN\_POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to the union of all generalized polygons in PL.

#### 360 CHAPTER 12. BASIC DATA TYPES FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRY

GEN\_POLYGON P(const gen\_polygon&  $Q$ , int prec = rat\_point:: default\_precision); introduces a variable  $P$  of type  $GEN\_POLYGON$ .  $P$  is initialized to a rational approximation of the (floating point) polygon Q of coordinates with denominator at most prec. If prec is zero, the implementation chooses prec large enough such that there is no loss of precision in the conversion









P whose distance to the complement is less than |d|. Then the result is  $P \setminus T$ . p specifies the number of points used to represent convex corners. At the moment, only  $p = 1$ and  $p = 3$  are supported. (This function is experimental.)

All binary boolean operations are regularized, i.e., the result  $R$  of the standard boolean operation is replaced by the interior of the closure of  $R$ . We use reg  $X$  to denote the regularization of a set X.

 $GEN_POLYGON$  P.unite(const  $GEN_POLYGON \& Q$ ) returns reg( $P \cup Q$ ).  $GEN\_POLYGON$  P.intersection(const  $GEN\_POLYGON \& Q$ ) returns reg $(P \cap Q)$ . GEN\_POLYGON P.diff(const GEN\_POLYGON & Q) returns reg $(P \setminus Q)$ .  $GEN_POLYGON$  P.sym.diff(const  $GEN_POLYGON \& Q$ )

returns reg $((P \cup Q) - (P \cap Q)).$ 

The following functions are only available for *gen\_polygons*. They have no counterpart for rat gen polygons or real gen polygons.



### Iterations Macros

forall polygons $(p, P)$  { "the boundary polygons of P are successively assigned to POLY-GON  $p^{\prime\prime}$  }

## 12.8 Triangles ( triangle )

### 1. Definition

An instance t of the data type *triangle* is an oriented triangle in the two-dimensional plane. A triangle splits the plane into one bounded and one unbounded region. If the triangle is positively oriented, the bounded region is to the left of it, if it is negatively oriented, the unbounded region is to the left of it. A triangle  $t$  is called degenerate, if the 3 vertices of t are collinear.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/triangle.h>$ 

### 2. Types









## 12.9 Iso-oriented Rectangles ( rectangle )

### 1. Definition

An instance r of the data type rectangle is an iso-oriented rectangle in the two-dimensional plane.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/rectangle.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

rectangle  $r(const point \& p, const point \& q);$ 

introduces a variable  $r$  of type *rectangle*.  $r$  is initialized to the *rectangle* with diagonal corners  $p$  and  $q$ 

rectangle  $r$ (const point & p, double w, double h);

introduces a variable  $r$  of type *rectangle*.  $r$  is initialized to the rectangle with lower left corner  $p$ , width  $w$  and height  $h$ .

rectangle  $r(double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2);$ 

introduces a variable  $r$  of type *rectangle*.  $r$  is initialized to the rectangle with diagonal corners  $(x1, y1)$  and  $(x2, y2)$ .







## 12.10 Rational Points (rat\_point)

### 1. Definition

An instance of data type *rat point* is a point with rational coordinates in the twodimensional plane. A point with cartesian coordinates  $(a, b)$  is represented by homogeneous coordinates  $(x, y, w)$  of arbitrary length integers (see 5.1) such that  $a = x/w$  and  $b = y/w$  and  $w > 0$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/rat\_point.h>$ 

### 2. Types



rat point  $p(const \; rat\_vector \& v);$ 

introduces a variable  $p$  of type  $rat\_{point}$  initialized to the point  $(v[0], v[1]).$  $Precondition: v.dim() = 2.$ 

rat point p(const point  $p_1$ , int prec = rat point :: default precision); introduces a variable  $p$  of type  $rat\_point$  initialized to the point with homogeneous coordinates  $(|P*x|, |P*y|, P)$ , where  $p_1 =$  $(x, y)$  and  $P = 2^{prec}$ . If prec is non-positive, the conversion is without loss of precision, i.e.,  $P$  is chosen as a sufficiently large power of two such that  $P * x$  and  $P * y$  are *integers*.

rat point p(double x, double y, int prec = rat point: default precision); see constructor above with  $p = (x, y)$ .





## Non-Member Functions





## 12.11 Rational Segments (rat\_segment)

### 1. Definition

An instance s of the data type rat sequent is a directed straight line segment in the twodimensional plane, i.e., a line segment  $[p, q]$  connecting two rational points p and q (cf. 12.10). p is called the *source* or start point and q is called the *target* or end point of s. A segment is called trivial if its source is equal to its target.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/rat\_segment.h >$ 

## 2. Types



rat\_segment  $s(const segment \& s1, int prec = rat\_point::default\_precision);$ introduces a variable  $s$  of type  $rat\_segment$ .  $s$  is initialized to the segment obtained by approximating the two defining points of  $s_1$ .









## 12.12 Rational Rays (rat\_ray)

### 1. Definition

An instance  $r$  of the data type  $rat\_{ray}$  is a directed straight ray defined by two points with rational coordinates in the two-dimensional plane.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/rat_ray.h>$ 

### 2. Types



### 3. Creation









int cmp slopes(const rat ray & r1, const rat ray & r2) returns compare(slope( $r_1$ ), slope( $r_2$ )).

## 12.13 Straight Rational Lines ( rat line )

## 1. Definition

An instance l of the data type rat line is a directed straight line in the two-dimensional plane.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/rat\_line.h>$ 

### 2. Types









bool equal as sets (const rat line & l, const rat line & g)

returns true if the  $l$  and  $g$  are equal as unoriented lines.

## Non-Member Functions


# 12.14 Rational Circles ( rat circle )

### 1. Definition

An instance C of data type  $rat\_circle$  is an oriented circle in the plane. A circle is defined by three points  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $p_3$  with rational coordinates (*rat points*). The orientation of C is equal to the orientation of the three defining points, i.e., *orientation*( $p_1, p_2, p_3$ ). Positive orientation corresponds to counter-clockwise orientation and negative orientation corresponds to clockwise orientation.

Some triples of points are unsuitable for defining a circle. A triple is *admissable* if  $|\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}| \neq 2$ . Assume now that  $p_1, p_2, p_3$  are admissable. If  $|\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}| = 1$  they define the circle with center  $p_1$  and radius zero. If  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ , and  $p_3$  are collinear C is a straight line passing through  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$  and  $p_3$  in this order and the center of C is undefined. If  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ , and  $p_3$  are not collinear, C is the circle passing through them.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/rat\_circle.h >$ 

### 2. Types



### 3. Creation

rat circle  $C$ (const rat point  $\& a$ , const rat point  $\& b$ , const rat point  $\& c$ );

introduces a variable  $C$  of type rat\_circle.  $C$  is initialized to the circle through points  $a, b$ , and  $c$ . Precondition: a, b, and c are admissable.

rat circle  $C$ (const rat point  $\& a$ , const rat point  $\& b$ );

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *circle*.  $C$  is initialized to the counter-clockwise oriented circle with center a passing through b.

rat\_circle  $C($ const rat\_point $\& a$ );

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *circle.*  $C$  is initialized to the trivial circle with center a.

rat circle  $C$ ; introduces a variable C of type rat circle. C is initialized to the trivial circle centered at (0, 0).

rat\_circle  $C(const\ circle\& c,\ int\ prec\ =\ rat\ point::\ default\ precision);$ 

introduces a variable  $C$  of type  $\mathit{rat\_circle}$ .  $C$  is initialized to the circle obtained by approximating three defining points of c.





## 12.15 Rational Triangles (rat\_triangle)

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $t$  of the data type  $r$ at triangle is an oriented triangle in the two-dimensional plane with rational coordinates. A *rat triangle t* splits the plane into one bounded and one unbounded region. If  $t$  is positively oriented, the bounded region is to the left of it, if it is negatively oriented, the unbounded region is to the left of it.  $t$  is called degenerate, if the 3 vertices of  $t$  are collinear.

 $\#include$   $<$   $LEDA/geo/rat\_triangle.h$  >

#### 2. Types



 $rat\_point$  t.point  $3()$  returns the third vertex of triangle t.



rat\_triangle  $t$  – const rat\_vector & v

returns t translated by vector  $-v$ .

rat triangle t.rotate90(const rat point & q, int  $i = 1$ )

returns t rotated about q by an angle of  $i \times 90$  degrees. If  $i > 0$  the rotation is counter-clockwise otherwise it is clockwise.

rat\_triangle t.rotate90(int  $i = 1$ )

returns  $t.\text{rotate90}(t.\text{source}(),i).$ 

rat triangle t.reflect(const rat point & p, const rat point & q)

returns  $t$  reflected across the straight line passing through  $p$  and  $q$ .

rat\_triangle t.reflect(const rat\_point& p)

returns  $t$  reflected across point  $p$ .

 $rat\_triangle$   $t$  reverse( ) returns  $t$  reversed.

# 12.16 Iso-oriented Rational Rectangles ( rat\_rectangle)

### 1. Definition

An instance r of the data type rectangle is an iso-oriented rectangle in the two-dimensional plane with rational coordinates.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/rat\_rectangle.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation



introduces a variable  $r$  of type  $rat\_rectangle$ .  $r$  is initialized to the rectangle obtained by approximating the defining points of r.





rat rectangle r.include(const rat rectangle  $x$  r2) returns a new *rat\_rectangle* that includes the points of r and r2. rat rectangle r.translate(rational dx, rational dy) returns r translated by  $(dx, dy)$ . rat rectangle r.translate(const rat vector  $\& v$ ) returns r translated by  $v$ . rat rectangle  $r + const$  rat vector & v returns r translated by v. rat rectangle r – const rat vector & v returns r translated by vector  $-v$ . rat point r[int i] returns the i − th vertex of r. Precondition:  $(0 <$  $i < 5$ ). rat\_rectangle r.rotate90(const rat\_point & p, int  $i = 1$ ) returns r rotated about q by an angle of  $i \times 90$ degrees. If  $i > 0$  the rotation is counter-clockwise otherwise it is clockwise. rat rectangle r.rotate90(int  $i = 1$ ) returns r rotated by an angle of  $i \times 90$  degrees about the origin. rat\_rectangle r.reflect(const rat\_point & p) returns r reflected across p. bool  $r.\text{clip}(const \text{ rat}\text{-}segment \& t, rat\text{-}segment \& inter)$ clips  $t$  on  $r$  and returns the result in *inter*. bool  $r.\text{clip}(const \text{ rat}\_line{\& l}, \text{rat}\_segment \& \text{inter})$ clips  $l$  on  $r$  and returns the result in *inter*. bool r.clip(const rat\_ray & ry, rat\_segment & inter) clips  $ry$  on  $r$  and returns the result in *inter*. bool r.difference(const rat\_rectangle & q, list  $\mathcal{L}$  rat\_rectangle  $\& L$ ) returns true iff the difference of r and q is not empty, and false otherwise. The difference L is returned as a partition into rectangles.  $list < rat\_point > r.\nintersection(const \; rat\_segment \& s)$ returns  $r \cap s$ .  $list < rat\_point> r.$  intersection(*const rat\_line* & l) returns  $r \cap l$ .

 $list$ <rr/>rat\_rectangle> r.intersection(const rat\_rectangle& s)

returns  $r \cap s.$ 

 $bool$   $r.dointersect(const \; rat\_rectangles& b)$ 

returns true iff r and b intersect, false otherwise.

rational  $r.\text{area}()$  returns the area of  $r$ .

# 12.17 Real Points ( real point )

## 1. Definition

An instance of the data type *real point* is a point in the two-dimensional plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We use  $(x, y)$  to denote a real point with first (or x-) coordinate x and second (or y-) coordinate y.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/real\_point.h>$ 

## 2. Types







real point p.reflect(const real point  $\& q$ , const real point  $\& r$ )

returns p reflected across the straight line passing through  $q$  and  $r$ .

real point p.reflect(const real point  $\& q$ )

returns p reflected across point q.

real vector  $p$  – const real point & q

returns the difference vector of the coordinates.

#### Non-Member Functions

int cmp distances (const real point & p1, const real point & p2, const real point  $\&$  p3, const real point  $\&$  p4) compares the distances  $(p1, p2)$  and  $(p3, p4)$ . Returns +1 (-1) if distance  $(p1, p2)$  is larger (smaller) than distance  $(p3, p4)$ , otherwise 0.

real point center(const real point & a, const real point & b)

returns the center of a and b, i.e.  $a + \overrightarrow{ab}/2$ .

real point midpoint (const real point & a, const real point & b) returns the center of a and b.

int orientation(const real point & a, const real point & b, const real point  $\& c$ ) computes the orientation of points  $a, b$ , and  $c$  as the sign of the determinant



i.e., it returns  $+1$  if point c lies left of the directed line through a and b, 0 if a,b, and c are collinear, and  $-1$ otherwise.







## 12.18 Real Segments ( real segment )

#### 1. Definition

An instance s of the data type *real segment* is a directed straight line segment in the two-dimensional plane, i.e., a straight line segment  $[p, q]$  connecting two points  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . p is called the *source* or start point and q is called the *target* or end point of s. The length of s is the Euclidean distance between p and q. If  $p = q$ , s is called empty. We use  $line(s)$ to denote a straight line containing s.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/real\_segment.h >$ 

#### 2. Types

real\_segment:: coord\_type the coordinate type (real).  $real\_segment::point\_type$  the point type (real point).

#### 3. Creation

real\_seqment s(const real\_point & p, const real\_point & q);

introduces a variable s of type real segment. s is initialized to the segment  $[p, q]$ .

real\_segment  $s$ (const real\_point  $\& p$ , const real\_vector  $\& v$ );

introduces a variable s of type real segment. s is initialized to the segment  $[p, p + v]$ . Precondition:  $v.dim() = 2$ .

real segment s(real x1, real y1, real x2, real  $y2$ );

introduces a variable s of type real segment. s is initialized to the segment  $[(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)].$ 

real sequent s; introduces a variable s of type real sequent. s is initialized to the empty segment.

real\_segment  $s(const$  segment & s1, int prec = 0);

introduces a variable s of type *real\_segment* initialized to the segment  $s_1$ . (The second argument is for compatibility with  $rat\_segment$ .)

real\_segment  $s(const \; rat\_segment \; & s1);$ 

introduces a variable s of type real segment initialized to the segment  $s_1$ .





 $real\_segment$  s.reverse $()$  returns s reversed.

### Non-Member Functions



# 12.19 Real Rays (real\_ray)

## 1. Definition

An instance  $r$  of the data type  $real_{ray}$  is a directed straight ray in the two-dimensional plane.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/real-ray.h$ 

### 2. Types



#### 3. Creation







## Non-Member Functions



## 12.20 Straight Real Lines ( real line )

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $l$  of the data type *real line* is a directed straight line in the two-dimensional plane.

 $\#include$   $\leq$   $LEDA/geo/real\_line.h$  >

### 2. Types



#### 3. Creation







## Non-Member Functions



 $int$  cmp slopes(const real line & 11, const real line & 12) returns compare(slope( $l_1$ ), slope( $l_2$ )).

## 12.21 Real Circles ( real circle )

### 1. Definition

An instance C of the data type *real circle* is an oriented circle in the plane passing through three points  $p_1, p_2, p_3$ . The orientation of C is equal to the orientation of the three defining points, i.e. *orientation* $(p_1, p_2, p_3)$ . If  $|\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}| = 1$  C is the empty circle with center  $p_1$ . If  $p_1, p_2, p_3$  are collinear C is a straight line passing through  $p_1, p_2$  and  $p_3$  in this order and the center of C is undefined.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/real-circle.h >$ 

#### 2. Types



#### 3. Creation

real circle  $C(\text{const real-point}\& a, \text{const real-point}\& b, \text{const real-point}\& c);$ 

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *real\_circle*.  $C$  is initialized to the oriented circle through points  $a, b$ , and  $c$ .

real\_circle  $C($ const real\_point & a, const real\_point & b);

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *real circle.*  $C$  is initialized to the counter-clockwise oriented circle with center a passing through b.

real circle  $C$ (const real point  $\& a$ );

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *real circle.*  $C$  is initialized to the trivial circle with center a.

real circle C; introduces a variable C of type real circle. C is initialized to the trivial circle with center  $(0, 0)$ .

real circle  $C(const$  real point & c, real r);

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *real circle.*  $C$  is initialized to the circle with center c and radius  $r$  with positive (i.e. counter-clockwise) orientation.

real\_circle  $C(\text{real }x, \text{real }y, \text{real }r);$ 

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *real circle.*  $C$  is initialized to the circle with center  $(x, y)$  and radius r with positive (i.e. counter-clockwise) orientation.

real\_circle  $C(const \ circle \& c, int \ prec = 0);$ 

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *real\_circle* initialized to the circle c. (The second argument is for compatibility with  $rat\_circle.$ )

real\_circle  $C(const \; rat\_circle \& c);$ 

introduces a variable  $C$  of type *real\_circle* initialized to the circle c.





returns the squared distance between  $C$  and  $p$ .



# 12.22 Real Triangles ( real triangle )

## 1. Definition

An instance  $t$  of the data type *real triangle* is an oriented triangle in the two-dimensional plane. A triangle splits the plane into one bounded and one unbounded region. If the triangle is positively oriented, the bounded region is to the left of it, if it is negatively oriented, the unbounded region is to the left of it. A triangle  $t$  is called degenerate, if the 3 vertices of t are collinear.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/real\_triangle.h >$ 

### 2. Types



### 3. Creation



real triangle  $t$ (const real point  $\& p$ , const real point  $\& q$ , const real point  $\& r$ );

introduces a variable  $t$  of type *real triangle.*  $t$  is initialized to the triangle  $[p, q, r]$ .

real triangle  $t(\text{real } x1, \text{real } y1, \text{real } x2, \text{real } y2, \text{real } x3, \text{real } y3);$ introduces a variable  $t$  of type *real\_triangle*.  $t$  is initialized to the triangle  $[(x1, y1), (x2, y2), (x3, y3)].$ 

real triangle  $t(const\ triangle \& t1, int\ prec = 0);$ introduces a variable t of type real triangle initialized to the triangle  $t_1$ . (The second argument is for compatibility with  $rat\_triangle$ .)

real\_triangle  $t$ (const rat\_triangle & t1);

introduces a variable t of type *real triangle* initialized to the triangle  $t_1$ .





real\_triangle  $t + const$  real\_vector & v returns  $t$  translated by vector  $v$ . real\_triangle  $t$  – const real\_vector & v returns t translated by vector  $-v$ . real triangle t.rotate90(const real point  $\& q, int i = 1$ ) returns t rotated about q by an angle of  $i \times 90$  degrees. If  $i > 0$  the rotation is counter-clockwise otherwise it is clockwise. real triangle t.rotate90(int  $i = 1$ ) returns  $t.\text{rotate}90(t.\text{source}(),i).$ real triangle t.reflect(const real point  $\& p$ , const real point  $\& q$ ) returns t reflected across the straight line passing through  $p$  and  $q$ . real triangle t.reflect(const real point  $\& p$ ) returns  $t$  reflected across point  $p$ .  $real\_triangle$  t.reverse() returns t reversed.

## 12.23 Iso-oriented Real Rectangles ( real rectangle )

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $r$  of the data type *real rectangle* is an iso-oriented rectangle in the twodimensional plane.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/real\_rectangle.h >$ 

#### 2. Creation

real\_rectangle  $r(const \text{ real\_point} \& p, \text{ const } \text{ real\_point} \& q);$ 

introduces a variable  $r$  of type *real rectangle*.  $r$  is initialized to the real rectangle with diagonal corners  $p$  and  $q$ 

real rectangle  $r$ (const real point & p, real w, real h);

introduces a variable r of type real rectangle.  $r$  is initialized to the real rectangle with lower left corner  $p$ , width  $w$  and height  $h$ .

real\_rectangle  $r(\text{real } x1, \text{real } y1, \text{real } x2, \text{real } y2);$ 

introduces a variable  $r$  of type *real rectangle.*  $r$  is initialized to the real rectangle with diagonal corners  $(x1, y1)$  and  $(x2, y2)$ .

real\_rectangle  $r(const \, rectangle \, x1, \, int \, prec = 0);$ 

introduces a variable  $r$  of type *real rectangle* initialized to the rectangle  $r_1$ . (The second argument is for compatibility with rat\_rectangle.)

real\_rectangle  $r$ (const rat\_rectangle  $x$  r1);

introduces a variable  $r$  of type *real\_rectangle* initialized to the rectangle  $r_1$ .





real rectangle r.translate(real  $dx$ , real  $dy$ ) returns a new rectangle that is the translation of r by  $(dx, dy)$ . real rectangle r.translate(const real vector  $\& v$ ) returns a new rectangle that is the translation of  $r$  by  $v$ . real rectangle  $r + const$  real vector & v returns  $r$  translated by  $v$ . real\_rectangle  $r$  – const real\_vector & v returns r translated by  $-v$ . real point r[int i] returns the  $i - th$  vertex of r. Precondition: (0 <  $i < 5$ ). real rectangle r.rotate90(const real point & p, int  $i = 1$ ) returns r rotated about p by an angle of  $i \times 90$ degrees. If  $i > 0$  the rotation is counter-clockwise otherwise it is clockwise. real rectangle r.rotate90(int  $i = 1$ ) returns r rotated by an angle of  $i \times 90$  degrees about the origin. real rectangle r.reflect(const real point  $\& p$ ) returns r reflected across p.  $list \le real\_point \ge r.\nintersection (const\ real\_segment \& s)$ returns  $r \cap s$ . bool  $r.\text{clip}(const \text{ real}\text{.segment} \& t, \text{ real}\text{.segment} \& \text{ inter})$ clips  $t$  on  $r$  and returns the result in *inter*. bool  $r.\text{clip}(const \text{ real}\_\text{line}\& l, \text{ real}\_\text{segment}\& \text{ inter})$ clips  $l$  on  $r$  and returns the result in *inter*. bool  $r.\text{clip}(const \text{ real } ray \& \text{ ry}, \text{ real } segment \& \text{ inter})$ clips  $ry$  on  $r$  and returns the result in *inter*. bool r.difference(const real\_rectangle & q, list  $\{real\_rectangle \& L\}$ ) returns *true* iff the difference of r and q is not empty, and false otherwise. The difference L is returned as a partition into rectangles.

 $list \leq real\_point \geq r$ .intersection(*const real\_line* & l)

returns  $r \cap l$ .
$list \le real\_rectangle \ge r.\ninterest on (const\ real\_rectangle \& s)$ 

returns  $r \cap s.$ 

 $bool$   $r.dointersect(const\ real\_rectangles& b)$ 

returns true iff r and b intersect, false otherwise.

real  $r.\text{area}$  ( ) returns the area of r.

## 12.24 Geometry Algorithms (geo\_alg)

All functions listed in this section work for geometric objects based on both floating-point and exact (rational) arithmetic. In particular, *point* can be replace by *rat\_point*, *segment* by rat\_seqment, and circle by rat\_circle.

The floating point versions are faster but unreliable. They may produce incorrect results, abort, or run forever. Only the rational versions will produce correct results for all inputs.

The include-file for the rational version is rat geo alg.h, the include-file for the floating point version is float geo alg.h, and geo alg.h includes both versions. Including both versions increases compile time. An alternative name for geo alg.h is plane alg.h.

### • Convex Hulls



double WIDTH(const list  $\epsilon$  ) with  $L$ , line  $\&$  11, line  $\&$  12) returns the square of the minimum width of a stripe covering all points in L and the two boundaries of the stripe. Precondition: L is non-empty

### • Halfplane intersections

### void HALFPLANE INTERSECTION(const list<line>& L, list<line>& Lout)

For every line  $\ell \in L$  let  $h_{\ell}$  be the closed halfplane lying on the positive side of  $\ell$ , i.e.,  $h_{\ell} = \{ p \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid orientation(\ell, p) \ge 0 \}$ , and let  $H = \bigcap_{\ell \in L} h_{\ell}$ . Then HALFPLANE INTERSECTION computes the list of lines Lout defining the boundary of H in counter-clockwise ordering.

### • Point Location

## edge LOCATE IN TRIANGULATION(const GRAPH <point, int>& G, point p,

 $edge start = 0)$ 

returns an edge  $e$  of triangulation  $G$  that contains  $p$  or that borders the face that contains  $p$ . In the former case, a hull edge is returned if p lies on the boundary of the convex hull. In the latter case we have *orientation*(*e, p*) > 0 except if all points of G are collinear and p lies on the induced line. In this case  $target(e)$  is visible from p. The function returns nil if G has no edge. The optional third argument is an edge of G, where the locate operation starts searching.

edge LOCATE IN TRIANGULATION(const GRAPH <point, segment>& G, point p,  $edge start = 0$ 

as above, for constraint triangulations.

edge LOCATE IN TRIANGULATION(const graph &  $G$ , const node array <point>  $\&$  pos, point p, edge start  $= 0$ )

> as above, for arbitrary graph types representing a triangulation. Node positions have to be supplied in a node array pos.

### • Triangulations

edge TRIANGULATE POINTS(const list <point>& L,  $GRAPH$  <point, int>& T)

computes a triangulation (planar map)  $T$  of the points in  $L$  and returns an edge of the outer face (convex hull).

void DELAUNAY\_TRIANG(const list<point>& L,  $GRAPH$ <point, int>& DT) computes the delaunay triangulation  $DT$  of the points in  $L$ .

void DELAUNAY\_DIAGRAM(const list <point>& L, GRAPH <point, int>& DD) computes the delaunay diagram DD of the points in L.

void F\_DELAUNAY\_TRIANG(const list <point>& L,  $GRAPH$  <point, int>&  $FDT$ ) computes the furthest point delaunay triangulation FDT of the points in L.

void F\_DELAUNAY\_DIAGRAM(const list<point>& L, GRAPH<point, int>& FDD) computes the furthest point delaunary diagram  $FDD$  of the points in  $L$ .

### • Constraint Triangulations

### edge TRIANGULATE SEGMENTS(const list<seqment>& L,  $GRAPH$  < point, segment>& G)

computes a constrained triangulation (planar map)  $T$  of the segments in  $L$  (trivial segments representing points are allowed). The function returns an edge of the outer face (convex hull).

### edge DELAUNAY\_TRIANG(const list <segment>& L,  $GRAPH$  <point, segment>& G)

computes a constrained Delaunay triangulation  $T$  of the segments in  $L$ . The function returns an edge of the outer face (convex hull).

### $edge$  TRIANGULATE PLANE MAP( $GRAPH$ <point, seqment>& G)

computes a constrained triangulation  $T$  of the plane map (counterclockwise straight-line embedded Graph)  $G$ . The function returns an edge of the outer face (convex hull). Precondition: G is simple.

### $edge$  DELAUNAY\_TRIANG(*GRAPH* <point, segment>& G)

computes a constrained Delaunay triangulation T of the plane map G. The function returns an edge of the outer face (convex hull). Precondition: G is simple.

### edge TRIANGULATE POLYGON(const polygon & P, GRAPH  $\epsilon$ point, segment> & G,  $list \leq edge \geq \&$  inner\_edges, list  $\leq edge \geq \&$  outer\_edges,  $list \leq edge \geq \&\ boundary_{edges}$

triangulates the interior and exterior of the simple polygon  $P$  and stores all edges of the inner (outer) triangulation in inner edges (outer edges) and the edges of the polygon boundary in *boundary\_edges*. The function returns an edge of the convex hull of  $P$  if  $P$  is simple and *nil* otherwise.

 $edge$  TRIANGULATE POLYGON(const gen polygon & GP,

 $GRAPH$ <point, segment>& G, list<edge> $\&$  inner\_edges, list<edge> $\&$  outer\_edges,  $list \leq edge \geq \&\ boundary_{edges},\ list \leq edge \geq \&\ hole_{edges}$ 

triangulates the interior and exterior of the generalized polygon GP and stores all edges of the inner (outer) triangulation in *inner edges* (*outer\_edges*). The function returns *nil* if  $GP$  is trivial, and an edge of the convex hull otherwise. *boundary\_edges* contains the edges of every counter-clockwise oriented boundary cycle of GP, and hole edges contains the edges on every clockwise oriented boundary cycle of GP. Note that the reversals of boundary and hole edges will be returned in *inner\_edges*. Precondition: GP is simple.

### edge CONVEX COMPONENTS(const polygon& P, GRAPH <point, segment>& G,  $list \leq edge \geq \& inner\_edges, list \leq edge \geq \& boundary)$

if  $P$  is a bounded and non-trivial simple polygon its interior is decomposed into convex parts. All inner edges of the constructed decomposition are returned in *inner\_edges.* boundary\_edges contains the edges of the polygon boundary Note that the reversals of boundary edges will be stored in *inner-edges.* The function returns an edge of the convex hull if  $P$  is simple and non-trivial and *nil* otherwise.

edge CONVEX COMPONENTS(const gen\_polygon& GP,

 $GRAPH$ <point, segment>& G, list<edge>& inner edges, list<edge>& boundary edges,  $list \leq edge \geq k$  hole\_edges)

if GP is a bounded and non-trivial generalized polygon, its interior is decomposed into convex parts. All inner edges of the constructed decomposition are returned in inner edges. boundary edges contains the edges of every counter-clockwise oriented boundary cycle of GP, and hole edges contains the edges of every clockwise oriented boundary cycle of GP. Note that the reversals of boundary and hole edges will be stored in *inner edges*. The function returns an edge of the convex hull if  $GP$  is a bounded and non-trivial and nil otherwise. Precondition: GP must be simple.

### $list$ <br>spolygon> TRIANGLE COMPONENTS(const gen polygon & GP)

triangulates the interior of generalized polygon GP and returns the result of the triangulation as a list of polygons.

### $list$ <polygon> CONVEX COMPONENTS(const gen\_polygon & GP)

if GPis a bounded and non-trivial generalized polygon, its interior is decomposed into convex parts. The function returns a list of polygons that form the convex decomposition of GPs interior.

### • Minkowski Sums

Please note that the Minkowski sums only work reliable for the rational kernel.

gen polygon MINKOWSKLSUM(const polygon & P, const polygon & R) computes the Minkowski sum of P and R.

gen polygon MINKOWSKLDIFF(const polygon & P, const polygon & R) computes the Minkowski difference of  $P$  and  $R$ , i.e. the Minkowski sum of P and  $R$ *reflect*(point(0,0)).

gen polygon MINKOWSKLSUM(const gen polygon & P, const polygon & R) computes the Minkowski sum of P and R.

 $gen\_polygon$  MINKOWSKLDIFF(const gen\_polygon& P, const polygon& R) computes the Minkowski difference of  $P$  and  $R$ , i.e. the Minkowski sum of P and  $R$ .reflect(point(0,0)).

The following variants of the MINKOWSKI functions take two additional call-back function arguments *conv\_partition* and *conv\_unite* which are used by the algorithm to partition the input polygons into convex parts and for computing the union of a list of convex polygons, respectively (instead of using the default methods).

gen polygon MINKOWSKLSUM(const polygon & P, const polygon & R, void  $(*conv\_partition)(const$  gen\_polygon& p, const polygon & r, list  $\lt{polyqon} \& lp$ ,  $list$  >  $opolygon$  >  $\&$   $lr$ ),  $gen\_polyqon$  (\* $conv\_unite$ )(const list<gen\_polygon>&))

gen polygon MINKOWSKLDIFF(const polygon & P, const polygon & R, void  $(*conv-partition)(const qen-polyqon \& p,$ const polygon & r, list  $\lt{polygon} \& lp$ ,  $list$ > $\lt{polyqon}$  $\ltimes$   $lr$ ),  $gen\_polyqon$   $(*conv\_unite)(const$  list $\leq gen\_polyqon \geq k)$ 

gen polygon MINKOWSKLSUM(const gen polygon& P, const polygon& R, void  $(*conv\_partition)(const$  gen polygon & p, const polygon & r, list  $\lt{polygon} \& lp$ ,  $list$ > $\leq$   $polyqon$ > $\&$   $lr$ ), qen\_polygon  $(*conv\_unite)(const$  list<gen\_polygon>& ))

gen polygon MINKOWSKLDIFF(const gen polygon  $\& R$ , const polygon  $\& R$ , void  $(*conv-partition)(const qen-polyqon \& p,$ const polygon & r, list  $\lt{polyqon} \& lp$ ,  $list$  >  $oplyqon$  >  $\&$  lr  $),$  $gen\_polygon$  (\* $conv\_unite$ )(const list<gen\_polygon>&))

### • Euclidean Spanning Trees

void MIN SPANNING TREE(const list<point>& L, GRAPH <point, int>& T) computes the Euclidian minimum spanning tree  $T$  of the points in  $L$ .

### • Triangulation Checker

bool Is.Convex.Subdivision(const  $GRAPH$ <point, int>& G)

returns true if G is a convex planar subdivision.

bool Is Triangulation(*const GRAPH* <point,  $int \& G$ )

returns true if G is convex planar subdivision in which every bounded face is a triangle or if all nodes of G lie on a common line.

 $bool$  Is Delaunay Triangulation(const GRAPH <point, int \& G,  $delaunay_voronoi_kind$  kind)

> checks whether G is a nearest  $(kind = NEAREST)$  or furthest  $(kind = FURTHEST)$  site Delaunay triangulation of its vertex set. G is a Delaunay triangulation iff it is a triangulation and all triangles have the Delaunay property. A triangle has the Delaunay property if no vertex of an adjacent triangle is contained in the interior  $(kind = NEAREST)$ or exterior  $(kind = FURTHEST)$  of the triangle.

bool Is Delaunay Diagram(const  $GRAPH \leq point$ , int $\& G$ , delaunay voronoi kind) checks whether G is a nearest (kind = NEAREST) or furthest (kind =  $FURTHEST$ ) site Delaunay diagram of its vertex set. G is a Delaunay diagram if it is a convex subdivision, if the vertices of any bounded face are co-circular, and if every triangulation of  $G$  is a Delaunay triangulation.

### • Voronoi Diagrams

void VORONOI(const list <point>& L, GRAPH <circle, point>& VD)

VORONOI takes as input a list of points (sites) L. It computes a directed graph  $VD$  representing the planar subdivision defined by the Voronoi diagram of L. For each node v of  $VD$   $G[v]$  is the corresponding Voronoi vertex (*point*) and for each edge  $e G[e]$  is the site (*point*) whose Voronoi region is bounded by e. The algorithm has running time  $O(n^2)$  in the worst case and  $O(n \log n)$  with high probability, where n is the number of sites.

void  $\text{F-VORONOI}(const$  list $\text{Ypoint}\&L, \text{GRAPH} \text{X} circle, point \&FVD)$ 

computes the farthest point Voronoi Diagram FVD of the points in L.

circle LARGEST\_EMPTY\_CIRCLE(const list<point>& L)

computes a largest circle whose center lies inside the convex hull of L that contains no point of  $L$  in its interior. Returns the trivial circle if  $L$ is empty.

circle SMALLEST\_ENCLOSING\_CIRCLE(const list<point>& L)

computes a smallest circle containing all points of L in its interior.

void ALLEMPTY\_CIRCLES(const list<point> & L, list<circle > & CL)

computes the list CL of all empty circles passing through three or more points of L.

void ALLENCLOSING CIRCLES(const list <point>  $\& L$ , list <circle >  $\& CL$ )

computes the list CL of all enclosing circles passing through three or more points of L.

An annulus is either the region between two concentric circles or the region between two parallel lines.

### bool MIN\_AREA\_ANNULUS(const list < point>& L, point& center, point& ipoint, point  $\&$  opoint, line  $\&$  11)

computes the minimum area annulus containing the points of L. The function returns false if all points in  $L$  are collinear and returns true otherwise. In the former case a line passing through the points in  $L$  is returned in l1 , and in the latter case the annulus is returned by its center and a point on the inner and the outer circle, respectively.

## bool MIN\_WIDTH\_ANNULUS(const list<point>& L, point& center, point& ipoint, point  $\&$  opoint, line  $\&$  11, line  $\&$  12)

computes the minimum width annulus containing the points of L. The function returns false if the minimum width annulus is a stripe and returns true otherwise. In the former case the boundaries of the stripes are returned in  $l1$  and  $l2$  and in the latter case the annulus is returned by its center and a point on the inner and the outer circle, respectively.

void CRUST(const list<point>  $\&$  L0, GRAPH <point, int>  $\&$  G)

takes a list  $L\theta$  of points and traces to guess the curve(s) from which  $L\theta$ are sampled. The algorithm is due to Amenta, Bern, and Eppstein. The algorithm is guaranteed to succeed if  $L\theta$  is a sufficiently dense sample from a smooth closed curve.

bool Is Voronoi Diagram(const GRAPH < circle, point>& G, delaunay voronoi kind) checks whether G represents a nearest  $(kind = NEAREST)$  or furthest  $(kind = FURTHEST)$  site Voronoi diagram.

> Voronoi diagrams of point sites are represented as planar maps as follows: There is a vertex for each vertex of the Voronoi diagram and, in addition, a vertex "at infinity" for each ray of the Voronoi diagram. Vertices at infinity have degree one. The edges of the graph correspond to the edges of the Voronoi diagram. The chapter on Voronoi diagrams of the LEDAbook [66] contains more details. Each edge is labeled with the site (class POINT) owning the region to its left and each vertex is labeled with a triple of points ( $=$  the three defining points of a *CIRCLE*). For a "finite" vertex the three points are any three sites associated with regions incident to the vertex (and hence the center of the circle is the position of the vertex in the plane) and for a vertex at infinity the three points are collinear and the first point and the third point of the triple are the sites whose regions are incident to the vertex at infinity. Let  $a$  and  $c$  be the first and third point of the triple respectively;  $a$  and  $c$  encode the geometric position of the vertex at infinity as follows: the vertex lies on the perpendicular bisector of  $a$  and  $c$  and to the left of the segment  $ac$ .

### • Line Segment Intersection

#### void SEGMENT INTERSECTION(const list<seqment>& S,

### $GRAPH$ <point, seqment>& G, bool embed = false)

takes a list of segments  $S$  as input and computes the planar graph  $G$ induced by the set of straight line segments in S. The nodes of G are all endpoints and all proper intersection points of segments in S. The edges of G are the maximal relatively open subsegments of segments in S that contain no node of G. The edges are directed as the corresponding segments. If the flag *embed* is true, the corresponding planar map is computed. Note that for each edge e  $G[e]$  is the input segment that contains e (see the LEDA book for details).

void SWEEP SEGMENTS(const list <segment>& S, GRAPH <point, segment>& G, bool embed = false, bool use\_optimization =  $true$ )

as above.

The algorithm ([12]) runs in time  $O((n + s) \log n) + m$ , where *n* is the number of segments, s is the number of vertices of the graph  $G$ , and m is the number of edges of  $G$ . If  $S$  contains no overlapping segments then  $m = O(n+s)$ . If embed is true the running time increases by  $O(m \log m)$ . If use *optimization* is true an optimization described in the LEDA book is used.

### void MULMULEY\_SEGMENTS(const list<seqment>& S,

### $GRAPH$ <point, seqment>& G, bool embed = false)

as above.

There is one additional output convention. If G is an undirected graph, the undirected planar map corresponding to  $G(s)$  is computed. The computation follows the incremental algorithm of Mulmuley ([70]) whose expected running time is  $O(M + s + n \log n)$ , where *n* is the number of segments, s is the number of vertices of the graph  $G$ , and  $m$  is the number of edges.

void SEGMENT INTERSECTION(const list<seqment>& S,

void  $(*report)(const segment \& , const segment \& )$ 

takes a list of segments S as input and executes for every pair  $(s_1, s_2)$  of intersecting segments report $(s_1, s_2)$ . The algorithm ([7]) has running time  $O(nlog^2 n + k)$ , where *n* is the number of segments and k is the number intersecting pairs of segments.

void SEGMENT INTERSECTION(const list <seqment>& S, list <point>& P)

takes a list of segments  $S$  as input, computes the set of (proper) intersection points between all segments in  $S$  and stores this set in  $P$ . The algorithm ([12]) has running time  $O((|P|+|S|)\log |S|)$ .

### • Red-Blue Line Segment Intersection

```
void SEGMENT INTERSECTION(const list<segment>& S1, const list<segment>& S2,
                   GRAPH<point, segment>& G, bool embed = false)
```
takes two lists of segments  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  as input and computes the planar graph G induced by the set of straight line segments in  $S_1 \cup S_2$  (as defined above). Precondition: Any pair of segments in  $S_1$  or  $S_2$ , respectively, does not intersect in a point different from one of the endpoints of the segments, i.e. segments of  $S_1$  or  $S_2$  are either pairwise disjoint or have a common endpoint.

### • Closest Pairs

double CLOSEST\_PAIR(list<point>& L, point& r1, point& r2)

 $CLOSEST\_PAIR$  takes as input a list of points L. It computes a pair of points  $r1, r2 \in L$  with minimal Euclidean distance and returns the squared distance between r1 and r2. The algorithm ([78]) has running time  $O(n \log n)$  where *n* is the number of input points.

### • Miscellaneous Functions

- void Bounding Box(const list<point>  $\& L$ , point $\& pl$ , point $\& ph$ , point $\& pr$ , point $\& pt$ ) computes four points  $pl, pb, pr, pt$  from L such that  $(xleft, ybot, xright, ytop)$  with  $xleft = pl.xcoord( )$ ,  $ybot = pb.ycoord( )$ ,  $xright = pr.xcoord()$  and  $ytop = pt.ycoord()$  is the smallest isooriented rectangle containing all points of L. Precondition: L is not empty.
- bool Is Simple Polygon(const list <point>  $\& L$ )

takes as input a list of points  $L$  and returns  $true$  if  $L$  is the vertex sequence of a simple polygon and false otherwise. The algorithms has running time  $O(n \log n)$ , where *n* is the number of points in L.

node Nesting Tree(const gen polygon & P, GRAPH <polygon,  $int \& T$ )

The nesting tree  $T$  of a generalized polygon  $P$  is defined as follows. Every node v in T is labelled with a polygon  $T[v]$  from the boundary representation of P, except for root r of T which is labelled with the empty polygon. The root symbolizes the whole two-dimensional plane. There is an edge  $(u, v)$  (with  $u \neq r$ ) in T iff the bounded region of  $T[v]$  is directly nested in  $T[u]$ . The term "directly means that there is no node w different from u and v such that  $T[v]$  is nested in  $T[w]$  and  $T[w]$  is nested in  $T[u]$ . And there is an edge  $(r, v)$  iff  $T[v]$  is not nested in any other polygon of P. The function computes the nesting tree of P and returns its root. (The running time of the function depends on the order of the polygons in the boundary representation of P. The closer directly nested polygons are, the better.)

### • Properties of Geometric Graphs

We give procedures to check properties of geometric graph. We give procedures to verify properties of geometric graph. A geometric graph is a straight-line embedded map. Every node is mapped to a point in the plane and every dart is mapped to the line segment connecting its endpoints.

We use *geo-graph* as a template parameter for geometric graph. Any instantiation of geo graph must provide a function

VECTOR edge\_vector(const geo\_graph&  $G$ , const edge& e)

that returns a vector from the source to the target of  $e$ . In order to use any of these template functions the file /LEDA/geo/generic/geo check.h must be included.

template  $\langle \text{class geo\_graph} \rangle$ bool Is CCW Ordered(const geo graph  $\& G$ )

> returns true if for all nodes  $v$  the neighbors of  $v$  are in increasing counter-clockwise order around v.

- template  $\langle \text{class geo\_graph} \rangle$
- $bool$  Is CCW Weakly Ordered(const geo graph  $\& G$ )

returns true if for all nodes  $v$  the neighbors of  $v$  are in non-decreasing counter-clockwise order around v.

template  $\langle \text{class geo\_graph} \rangle$ 

 $bool$  Is CCW Ordered Plane Map(const geo graph  $\& G$ )

Equivalent to Is\_Plane\_Map(G) and Is\_CCW\_Ordered(G).

template  $\langle \text{class geo\_graph} \rangle$ 

bool Is CCW Weakly Ordered Plane Map(const geo graph& G)

Equivalent to  $Is\_Plane\_Map(G)$  and  $Is\_CCW\_Weakly\_Ordered(G)$ .

template  $\langle \text{class geo\_graph} \rangle$ 

void SORT EDGES(geo graph & G)

Reorders the edges of G such that for every node v the edges in  $A(v)$ are in non-decreasing order by angle.

template  $\langle class\ q e$ <sub>qco</sub> $\gamma$ <sub>n</sub> $\rangle$ 

bool Is CCW Convex Face Cycle(const geo graph  $G$ , const edge $\&$ e)

returns true if the face cycle of G containing e defines a counterclockwise convex polygon, i.e, if the face cycle forms a cyclically increasing sequence of edges according to the compare-by-angles ordering.

template  $\langle \text{class geo\_graph} \rangle$ 

bool Is CCW Weakly Convex Face Cycle(const geo graph & G, const edge  $\& e$ )

returns true if the face cycle of G containing e defines a counterclockwise weakly convex polygon, i.e, if the face cycle forms a cyclically non-decreasing sequence of edges according to the compare-by-angles ordering.

template  $\langle \textit{class geo-graph} \rangle$ 

bool Is CW Convex Face Cycle(const geo graph  $G$ , const edge $\&$ e)

returns true if the face cycle of G containing e defines a clockwise convex polygon, i.e, if the face cycle forms a cyclically decreasing sequence of edges according to the compare-by-angles ordering.

template  $\langle \text{class geo\_graph} \rangle$ 

bool Is CW Weakly Convex Face Cycle (const geo graph  $G$ , const edge  $\& e$ )

returns true if the face cycle of G containing e defines a clockwise weakly convex polygon, i.e, if the face cycle forms a cyclically non-increasing sequence of edges according to the compare-by-angles ordering.

## 12.25 Transformation ( TRANSFORM )

### 1. Definition

There are three instantiations of TRANSFORM: transform (floating point kernel), rat transform (rational kernel) and real transform (real kernel). The respective header file name corresponds to the type name (with ".h" appended).

An instance T of type TRANSFORM is an affine transformation of two-dimensional space. It is given by a  $3 \times 3$  matrix T with  $T_{2,0} = T_{2,1} = 0$  and  $T_{2,2} \neq 0$  and maps the point p with homogeneous coordinate vector  $(p_x, p_y, p_w)$  to the point  $T \cdot p$ .

A matrix of the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc} w & 0 & x \\ 0 & w & y \\ 0 & 0 & w \end{array}\right)
$$

realizes an translation by the vector  $(x/w, y/w)$  and a matrix of the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}a&-b&0\\b&a&0\\0&0&w\end{array}\right)
$$

where  $a^2 + b^2 = w^2$  realizes a rotation by the angle  $\alpha$  about the origin, where  $\cos \alpha = a/w$ and  $\sin \alpha = b/w$ . Rotations are in counter-clockwise direction.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/generic/TRANSFORM.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

TRANSFORM T; creates a variable introduces a variable T of type TRANSFORM. T is initialized with the identity transformation.

 $TRANSFORM$   $T(const INT\_MATRIX t);$ 

introduces a variable  $T$  of type  $TRANSFORM$ .  $T$  is initialized with the matrix t. Precondition: t is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix with  $t_{2,0} = t_1, t_2 = 0$  and  $t_{2,2} \neq 0$ .

### 3. Operations



TRANSFORM T(const TRANSFORM & T1)

returns the transformation  $T \circ T1$ .

POINT  $T(\text{const}$  POINT  $\&$  p) returns  $T(p)$ .

VECTOR  $T(const \, VECTOR \& v)$ 

returns  $T(v)$ .

 $SEGMENT$   $T(const$   $SEGMENT\& s)$ 

returns  $T(s)$ .

LINE  $T(const \text{ LINE& } l)$  returns  $T(l)$ .

RAY  $T(const \, RAY \& r)$  returns  $T(r)$ .

 $CIRCLE$   $T(const \ CIRCLE\& C)$ 

returns  $T(C)$ .

 $POLYGON$   $T(const$   $POLYGON& P)$ 

returns  $T(P)$ .

 $GEN\_POLYGON$   $T(const \text{ GEN\_POLYGON}$   $P)$ returns  $T(P)$ .

### Non-member Functions

In any of the function below a point can be specified to the origin by replacing it by an anonymous object of type POINT, e.g.,  $rotation90 (POINT($  ) will generate a rotation about the origin.

 $TRANSFORM$  translation(const INT\_TYPE& dx, const INT\_TYPE& dy,  $const$  INT\_TYPE & dw) returns the translation by the vector  $(dx/dw, dy/dw)$ .  $TRANSFORM$  translation(*const RAT\_TYPE& dx, const RAT\_TYPE& dy*) returns the translation by the vector  $(dx, dy)$ . TRANSFORM translation(const VECTOR& v) returns the translation by the vector v. TRANSFORM rotation(const POINT& q, double alpha, double eps) returns the rotation about q by an angle  $alpha \pm eps$ . TRANSFORM rotation90(const POINT& q) returns the rotation about  $q$  by an angle of 90 degrees. 438 CHAPTER 12. BASIC DATA TYPES FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRY

TRANSFORM reflection(const POINT& q, const POINT& r)

returns the reflection across the straight line passing through  $q$  and  $r$ .

TRANSFORM reflection(const POINT& q)

returns the reflection across point q.

## 12.26 Point Generators ( point generators )

All generators are available for *point*, *rat\_point*, *real\_point*, *d3\_point*, and *d3\_rat\_point*. We use *POINT* to stand for any of these classes. The corresponding header files are called random point.h, random rat point.h, random real point.h, random d3 point.h, and random d3 rat point.h, respectively. These header files are included in the corresponding kernel header files, e.g., random rat point.h is part of rat kernel.h.

We use the following naming conventions: square, circle, segment, and disk refer to twodimensional objects (even in 3d) and cube, ball, and sphere refer to full-dimensional objects, i.e, in 2d cube and square, ball and disk, and circle and sphere are synonymous.







Wit the rational kernel the functions  $\text{ion\_circle}$  are guaranteed to produce points that lie precisely on the specified circle. With the floating point kernel the functions are equivalent to the *near circle* functions.





# 12.27 Point on Rational Circle ( r circle point )

## 1. Definition

An instance p of type r circle point is a point in the two-dimensional plane that can be obtained by intersecting a rational circle c and a rational line  $l$  (cf. Sections 12.14 and 12.13). Note that c and l may intersect in two points  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ . Assume that we order these intersections along the (directed) line  $l$ . Then  $p$  is uniquely determined by a triple  $(c, l, which)$ , where which is either first or second. Observe that the coordinates of p are in general non-rational numbers (because their computation involves square roots). Therefore the class r circle point is derived from real point (see Section 12.17), which means that all operations of *real point* are available.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/r\_circle\_point.h>$ 

## 2. Types

 $r\_circle\_point::tag \{ first, second \}$ 

used for selecting between the two possible intersections of a circle and a line.

### 3. Creation

r circle point p; creates an instance p initialized to the point  $(0,0)$ .

 $r\_circle\_point$  p(const rat\_point & rat\_pnt);

creates an instance  $p$  initialized to the rational point  $rat\_pnt$ .

 $r\_circle\_point$   $p(const$  point  $x$  pnt);

creates an instance  $p$  initialized to the point  $pnt$ .

r\_circle\_point  $p(\text{const rate} \& c, \text{const rate} \& l, \text{tag which});$ 

creates an instance  $p$  initialized to the point determined by  $(c, l, which)$  (see above).

r\_circle\_point p(const real\_point  $x$  rp, const rat\_circle  $x$  c, const rat\_line  $x$  l, tag which); creates an instance p initialized to the real point rp. *Precondition: rp* is the point described by  $(c, l, which)$ .

## 4. Operations





# 12.28 Segment of Rational Circle ( r circle segment )

### 1. Definition

An instance cs of type r circle segment is a segment of a rational circle (see Section 12.14), i.e. a circular arc. A segment is called trivial if it consists of a single point. A non-trivial instance cs is defined by two points s and t (of type  $r\_circle\_point$ ) and an oriented circle c (of type rat circle) such that c contains both s and t. We call s and t the source and the target of cs, and c is called its supporting circle. We want to point out that the circle may be a line, which means that  $cs$  is a straight line segment. An instance  $cs$  is called degenerate, if it is trivial or a straight line segment.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/r\_circle\_segment.h >$ 

### 2. Creation



 $r\_circle\_segment$  cs(const rat\_circle& c); creates an instance cs which is equal to the full circle c. Precondition: c is not degenerate.

 $r\_circle\_segment$   $cs(const$   $rat\_point \& src, const$   $rat\_point \& td);$ creates an instance cs which is equal to the straight line segment from src to tgt.

 $r\_circle\_segment$  cs(const rat\_segment & s); creates an instance cs which is equal to the straight line segment s.

 $r\_circle\_segment$   $cs(const$   $r\_circle\_point\& src, const$   $r\_circle\_point\& tg);$ creates an instance cs which is equal to the straight line segment from src to tqt. Precondition: Both src and tgt are rat\_points.

### 3. Operations







 $list \leq rate \leq result \leq c \leq a$  proximate by rat segments (*double dist*)

approximates cs by a chain of rat segments. The maximum distance from a point on cs to the chain is bounded by dist.

bool equal as sets (*const r\_circle\_segment & cs1*, *const r\_circle\_segment & cs2*) returns whether cs1 and cs2 describe the same set of points. int compare tangent slopes (const r circle sequent & cs1,  $const$  r\_circle\_segment & cs2, const r\_circle\_point  $\& p$ ) compares the slopes of the tangents to cs1 and cs2 in the point p. Precondition: cs1 and cs2 contain p.

We provide the operator  $\leq$  to display an instance cs of type r circle segment in a window and the operator  $\gg$  for reading cs from a window (see real window.h).

void SWEEP\_SEGMENTS(const list<r\_circle\_seqment>& L,

 $GRAPH \leq r\_circle\_point, r\_circle\_segment \geq \& G,$ 

 $bool$  embed  $= true$ )

takes as input a list  $L$  of  $r\_circle\_segments$  and computes the planar graph G induced by the segments in L. The nodes of G are all endpoints and all proper intersection points of segments in  $L$ . The edges of  $G$ are the maximal relatively open subsegments of segments in  $L$  that contain no node of  $G$ . The edges are directed as the corresponding segments, if embed is false. Otherwise, the corresponding planar map is computed. Note that for each edge  $e \ G[e]$  is the input segment containing e.

The algorithm (a variant of [12]) runs in time  $O((n +$ s)  $\log n + m$ , where *n* is the number of segments, *s* is the number of vertices of the graph  $G$ , and  $m$  is the number of edges of  $G$ . If  $L$  contains no overlapping segments then  $m = O(n + s)$ .

# 12.29 Polygons with circular edges ( r circle polygon )

### 1. Definition

An instance P of the data type  $r\_circle\_polygon$  is a cyclic list of  $r\_circle\_segments$ , i.e. straight line or circular segments. A polygon is called simple if all nodes of the graph induced by its segments have degree two and it is called weakly simple, if its segments are disjoint except for common endpoints and if the chain does not cross itself. See the LEDA book for details.

A weakly simple polygon splits the plane into an unbounded region and one or more bounded regions. For a simple polygon there is just one bounded region. When a weakly simple polygon  $P$  is traversed either the bounded region is consistently to the left of  $P$  or the unbounded region is consistently to the left of  $P$ . We say that  $P$  is positively oriented in the former case and negatively oriented in the latter case. We use  $P$  to also denote the region to the left of P and call this region the positive side of P.

The number of segments is called the *size* of P. A polygon of size zero is *trivial*; it either describes the empty set or the full two-dimensional plane.

 $\#include \le EDA/geo/r\_circle\_polygon.h>$ 

### 2. Types

 $r\_circle\_polygon :: coord\_type$ 

the coordinate type (real).

 $r\_circle\_polygon::point\_type$ 

the point type  $(r\_circle\_point)$ .

 $r\_circle\_polygon::segment\_type$ 

the segment type  $(r\_circle\_segment)$ .

r\_circle\_polygon:: KIND { EMPTY, FULL, NON\_TRIVIAL }

describes the kind of the polygon: the empty set, the full plane or a non-trivial polygon.

r circle polygon :: CHECK TYPE { NO CHECK, SIMPLE, WEAKLY SIMPLE, NOT WEAKLY SIMPLE }

> used to specify which checks should be applied and also describes the outcome of a simplicity check.

r circle polygon :: RESPECT TYPE { DISREGARD ORIENTATION, RESPECT ORIENTATION }

> used in contructors to specify whether to force a positive orientation for the constructed object (*DISREGARD\_ORIENTATION*) or to keep the orientation of the input (*RESPECT\_ORIENTATION*).

### 3. Creation

 $r\_circle\_polyqon$   $P$ ; creates an empty polygon  $P$ .

 $r\_circle\_polygon$   $P(KIND \; k);$ 

creates a polygon  $P$  of kind  $k$ , where  $k$  is either  $EMPTY$  or  $FULL$ .

 $r\_circle\_polyqon$   $P(const$  list $\langle r\_circle\_segment \rangle \& chain,$  $CHECK_TYPE$  check = WEAKLY\_SIMPLE,  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orient =  $RESPECT\_ORIENTATION);$ creates a polygon P from a closed chain of segments.

- r\_circle\_polygon  $P($ const list<rrat\_point>& L,  $CHECK_TYPE$  check = WEAKLY\_SIMPLE,  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orient =  $RESPECT\_ORIENTATION);$ creates a polygon P with straight line edges from a list L of vertices.
- r circle polygon  $P$ (const rat polygon  $Q$ , CHECK TYPE check = NO CHECK,  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orient =  $RESPECT\_ORIENTATION);$ converts a rat polygon  $Q$  to an r circle polygon  $P$ .
- r\_circle\_polygon  $P(\text{const polynomial } Q, \text{CHECK\_TYPE check } = \text{NO\_CHECK},$  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orient =  $RESPECT\_ORIENTATION$ , int prec  $= rat\_point::default\_precision);$ converts the (floating point) polygon  $Q$  to an r circle polygon. P is initialized to a rational approximation of Q of coordinates with denominator at most *prec*. If *prec* is zero, the implementation chooses prec large enough such that there is no loss of precision in the conversion.

 $r\_circle\_polyqon$   $P(const$   $rat\_circle \& circ,$  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orient =  $RESPECT\_ORIENTATION);$ creates a polygon  $P$  whose boundary is the circle *circ*.

### 4. Operations









454 CHAPTER 12. BASIC DATA TYPES FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRY

## All functions below assume that  $P$  is weakly simple.





to P is at most d. Then the function returns  $P \cup T$ . For  $d < 0$  let T denote the set of all points in P whose distance to the complement is less than  $|d|$ . Then the result is  $P \setminus T$ . Note that the result is a generalized polygon since the buffer of a connected polygon may be disconnected, i.e. consist of several parts, if  $d < 0$ .

### Iterations Macros

forall vertices  $(v, P)$  { "the vertices of P are successively assigned to r circle point v" }

**forall segments** $(s, P)$  { "the edges of P are successively assigned to the segment s" }

# 12.30 Generalized polygons with circular edges ( r circle gen polygon )

## 1. Definition

The data type r circle polygon is not closed under boolean operations, e.g., the set difference of a polygon  $P$  and a polygon  $Q$  nested in  $P$  is a region that contains a "hole". Therefore we provide a generalization called  $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$  which is closed under (regularized) boolean operations (see below).

A formal definition follows: An instance  $P$  of the data type r circle gen polygon is a regular polygonal region in the plane. A regular region is an open set that is equal to the interior of its closure. A region is polygonal if its boundary consists of a finite number of r circle segments.

The boundary of an r circle gen polygon consists of zero or more weakly simple closed polygonal chains. Each such chain is represented by an object of type  $r\_circle\_plogqon$ . There are two regions whose boundary is empty, namely the *empty region* and the full region. The full region encompasses the entire plane. We call a region *trivial* if its boundary is empty. The boundary cycles  $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_k$  of an r-circle-gen-polygon are ordered such that no  $P_i$  is nested in a  $P_j$  with  $i < j$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/r\_circle\_gen\_polygon.h$ 

## 2. Types

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon::coord\_type$ 

the coordinate type (real).

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon::point\_type$ 

the point type  $(r\_circle\_point)$ .

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon::segment\_type$ 

the segment type  $(r\_circle\_segment)$ .

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon::polygon\_type$ 

the polygon type  $(r\_circle\_polyqon)$ .

r\_circle\_gen\_polygon::KIND { EMPTY, FULL, NON\_TRIVIAL }

describes the kind of the polygon: the empty set, the full plane or a non-trivial polygon.

r circle gen polygon ::CHECK TYPE { NO CHECK, SIMPLE, WEAKLY SIMPLE, NOT WEAKLY SIMPLE }

> used to specify which checks should be applied and also describes the outcome of a simplicity check.

r circle gen polygon :: RESPECT TYPE { DISREGARD ORIENTATION, RESPECT ORIENTATION }

> used in contructors to specify whether to force a positive orientation for the constructed object (DISREGARD ORIENTATION) or to keep the orientation of the input (RESPECT\_ORIENTATION).

### 3. Creation



 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$   $P(const~rat\_gen\_polygon \& Q,$  $CHECK_TYPE$  check = NO\_CHECK,  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orient  $=$ RESPECT ORIENTATION ); converts a rat gen polygon  $Q$  to an r circle gen polygon  $P$ .

r\_circle\_gen\_polygon  $P(\text{const gen\_polygon\& }Q, \text{CHECK\_TYPE} \text{ check } = \text{NO\_CHECK},$  $RESPECT_TYPE$  respect\_orient  $=$ RESPECT ORIENTATION , int prec  $= rat\_point::default\_precision);$ converts the (floating point) gen polygon  $Q$  to an r circle gen polygon. P is initialized to a rational approximation of Q of coordinates with denominator at most prec. If prec is zero, the implementation chooses prec large enough such that there is no loss of precision in the conversion.

r\_circle\_gen\_polygon  $P(const \text{ rat\_circle} \& circ, RESPECT\_TYPE$  respect\_orient = RESPECT ORIENTATION ); creates a polygon  $P$  whose boundary is the circle *circ*.

### 4. Operations








# All functions below assume that  $\boldsymbol{P}$  is weakly simple.



double P.approximate.area()

approximates the (oriented) area of the bounded region of P. Precondition: P.kind( ) is not full.

All boolean operations are regularized, i.e., the result R of the standard boolean operation is replaced by the interior of the closure of R. We use reg  $X$  to denote the regularization of a set  $X$ .

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$  P.unite(const  $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon \& Q$ ) returns reg( $P \cup Q$ ).

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$  P.intersection(const  $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon \& Q$ ) returns reg( $P \cap Q$ ).

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$   $P \cdot diff(const \ r\_circle\_gen\_polygon \& Q)$ returns reg $(P \setminus Q)$ .

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$   $P.\text{sym-diff}(const \ r\_circle\_gen\_polygon \& Q)$ returns reg $((P \cup Q) - (P \cap Q)).$ 

For optimization purposes we provide a union operation of arbitrary arity. It computes the union of a set of polygons much faster than with binary operations.

r\_circle\_gen\_polygon r\_circle\_gen\_polygon :: unite(const list<rcircle\_gen\_polygon>& L) returns the (regularized) union of all polygons in L.

We offer fast versions of the boolean operations which compute an approximate result. These operations work as follows: every curved segment is approximated by straight line segments, then the respective boolean operation is performed on the straight polygons. Finally, we identify those straight segments in the result that originate from a curved segment and replace them by curved segments again. (We denote the approximate computation of an operation *op* scheme by appr $(op)$ . ) Every operation below takes a parameter dist that controls the accuracy of the approximation: dist is an upper bound on the distance of any point on an original polygon  $P$  to the approximated polygon  $P'$ .

r circle gen polygon P unite approximate (const r circle gen polygon & Q, double dist =  $1e-2$ ) returns appr $(P \cup Q)$ .

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polyqon$  P.intersection approximate  $const$  r  $\_circle\_gen\_polyqon \& Q$ , double dist =  $1e-2$ ) returns appr $(P \cap Q)$ .

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$  P.diff approximate  $const$   $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon \& Q$ , double dist =  $1e-2$ ) returns appr $(P \setminus Q)$ .

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$  P.sym diff approximate (const  $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon \& Q$ , double dist =  $1e-2$ ) returns appr $((P \cup Q) - (P \cap Q)).$ 

r circle gen polygon r circle gen polygon :: unite approximate(const list<r circle gen polygon>& L, double dist =  $1e-2$ )

returns the (approximated) union of all polygons in

L.

 $r\_circle\_gen\_polygon$  P.buffer(double d)

adds an exterior buffer zone to  $P(d > 0)$ , or removes an interior buffer zone from  $P(d < 0)$ . More precisely, for  $d \geq 0$  define the buffer tube T as the set of all points in the complement of  $P$  whose distance to  $P$ is at most d. Then the function returns  $P \cup T$ . For  $d < 0$  let T denote the set of all points in P whose distance to the complement is less than  $|d|$ . Then the result is  $P \setminus T$ .

#### Iterations Macros

**forall polygons** $(p, P)$  { "the boundary polygons of P are successively assigned to  $r\_circle\_polyqon p"$ 

# 12.31 Parser for well known binary format ( wkb io )

# 1. Definition

The class wkb io provides methods for reading and writing geometries in the well known binary format (wkb). Every non-trivial generalized polygon from LEDA can be written in wkb format. The method for reading supports the wkb types *Polygon* and *MultiPolygon*, i.e., those types that can be represented by the LEDA type gen-polygon.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/wkb.io.h>$ 

# 2. Creation

wkb io  $W$ ; creates an instance of type wkb io.



# Chapter 13

# Advanced Data Types for Two-Dimensional Geometry

# 13.1 Point Sets and Delaunay Triangulations ( POINT\_SET)

#### 1. Definition

There are three instantiations of *POINT\_SET*: *point\_set* (floating point kernel), rat point set (rational kernel) and real point set (real kernel). The respective header file name corresponds to the type name (with ".h" appended).

An instance T of data type *POINT\_SET* is a planar embedded bidirected graph (map) representing the *Delaunay Triangulation* of its vertex set. The position of a vertex  $v$  is given by  $T.pop(v)$  and we use  $S = \{T.pop(v) | v \in T\}$  to denote the underlying point set. Each face of  $T$  (except for the outer face) is a triangle whose circumscribing circle does not contain any point of  $S$  in its interior. For every edge  $e$ , the sequence

 $e, T$ .face\_cycle\_succ(e), T.face\_cycle\_succ(T.face\_cycle\_succ(e)),...

traces the boundary of the face to the left of e. The edges of the outer face of T form the convex hull of S; the trace of the convex hull is clockwise. The subgraph obtained from T by removing all diagonals of co-circular quadrilaterals is called the Delaunay Diagram of S.

POINT SET provides all *constant* graph operations, e.g., *T.reversal(e)* returns the reversal of edge e, T.all\_edges() returns the list of all edges of T, and  $for all$ -edges $(e, T)$ iterates over all edges of T. In addition, POINT SET provides operations for inserting and deleting points, point location, nearest neighbor searches, and navigation in both the triangulation and the diagram.

POINT SETs are essentially objects of type GRAPH <POINT, int>, where the node information is the position of the node and the edge information is irrelevant. For a graph G 466CHAPTER 13. ADVANCED DATA TYPES FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRY

of type  $GRAPH <$ POINT, int> the function Is Delaunay(G) tests whether G is a Delaunay triangulation of its vertices.

The data type *POINT\_SET* is illustrated by the *point\_set\_demo* in the LEDA demo directory.

Be aware that the nearest neighbor queries for a point (not for a node) and the range search queries for circles, triangles, and rectangles are non-const operations and modify the underlying graph. The set of nodes and edges is not changed; however, it is not guaranteed that the underlying Delaunay triangulation is unchanged.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/generic/POINT\_SET.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

POINT\_SET T; creates an empty POINT\_SET T. POINT\_SET  $T(const$  list<POINT>& S); creates a POINT SET T of the points in S. If S contains multiple occurrences of points only the last occurrence of each point is retained. POINT\_SET  $T$ (const GRAPH <POINT, int>& G); initializes  $T$  with a copy of  $G$ .

*Precondition: Is\_Delaunay(G)* is true.





 $edge$   $T.\text{locate}(POINT\ p, \ edge\ loc\_start = NULL)$ 

returns an edge  $e$  of  $T$  that contains  $p$  or that borders the face that contains p. In the former case, a hull dart is returned if  $p$  lies on the boundary of the convex hull. In the latter case we have T.*orientation* $(e, p) > 0$  except if all points of  $T$  are collinear and  $p$  lies on the induced line. In this case  $target(e)$  is visible from p. The function returns *nil* if  $T$  has no edge. The optional second argument is an edge of T, where the *locate* operation starts searching.

#### $edge$  T.locate(POINT p, const list <edge> & loc\_start)

returns  $locate(p, e)$  with e in loc\_start. If  $loc\_start$  is empty, we return  $locate(p, NULL)$ . The operation tries to choose a good starting edge for the *locate* operation from *loc\_start*. Precondition: All edges in *loc\_start* must be edges of T.

## $node$   $T.$ lookup( $POINT$  p, edge loc\_start =  $NULL$ )

if T contains a node v with  $pos(v) = p$  the result is v otherwise the result is *nil*. The optional second argument is an edge of  $T$ , where the *locate* operation starts searching p.

#### node  $T$ .lookup(*POINT p, const list*<edge> $\&$  loc\_start)

returns  $lookup(p, e)$  with e in loc\_start. If  $loc\_start$  is empty, we return  $lookup(p, NULL)$ . The operation tries to choose a good starting edge for the *lookup* operation from *loc\_start*. Precondition: All edges in *loc\_start* must be edges of T.



void  $T \text{.del}(PONT p)$  removes the node p, i.e., makes T a Delaunay triangulation for  $S \setminus p$ .





## Drawing Routines

The functions in this section were designed to support the drawing of Delaunay triangulations and Voronoi diagrams.

void T.draw\_nodes(void  $(*draw\_node)(const$  POINT&)) calls  $draw\_node(pos(v))$  for every node v of T. void T.draw edge(edge e, void (∗draw diagram edge)(const POINT& , const POINT& ), void (∗draw triang edge) (const POINT& , const POINT& ), void (∗draw hull dart) (const POINT& , const POINT& )) calls  $draw\_diagram\_edge(pos\_source(e), pos\_target(e)$  if e is a diagram dart, draw\_hull\_dart(pos\_source(e), pos\_target(e) if e is a hull dart, and  $draw\_triangle\_edge(pos\_source(e), pos\_target(e)$  if e is a non-diagram edge. void T.draw\_edges(void  $(*draw\_diagram\_edge)(const$  POINT&, const POINT&), void (∗draw triang edge) (const POINT& , const POINT& ), void (∗draw hull dart) (const POINT& , const POINT& )) calls the corresponding function for all edges of T. void T.draw\_edges(const list <edge>  $\& L$ , void (\*draw\_edge)(const POINT $\&$ ,  $const$   $POINT\&$ )) calls  $draw\_edge(pos\_source(e), pos\_target(e)$  for every edge  $e \in L$ . void T.draw\_voro\_edges(void  $(*draw\_edge)(const$  POINT&, const POINT&), void  $(*draw-ray)$  (const POINT & , const POINT & )) calls *draw\_edge* and *draw\_ray* for the edges of the Voronoi diagram. void T.draw\_hull(void  $(*draw\_poly)(const$  list<POINT>& )) calls *draw\_poly* with the list of vertices of the convex hull.

void T.draw\_voro(const GRAPH < CIRCLE, POINT>&, void  $(*draw-node)(const$  POINT&), void (∗draw edge)(const POINT& , const POINT& ), void  $(*draw_r\alpha y)$  (const POINT&, const POINT&)) calls ...

#### 4. Implementation

The main ingredients for the implementation are Delaunay flipping, segment walking, and plane sweep.

The constructor  $POMT\_{SET}(list *POINT* > S)$  first constructs a triangulation of S by sweeping and then makes the triangulation Delaunay by a sequence of Delaunay flips.

Locate walks through the triangulation along the segment from some fixed point of T to the query point. Insert first locates the point, then updates the triangulation locally, and finally performs flips to reestablish the Delaunay property. Delete deletes the node, retriangulates the resulting face, and then performs flips. Nearest neighbor searching, circular range queries, and triangular range queries insert the query point into the triangulation, then perform an appropriate graph search on the triangulation, and finally remove the query point.

All algorithms show good expected behavior.

For details we refer the reader to the LEDA implementation report "Point Sets and Dynamic Delaunay Triangulations".

# 13.2 Point Location in Triangulations ( POINT LOCATOR )

# 1. Definition

An instance  $PS$  of data type  $POINT\_LOCALOR$  is a data structure for efficient point location in triangulations.

There are three instantiations of *POINT\_LOCATOR*: *point\_locator* (floating point kernel), rat point locator (rational kernel) and real point locator (real kernel). The respective header file name corresponds to the type name (with ".h" appended).

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/generic/POINT\_LOCALOR.h >$ 

## 2. Creation



## 3. Operations

edge PS.locate(POINT q) returns an edge e of PS that contains q or that borders the face that contains  $q$ . In the former case, a hull edge is returned if  $q$  lies on the boundary of the convex hull. In the latter case we have *PS.orientation* $(e, q) > 0$  except if all points of  $PS$  are collinear and q lies on the induced line. In this case  $target(e)$  is visible from q. The operation returns nil if PS is empty.

bool PS.check locate(POINT q, edge e)

checks whether e could be the result of  $PS~locate(q)$ .

# 13.3 Sets of Intervals ( interval set )

#### 1. Definition

An instance S of the parameterized data type  $interval\_set<1>$  is a collection of items (is item). Every item in S contains a closed interval of the *double* numbers as key and an information from data type I, called the information type of S. The number of items in S is called the size of S. An interval set of size zero is said to be empty. We use  $\langle x, y, i \rangle$ to denote the item with interval  $[x, y]$  and information i; x  $(y)$  is called the left (right) boundary of the item. For each interval  $[x, y]$  there is at most one item  $\langle x, y, i \rangle \in S$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/interval\_set.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

interval set  $\leq S$ ; creates an instance S of type interval set  $\leq$  and initializes S to the empty set.





## 4. Implementation

Interval sets are implemented by two-dimensional range trees [92, 59]. Operations insert, lookup, del item and del take time  $O(\log^2 n)$ , intersection takes time  $O(k + \log^2 n)$ , where  $k$  is the size of the returned list. Operations left, right, inf, empty, and size take time  $O(1)$ , and clear  $O(n \log n)$ . Here *n* is always the current size of the interval set. The space requirement is  $O(n \log n)$ .

# 13.4 Planar Subdivisions ( subdivision )

#### 1. Definition

An instance S of the parameterized data type subdivision  $\leq I$  is a subdivision of the two-dimensional plane, i.e., an embedded planar graph with straight line edges (see also sections 9.6 and 9.7). With each node v of S is associated a point, called the position of v and with each face of S is associated an information from data type I, called the information type of S.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/subdivision.h >$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $subdivision < I > S(GRAPH < point, I > \& G);$ 

creates an instance S of type subdivision<I> and initializes it to the subdivision represented by the parameterized directed graph G. The node entries of G (of type point) define the positions of the corresponding nodes of  $S$ . Every face  $f$  of  $S$  is assigned the information of one of its bounding edges in G.

Precondition: G represents a planar subdivision, i.e., a straight line embedded planar map.

#### 3. Operations



#### 4. Implementation

Planar subdivisions are implemented by parameterized planar maps and an additional data structure for point location based on partially persistent search trees[26]. Operations position and inf take constant time, a locate point operation takes (expected) time  $O(\log n)$ . Here *n* is the number of nodes. The space requirement is  $O(n + m)$  and the initialization time is  $O(n + m \log m)$ , where m is the number of edges in the map.

CHAPTER 13. ADVANCED DATA TYPES FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRY

# Chapter 14

# Basic Data Types for Three-Dimensional Geometry

# 14.1 Points in 3D-Space (d3\_point)

# 1. Definition

An instance of the data type  $d\mathcal{S}_i$ -point is a point in the three-dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We use  $(x, y, z)$  to denote a point with first (or x-) coordinate x, second (or y-) coordinate y, and third (or  $z$ -) coordinate  $z$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3\_point.h>$ 

# 2. Creation

 $d3$ -point p; introduces a variable p of type  $d3$ -point initialized to the point  $(0, 0, 0).$ 

 $d3$ -point p(double x, double y, double z);

introduces a variable  $p$  of type  $d3$ -point initialized to the point  $(x, y, z)$ .

 $d3$ -point p(vector v);

introduces a variable  $p$  of type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -point initialized to the point  $(v[0], v[1], v[2]).$ Precondition:  $v.dim() = 3$ .





istream& istream&  $I \gg d3$ -point& p reads the coordinates of  $p$  (three *double* numbers) from input stream I.

# Non-Member Functions







# 14.2 Straight Rays in 3D-Space (d3\_ray)

## 1. Definition

An instance r of the data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -ray is a directed straight ray in three-dimensional space.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3_rray.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $d3$ -ray r(const d3-point  $\&p1$ , const d3-point  $\&p2$ );

introduces a variable r of type  $d\mathcal{Z}_r$  r is initialized to the ray starting at point  $p1$  and going through  $p2$ .

```
d3_ray r(const d3-segment \& s);
```
introduces a variable r of type  $d\mathcal{Z}_r$ -ray. r is initialized to  $ray(s-source( ),s.target( ))$ .





# 14.3 Segments in 3D-Space ( d3 segment )

# 1. Definition

An instance s of the data type  $d3$ -segment is a directed straight line segment in threedimensional space, i.e., a straight line segment  $[p, q]$  connecting two points  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . p is called the *source* or start point and  $q$  is called the *target* or end point of  $s$ . The length of s is the Euclidean distance between  $p$  and  $q$ . A segment is called *trivial* if its source is equal to its target. If s is not trivial, we use  $line(s)$  to denote the straight line containing s.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/d3 \text{.} segment.h >$ 

## 2. Creation







# 14.4 Straight Lines in 3D-Space ( d3 line )

## 1. Definition

An instance  $l$  of the data type  $d3$ -line is a directed straight line in three-dimensional space.

```
\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/d3<sub>line.h</sub> >
```
## 2. Creation

d3\_line  $l(const\ d3\_point\& p1, const\ d3\_point\& p2);$ 

introduces a variable  $l$  of type  $d3$ -line.  $l$  is initialized to the line through points  $p_1, p_2$ . Precondition :  $p1 \geq p2$ .

d3\_line  $l(const\ d3$ \_seqment& s);

introduces a variable  $l$  of type  $d3$ -line.  $l$  is initialized to the line supporting segment s. Precondition : s is not trivial.

 $d3$ -line l; introduces a variable l of type  $d3$ -line. l is initialized to the line through points  $(0, 0, 0)$  and  $(1, 0, 0)$ .





# 14.5 Planes ( d3 plane )

## 1. Definition

An instance  $P$  of the data type  $d3$ -plane is an oriented plane in the three-dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . It can be defined by a tripel  $(a,b,c)$  of non-collinear points or a single point a and a normal vector  $v$ .

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/d3-plane.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation



d3\_plane  $p(const d3\_point \& a, const d3\_point \& b);$ 

introduces a variable  $p$  of type  $d\mathcal{Z}_p$  *lane* initialized to the plane that contains a with normal vector  $b - a$ .







#### Non-Member Functions

int orientation(const d3\_plane& p, const d3\_point& q) computes the orientation of  $p.sideof(q)$ .

# 14.6 Spheres in 3D-Space ( d3 sphere )

## 1. Definition

An instance of the data type  $d\mathcal{S}\text{-sphere}$  is an oriented sphere in 3d space. The sphere is defined by four points  $p1, p2, p3, p4$  (d3-points).

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3_sphere.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

d3\_sphere  $S($ const d3\_point $\&$  p1, const d3\_point $\&$  p2, const d3\_point $\&$  p3, const d3\_point &  $p_4$  ); introduces a variable  $S$  of type  $d3$ -sphere.  $S$  is initialized to the sphere through points  $p1, p2, p3, p4$ .



 $d3$ -sphere S.translate(double dx, double dy, double dz) returns  $S$  translated by vector  $(dx, dy, dz)$ .

# 14.7 Simplices in 3D-Space ( d3 simplex )

## 1. Definition

An instance of the data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -simplex is a simplex in 3d space. The simplex is defined by four points  $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4$  (d3 *points*). We call the simplex degenerate, if the four defining points are coplanar.

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/d3 \text{.} simple x.h$ 

## 2. Types



## 3. Creation



creates the simplex  $(a, b, c, d)$ .






## 14.8 Rational Points in 3D-Space ( d3 rat point )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of data type  $d\mathcal{Z}r$  rat point is a point with rational coordinates in the threedimensional space. A point with cartesian coordinates  $(a, b, c)$  is represented by homogeneous coordinates  $(x, y, z, w)$  of arbitrary length integers (see 5.1) such that  $a = x/w$ ,  $b = y/w, c = z/w$  and  $w > 0$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3-rat-point.h >$ 

#### 2. Creation



 $d3\_rat\_point$  p(const rational a, const rational a, const rational a); introduces a variable p of type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -rat point initialized to the point  $(a, b, c)$ .

 $d3_r$ rat point p(integer a, integer b, integer c);

introduces a variable  $p$  of type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -rat point initialized to the point  $(a, b, c).$ 

 $d3$ -rat point p(integer x, integer y, integer z, integer w);

introduces a variable p of type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -rat point initialized to the point with homogeneous coordinates  $(x, y, z, w)$  if  $w > 0$  and to point  $(-x, -y, -z, -w)$  if  $w < 0$ . Precondition:  $w \neq 0$ .

 $d3$ -rat-point p(const rat-vector & v); introduces a variable p of type  $d\hat{z}$ -rat point initialized to the point  $(v[0], v[1], v[2]).$  $Precondition: v.dim() = 3.$ 







### Non-Member Functions

int orientation(const d3\_rat\_point & a, const d3\_rat\_point & b,

const d3\_rat\_point & c, const d3\_rat\_point & d)

computes the orientation of points  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  as the sign of the determinant



i.e., it returns  $+1$  if point d lies left of the directed plane through  $a, b, c, 0$  if  $a,b, c$  and d are coplanar, and −1 otherwise.







#### Point Generators







void random d3 rat points on segment(*int n, int maxc, list*<d3\_rat\_point>& L) generates  $n$  points on the diagonal whose coordinates are random integer in the range from −maxc to maxc.

# 14.9 Straight Rational Rays in 3D-Space ( d3 rat ray )

#### 1. Definition

An instance r of the data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -rat-ray is a directed straight ray defined by two points with rational coordinates in three-dimensional space.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3_rrat_ray.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $d3_r$ rat\_ray r(const d3\_rat\_point & p1, const d3\_rat\_point & p2);

introduces a variable r of type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -rat-ray. r is initialized to the ray starting at point  $p1$  and going through  $p2$ .

 $d3_r at_r ay$  r(const d3-rat\_segment & s);

introduces a variable r of type  $d\mathcal{Z}rat_rray$ . r is initialized to  $ray(s,source($ , s.target()).





## 14.10 Rational Lines in 3D-Space ( d3 rat line )

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $l$  of the data type  $d\Omega$ -rat line is a directed straight line in three-dimensional space.

```
\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3\_rat\_line.h>
```
#### 2. Creation



introduces a variable  $l$  of type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -rat line.  $l$  is initialized to the line supporting segment s.

 $d3\_rat\_line \,$  l; introduces a variable l of type  $d3\_rat\_line \,$ . l is initialized to the line through points  $(0, 0, 0, 1)$  and  $(1, 0, 0, 1)$ .







returns the square of the distance between  $l$  and  $p$ .

## 14.11 Rational Segments in 3D-Space ( d3 rat segment )

#### 1. Definition

An instance s of the data type  $d3$ -rat segment is a directed straight line segment in three-dimensional space, i.e., a line segment connecting two rational points  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . p is called the *source* or start point and  $q$  is called the *target* or end point of  $s$ . A segment is called *trivial* if its source is equal to its target. If s is not trivial, we use  $line(s)$  to denote the straight line containing s.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3\_rat\_segment.h >$ 

#### 2. Creation







 $d3$ -rat segment  $s + const$  rat vector & v

returns  $\boldsymbol{s}$  translated by vector  $\boldsymbol{v}.$ 

d3\_rat\_segment  $s$  – const rat\_vector & v

returns s translated by vector  $-v$ .

## 14.12 Rational Planes ( d3 rat plane )

#### 1. Definition

An instance  $P$  of the data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -rat plane is an oriented rational plane in the threedimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . It can be defined by a tripel  $(a,b,c)$  of non-collinear rational points or a single rational point  $a$  and a normal vector  $v$ .

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3-rat-plane.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation



introduces a variable  $p$  of type  $d3$ -rat plane initialized to the plane that contains a with normal vector  $b - a$ .







## Non-Member Functions



## 14.13 Rational Spheres ( d3 rat sphere )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type  $d3$ -rat sphere is an oriented sphere in 3d space. The sphere is defined by four points  $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4$  with rational coordinates (d3\_rat\_points).

 $\#include \leqslant LEDA/geo/d3\_rat\_sphere.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $d3$ -rat sphere  $S($ const  $d3$ -rat point  $\&$  p1, const  $d3$ -rat point  $\&$  p2, const d3\_rat\_point & p3, const d3\_rat\_point & p4); introduces a variable S of type  $d3$ -rat sphere. S is initialized to the sphere through points  $p1, p2, p3, p4$ .

#### 3. Operations



translates the sphere by vector v and returns a new  $d3_r$ rat\_sphere.

 $d3_r$ rat\_sphere S.translate(const rational& r1, const rational& r2, const rational& r3)

translates the sphere by vector  $(r1,r2,r3)$  and returns a new  $d3\_rat\_sphere$ .

## 14.14 Rational Simplices ( d3 rat simplex )

#### 1. Definition

An instance of the data type  $d3\_rat \text{ simpler}$  is a simplex in 3d space. The simplex is defined by four points  $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4$  with rational coordinates  $(d3\_rat\_points)$ . We call the simplex degenerate, if the four defining points are coplanar.

 $\#include \leq EDA/geo/d3_r \cdot ratio$ 

#### 2. Types

 $d3\_rat\_simplex::coord\_type$  the coordinate type (rational).

 $d3_r at\_simplex::point\_type$  the point type  $(d3_r at\_point)$ .

#### 3. Creation

 $d3$ -rat simplex  $S$ (const  $d3$ -rat-point  $\&a$ , const  $d3$ -rat-point  $\&b$ , const  $d3$ -rat-point  $\&c$ , const  $d3$ -rat-point & d);

creates the simplex  $(a, b, c, d)$ .

 $d3\_rat\_simplex \ S;$  creates the simplex  $((0,0,0),(1,0,0),(0,1,0),(0,0,1))$ .

#### 4. Operations



condition: the  $d3\_rat\_simplex$  is not degenerate).



## 14.15 3D Convex Hull Algorithms ( d3 hull )

void CONVEX.HULL(const list<d3\_rat\_point>& L, GRAPH<d3\_rat\_point, int>& H)

CONVEX HULL takes as argument a list of points and returns the (planar embedded) surface graph  $H$  of the convex hull of  $L$ . The algorithm is based on an incremental space sweep. The running time is  $O(n^2)$  in the worst case and  $O(n \log n)$  for most inputs.

bool CHECK HULL(const GRAPH <d3\_rat\_point, int>& H) a checker for convex hulls.

void CONVEX-HULL(const list < d3\_point>& L, GRAPH < d3\_point, int > & H) a floating point version of CONVEX HULL.

bool CHECK HULL(const GRAPH <d3 point, int>& H) a checker for floating-point convex hulls.

## 14.16 3D Triangulation and Voronoi Diagram Algorithms ( d3 delaunay )

void D3.TRIANG(const list <  $d3$ -rat point > & L, GRAPH <  $d3$ -rat point, int > & G) computes a triangulation  $G$  of the points in  $L$ .

void D3.DELAUNAY(const list<d3\_rat\_point>& L, GRAPH<d3\_rat\_point, int>& G) computes a delaunay triangulation  $G$  of the points in  $L$ .

void D3.VORONOI(const list<d3\_rat\_point>& L0, GRAPH<d3\_rat\_sphere, int>& G) computes the voronoi diagramm  $G$  of the points in  $L$ .

CHAPTER 14. BASIC DATA TYPES FOR THREE-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRY

# Chapter 15

# Graphics

This section describes the data types color, window, panel, and menu.

## 15.1 Colors ( color )

#### 1. Definition

The data type *color* is the type of all colors available for drawing operations in windows (cf. 15.2). Each color is defined by a triple of integers  $(r, g, b)$  with  $0 \le r, g, b \le 255$ , the so-called rgb-value of the color. The number of available colors is restricted and depends on the underlying hardware. Colors can be created from rgb-values, from names in a color data base (X11), or from the 16 integer constants (enumeration in  $\langle \text{LEDA}/\text{graphics}/\text{x}$ -window.h $\rangle$ ) black, white, red, green, blue, yellow, violet, orange; cyan, brown, pink, green2, blue2, grey1, grey2, grey3.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graphics/color.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

 $color \; color \; col;$  creates a color with rgb-value  $(0, 0, 0)$  (i.e. black).

color col(int r, int g, int b);

creates a color with rgb-value  $(r, q, b)$ .





## 15.2 Windows ( window )

#### 1. Definition

The data type window provides an interface for graphical input and output of basic twodimensional geometric objects. Application programs using this data type have to be linked with  $libW.a$  and (on UNIX systems) with the X11 base library  $libX11.a$  (cf. section 1.6):

CC  $\textit{prog.c}$  -lW -lP -lG -lL -lX11 -lm

An instance W of type window is an iso-oriented rectangular window in the twodimensional plane. The default representation of  $W$  on the screen is a square of maximal possible edge length positioned in the upper right corner of the display.

In general, a window consists of two rectangular sections, a *panel section* in the upper part and a drawing section in the rest of the window. The panel section contains panel items such as sliders, choice fields, string items and buttons. They have to be created before the window is opened by special panel operations described in section 15.2.

The drawing section can be used for the output of geometric objects such as points, lines, segments, arrows, circles, polygons, graph, . . . and for the input of all these objects using the mouse input device. All drawing and input operations in the drawing section use a coordinate system that is defined by three parameters of type double: xmin, the minimal x-coordinate,  $xmax$ , the maximal x-coordinate, and  $ymin$ , the minimal y-coordinate. The two parameters xmin and xmax define the scaling factor scaling as  $w/(xmax - xmin)$ , where  $w$  is the width of the drawing section in pixels. The maximal y-coordinate  $ymax$ of the drawing section is equal to  $ymin + h \cdot scaling$  and depends on the actual shape of the window on the screen. Here,  $h$  is the height of the drawing section in pixels.

A list of all window parameters:

- 1. The foreground color parameter (default black) defines the default color to be used in all drawing operations. There are 18 predefined colors (enumeration in  $\langle \text{LEDA}/\text{graphics}/\text{x}$  window.h>): black, white, red, green, blue, yellow, violet, orange, cyan, brown, pink, green2, blue2, grey1, grey2, grey3 ivory, and invisible. Note that all drawing operations have an optional color argument that can be used to override the default foreground color. The color invisible can be used for invisible (transparent) objects.
- 2. The background color parameter (default white) defines the default background color (e.g. used by  $W$ .clear()).
- 3. The text font parameter defines the name of the font to be used in all text drawing operations.
- 4. Minimal and maximal coordinates of the drawing area  $xmin$  (default 0),  $xmax$ (default 100),  $ymin$  (default 0).
- 5. The grid dist parameter (default 0) defines the width of the grid that is used in the drawing area. A grid width of 0 indicates that no grid is to be used.
- 6. The frame label parameter defines a string to be displayed in the frame of the window.
- 7. The show coordinates flag (default true) determines whether the current coordinates of the mouse cursor in the drawing section are displayed in the upper right corner.
- 8. The flush output flag (default true) determines whether the graphics output stream is flushed after each draw action.
- 9. The line width parameter (default value 1 pixel) defines the width of all kinds of lines (segments, arrows, edges, circles, polygons).
- 10. The line style parameter defines the style of lines. Possible line styles are solid (default), dashed, and dotted.
- 11. The *point style* parameter defines the style points are drawn by the *draw\_point* operation. Possible point styles are pixel point, cross point (default), plus point, circle point, disc point, rect point, and box point.
- 12. The node width parameter (default value 8 pixels) defines the diameter of nodes created by the draw node and draw filled node operations.
- 13. The text mode parameter defines how text is inserted into the window. Possible values are transparent (default) and opaque.
- 14. The show orientation parameter defines, whether or not the direction or orientation of segments, lines, rays, triangles, polygons and gen polygons will be shown (default false.)
- 15. The drawing mode parameter defines the logical operation that is used for setting pixels in all drawing operations. Possible values are src mode (default) and xor mode. In src mode pixels are set to the respective color value, in xor mode the value is bitwise added to the current pixel value.
- 16. The redraw function parameter is a pointer to a function of type void  $(*F)(\text{window}*)$ . It is called with a pointer to the corresponding window as argument to redraw (parts of) the window whenever a redrawing is necessary, e.g., if the shape of the window is changed or previously hidden parts of it become visible.
- 17. The window delete handler parameter is a pointer to a function of type void (∗F)(window∗). It is called with a pointer to the corresponding window as argument when the window is to be closed by the window manager (e.g. by pressing the ×-button on Windows-NT systems). The default window delete handler closes the window and terminates the program.
- 18. The buttons per line parameter (default  $\infty$ ) defines the maximal number of buttons in one line of the panel section.
- 19. The precision parameter (default 16) defines the precision that is used for representing window coordinates, more precisely, all  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates generated by window input operations are doubles whose mantissa are truncated after  $precision - 1$  bits after the binary point.

In addition to call-back (handler) functions LEDA windows now also support the usage of function objects. Function object classes have to be derived from the window handler base class.

```
class window_handler {
  ...
 virtual void operator()() { }
  // parameter access functions
 double get_double(int nr) const;
  int get_int() const;
 window* get_window_ptr() const;
  char* get_char_ptr() const;
};
```
Derived classes have to implement the handling function in the definition of the *operator* () method. The different *get* methods can be called to retrieve parameters.

If both, a handler function and an object for the same action is supplied the object has higher priority.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graphics/window.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

window  $W$ ; creates a squared window with maximal possible edge length (minimum of width and height of the display). window  $W(const \ char * label);$ creates a maximal squared window with frame label label. window  $W(int w, int h);$ creates a window W of physical size w pixels  $\times h$  pixels. window  $W(int w, int h, const \ char * label);$ creates a window W of physical size w pixels  $\times h$  pixels and frame label label.

All four variants initialize the coordinates of W to  $xmin = 0$ ,  $xmax = 100$  and  $ymin = 0$ . The init operation (see below) can later be used to change the window coordinates and scaling. Please note, that a window is not displayed before the function display is called for it.

#### 3. Operations

#### 3.1 Initialization





void W.display(window &  $W_0$ , int x, int y) opens  $W$  and displays it with its left upper corner at position  $(x, y)$  relative to the upper left corner of window  $W_0$ .

W.open...can be used as a synonym for W.display... Note, that the open operation for panels (cf. 15.3) is defined slightly different.






void∗ W.set\_client\_data(void \* p, int i = 0)

sets the  $i$ -th client data pointer of  $W$  to  $p$  and returns its previous value. Precondition:  $i < 16$ .

## 3.3 Reading parameters





returns true if p lies in the drawing area.

## 3.4 Drawing Operations

All drawing operations have an optional color argument at the end of the parameter list. If this argument is omitted the current foreground color (cf. section 15.2) of  $W$  is used.

## 3.4.1 Drawing points



void W.draw\_pixels(int n, double  $*$  xcoord, double  $*$  ycoord, color  $c =$  window :: fgcol) draws all pixels  $(xcoord[i], ycoord[i])$  for  $0 \le i \le n-1$ .

#### 3.4.2 Drawing line segments

void W.draw\_segment(double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double  $x_2$ , double  $y_2$ ,  $color \; c = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ 

draws a line segment from  $(x_1, y_1)$  to  $(x_2, y_2)$ .

void W.draw.segment(const point & p, const point & q, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws a line segment from point  $p$  to point  $q$ .

void W.draw\_segment(const segment & s, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ ) draws line segment s.

void W.draw segment (point p, point q, line l, color  $c =$  window :: fqcol) draws the part of the line  $l$  between  $p$  and  $q$ . This version

of *draw\_seqment* should be used if p or q may lie far outside W. Precondition: p and q lie on l or at least close to l.

void W.draw\_segments(const list < segment > & L, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws all segments in L.

#### 3.4.3 Drawing lines

- void W.draw\_line(double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double  $x_2$ , double  $y_2$ , color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws a straight line passing through points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$ .
- void W.draw\_line(const point  $\& p$ , const point  $\& q$ , color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws a straight line passing through points  $p$  and  $q$ .
- void W.draw\_line(const segment & s, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws the line supporting segment s.
- void W.draw\_line(const line & l, color  $c = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ ) draws line l.
- void W.draw.hline(double y, color  $c = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ ) draws a horizontal line with y-coordinate y.
- void W.draw\_vline(double x, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ )

draws a vertical line with x-coordinate x.

## 3.4.4 Drawing Rays

void W.draw\_ray(double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double  $x_2$ , double  $y_2$ , color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws a ray starting in  $(x_1, y_1)$  and passing through  $(x_2, y_2)$ .

- void W.draw\_ray(const point & p, const point & q, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws a ray starting in  $p$  and passing through  $q$ .
- void W.draw\_ray(const seqment & s, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws a ray starting in s.source() containing s.

void W.draw\_ray(const ray & r, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws ray r.

void W.draw\_ray(point p, point q, line l, color  $c =$  window:: fgcol)

draws the part of the line l on the ray with source p and passing through q. This version of  $draw_Tay$  should be used if  $p$  may lie far outside W. Precondition:  $p$  and  $q$  lie on  $l$ or at least close to l.

#### 3.4.5 Drawing Arcs and Curves

- void W.draw.arc(const point  $\& p$ , const point  $\& q$ , const point  $\& r$ ,  $color \; c = window::\mathit{fqcol}\)$ draws a circular arc starting in  $p$  passing through  $q$  and ending in r.
- void W.draw\_bezier(const list < point > & C, int n, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws the bezier curve with control polygon C by a polyline with  $n$  points.

void W.draw spline (const list  $\text{point} \& \text{ } L, \text{ } int \text{ } n, \text{ } color \text{ } c = \text{ window} :: \text{ } f q \text{ } col)$ draws a spline curve through the points of L. Each segment is approximated by a polyline with  $m$  points.

void W.draw closed spline (const list  $\epsilon$  point  $\& L$ , int n, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ draws a closed spline through the points of L.

void W.draw spline (const polygon & P, int n, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ draws a closed spline through the vertices of P.

#### 3.4.6 Drawing arrows

- void W.draw\_arrow(double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double  $x_2$ , double  $y_2$ ,  $color \ c = window::\text{fqcol}$ draws an arrow pointing from  $(x_1, y_1)$  to  $(x_2, y_2)$ .
- void W.draw arrow(const point & p, const point & q, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws an arrow pointing from point  $p$  to point  $q$ .
- void W.draw\_arrow(const segment & s, color = window::fgcol) draws an arrow pointing from s.start() to s.end().
- void W.draw\_polyline\_arrow(const list <a>>
k lp, color c = window ::fgcol) draws a polyline arrow with vertex sequence lp.
- void W.draw arc arrow (const point & p, const point & q, const point & r,  $color \; c = window::\;fgcd)$ draws a circular arc arrow starting in  $p$  passing through  $q$ and ending in r.

void W.draw\_bezier\_arrow(const list < point > & C, int n, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ 

draws the bezier curve with control polygon C by a polyline with n points, the last segment is drawn as an arrow.

void W.draw spline arrow(const list  $\epsilon$  point  $\& L$ , int n, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws a spline curve through the points of L. Each segment is approximated by a polyline with  $n$  points. The last segment is drawn as an arrow.

point W.draw arrow head (const point & p, double dir, color  $c =$  window :: fgcol) draws an arrow head at position  $p$  pointing to direction dir, where dir is an angle from  $[0, 2\pi]$ .

#### 3.4.7 Drawing circles

- void W.draw\_circle(double x, double y, double r, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws the circle with center  $(x, y)$  and radius r.
- void W.draw.circle(const point & p, double r, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ draws the circle with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ .
- void W.draw.circle(const circle & C, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws circle C.
- void W.draw ellipse (double x, double y, double  $r_1$ , double  $r_2$ , color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws the ellipse with center  $(x, y)$  and radii  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ .

void W.draw ellipse (const point & p, double  $r_1$ , double  $r_2$ , color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws the ellipse with center p and radii  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ .

#### 3.4.8 Drawing discs

void W.draw\_disc(double x, double y, double r, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws a filled circle with center  $(x, y)$  and radius r.

void W.draw\_disc(const point & p, double r, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws a filled circle with center p and radius r.

void W.draw\_disc(const circle & C, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws filled circle C.

void W.draw\_filled\_circle(double x, double y, double r, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws a filled circle with center  $(x, y)$  and radius r.

void W.draw\_filled\_circle(const point & p, double r, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws a filled circle with center p and radius r.

void W.draw\_filled\_circle(const circle & C, color  $c =$  window:: fqcol) draws filled circle C.

void W.draw\_filled\_ellipse(double x, double y, double  $r_1$ , double  $r_2$ ,  $color \; c = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ 

draws a filled ellipse with center  $(x, y)$  and radii  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ .

void W.draw\_filled\_ellipse(const point & p, double  $r_1$ , double  $r_2$ ,  $color \; c = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ draws a filled ellipse with center  $p$  and radii  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ .

#### 3.4.9 Drawing polygons

void W.draw.polyline(const list  $\text{point} \& \text{lp}, \text{color } c = \text{window} : \text{fqcol}$ ) draws a polyline with vertex sequence lp.

void W.draw\_polyline(int n, double  $* x c$ , double  $* y c$ , color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws a polyline with vertex sequence  $(xc[0], yc[0]), \ldots, (xc[n-1], yc[n-1]).$ 

void W.draw\_polygon(const list <point>  $\&$  lp, color  $c = window::$  fqcol) draws the polygon with vertex sequence lp.

- void W.draw oriented polygon(const list  $\epsilon >$  lp, color  $c =$  window :: fgcol) draws the polygon with vertex sequence  $lp$  and indicates the orientation by an arrow.
- void W.draw\_polygon(const polygon & P, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws polygon P.

void W.draw oriented polygon(const polygon & P, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws polygon P and indicates the orientation by an arrow.

void W.draw\_filled\_polygon(const list <point>  $\&$  lp, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws the filled polygon with vertex sequence  $lp$ .

void W.draw\_filled\_polygon(const polygon& P, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws filled polygon P.

void W.draw\_polygon(const gen\_polygon & P, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws polygon P.

void W.draw oriented polygon(const gen polygon & P, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws polygon P and indicates the orientation by an arrow. void W.draw\_filled\_polygon(const gen\_polygon& P, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ draws filled polygon P. void W.draw\_rectangle(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ ,  $color = window::facol$ draws a rectangle with lower left corner  $(x_0, y_0)$  and upper right corner  $(x_1, y_1)$ . Precondition:  $x_0 < x_1$  and  $y_0 < y_1$ . void W.draw\_rectangle(point p, point q, color = window::fgcol) draws a rectangle with lower left corner p and upper right corner *a*. Precondition:  $p < q$ . void W.draw\_rectangle(const rectangle & R, color = window :: fgcol) draws rectangle R. void W.draw\_box(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ draws a filled rectangle with lower left corner  $(x_0, y_0)$  and upper right corner  $(x_1, y_1)$ . Precondition:  $x_0 < x_1$  and  $y_0 < y_1$ . void W.draw\_filled\_rectangle(point p, point q, color = window:: fgcol) draws a filled rectangle with lower left corner p and upper right corner q. Precondition:  $p < q$ . void W.draw filled rectangle (const rectangle & R, color = window :: fgcol) draws rectangle R. void W.draw\_box(point p, point q, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ same as  $draw$ -filled-rectangle(p, q, c). void W.draw\_box(const rectangle & R, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol})$ same as  $draw$ -filled rectangle(p, q, c). void W.draw\_roundrect(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double rndness,  $color\ col = window::\text{fqcol}$ draws a rectangle  $(x_0, y_0, x_1, y_1)$  with round corners. The rndness argument must be a real number in the interval [0, 1] and defines the "roundness" of the rectangle. void W.draw\_roundrect(point p, point q, double rndness, color col = window :: fgcol) draws a round rectangle with lower left corner p, upper right corner q, and roundness rndness.

void W.draw\_roundbox(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double rndness,  $color \; col = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ 

draws a filled rectangle  $(x_0, y_0, x_1, y_1)$  with round corners. The *rndness* argument must be a real number in the interval [0, 1] and defined the "roundness" of the rectangle.

void W.draw\_roundbox(point p, point q, double rndness, color col = window :: fqcol) draws a round filled rectangle with lower left corner  $p$ , upper right corner  $q$ , and roundness *rndness*.

void W.draw\_triangle(point a, point b, point c, color = window::  $f q col$ ) draws triangle  $(a, b, c)$ .

void W.draw\_triangle(const triangle  $\& T, color = window::fgcd$ ) draws triangle T.

void W.draw\_filled\_triangle(point a, point b, point c, color  $=$  window :: fgcol) draws filled triangle (a, b, c).

void W.draw filled triangle (const triangle & T, color = window :: fgcol) draws filled triangle T.

#### 3.4.10 Drawing functions

void W.plot xy(double  $x_0$ , double  $x_1$ , win draw func F, color  $c =$  window :: fgcol) draws the graph of function F in the x-range  $[x_0, x_1]$ , i.e., all pixels  $(x, y)$  with  $y = F(x)$  and  $x_0 \le x \le x_1$ .

void W.plot yx(double  $y_0$ , double  $y_1$ , win draw func F, color  $c =$  window :: fgcol) draws the graph of function F in the y-range  $[y_0, y_1]$ , i.e., all pixels  $(x, y)$  with  $x = F(y)$  and  $y_0 \le y \le y_1$ .

#### 3.4.11 Drawing text

void W.draw\_text(double x, double y, string s, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) writes string s starting at position  $(x, y)$ .

void W.draw\_text(const point & p, string s, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) writes string s starting at position p.

void W.draw\_ctext(double x, double y, string s, color  $c = window::\{qcol\}$ writes string s centered at position  $(x, y)$ .

void W.draw\_ctext(const point & p, string s, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) writes string s centered at position p.

void W.draw\_ctext(string s, color  $c = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ ) writes string s centered in window W. double W.text.box(double  $x_0$ , double  $x_1$ , double y, string s, bool draw = true)

formats and writes string s into a box with its left border at x-coordinate  $x_0$ , its right border at  $x_1$ , and its upper border at y-coordinate y. Some LaTeX-like formatting commands can be used:  $\bf{b}$ ,  $\tt$ ,  $\rm{m}$ ,  $\rm{n}$ ,  $\rm{c}$ , \<color>, . . . returns y-coordinate of lower border of box. If the optional last parameter draw is set to false no drawing takes place and only the lower y-coordinate of the box is computed.

- void W.text\_box(string s) as above with  $x_0 = W \cdot xmin($ ,  $x_1 = W \cdot xmax($ , and  $y = W. y max($ .
- void W.message(string s) displays the message s (each call adds a new line).

void W.del message() deletes the text written by all previous message operations.

#### 3.4.12 Drawing nodes

Nodes are represented by circles of diameter *node\_width*.



void W.draw\_node(const point & p, color  $c = window::\text{fqcol}$ ) draws a node at position p.

void W.draw\_filled\_node(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , color  $c = window::bgcd$ ) draws a filled node at position  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

void W.draw filled node(const point & p, color  $c = window::bacol$ ) draws a filled node at position p.

- void W.draw\_text\_node(double x, double y, string s, color  $c = window::bqcol$ ) draws a node with label s at position  $(x, y)$ .
- void W.draw\_text\_node(const point  $\& p$ , string s, color  $c = window::bqcol$ ) draws a node with label s at position p.
- void W.draw.int.node(double x, double y, int i, color  $c = window::bqcol$ ) draws a node with integer label i at position  $(x, y)$ .

void W.draw.int.node(const point & p, int i, color  $c = window::bqcol$ ) draws a node with integer label  $i$  at position  $p$ .

#### 3.4.13 Drawing edges

Edges are drawn as straigth line segments or arrows with a clearance of  $node\_width/2$  at each end.

- void W.draw\_edge(double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double  $x_2$ , double  $y_2$ , color  $c =$  window :: fgcol) draws an edge from  $(x_1, y_1)$  to  $(x_2, y_2)$ .
- void W.draw\_edge(const point & p, const point & q, color  $c = window::\mathit{fqcol}$ ) draws an edge from p to q.

void W.draw edge(const segment & s, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws an edge from s.start() to s.end().

void W.draw\_edge\_arrow(double  $x_1$ , double  $y_1$ , double  $x_2$ , double  $y_2$ ,  $color \; c = window::\;f \cdot g \cdot col)$ draws a directed edge from  $(x_1, y_1)$  to  $(x_2, y_2)$ .

void W.draw edge arrow(const point & p, const point & q, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws a directed edge from p to q.

void W.draw\_edge\_arrow(const segment & s, color  $c = window::\text{fgcol}$ ) draws a directed edge from s.start() to s.end().

#### 3.4.14 Bitmaps and Pixrects

 $char*$  W.create bitmap(int w, int h, unsigned char  $*$  bm\_data)

creates a bitmap (monochrome pixrect) of width  $w$ , height h, from the bits in data.

 $char*$  W.create pixrect from color  $(int w, int h, unsigned int clr)$ 

creates a a solid pixrect of width w und height h.

char∗ W.create pixrect from xpm(const char ∗ ∗xpm str )

creates a pixrect from the **xpm** data string *xpm\_str*.

 $char* W.create\_pixel(const \; char* *xpm\_str)$ 

creates a pixrect from the **xpm** data string *xpm\_str*.

 $char*$  W.create.pixrect.from.xpm( $string\;$ *xpm\_file*)

creates a pixrect from the xpm file xpm file.

 $char*$  W.create pixrect(string xpm file)

creates a pixrect from the xpm file xpm file.

char $*$  W.create pixrect from bits(*int w, int h, unsigned char*  $*$  bm\_data, int  $fg = window::fgcd, int bg = window::bgcol)$ creates a pixrect of width  $w$ , height  $h$ , foreground color  $fg$ , and background color bg from bitmap data.

char∗ W.get pixrect(double x<sub>1</sub>, double y<sub>1</sub>, double x<sub>2</sub>, double y<sub>2</sub>)

creates a color pixrect of width  $w = x_2 - x_1$ , height  $h =$  $y2 - y1$ , and copies all pixels from the rectangular area  $(x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2)$  of W into it.



destroys bitmap bm.

#### 15.2. WINDOWS (WINDOW) 543



tems suffix *ps* is appended to *frame* and the output format is postscript. On windows systems the suffix .wmf is added and the format is windows metafile. If the flag full color is set to false colors will be translated into grey scales.

## 3.4.15 Buffering



## 3.4.16 Clipping



void W.reset clipping () restores the clipping region to the entire drawing area of W.

## 3.5 Input

The main input operation for reading positions, mouse clicks, and buttons from a window W is the operation W.read mouse(). This operation is blocking, i.e., waits for a button to be pressed which is either a "real" button on the mouse device pressed inside the drawing area of  $W$  or a button in the panel section of  $W$ . In both cases, the number of the selected button is returned. Mouse buttons have pre-defined numbers MOUSE BUTTON(1) for the left button, MOUSE BUTTON(2) for the middle button, and MOUSE BUTTON(3) for the right button. The numbers of the panel buttons can be defined by the user. If the selected button has an associated action function or sub-window this function/window is executed/opened (cf. 15.2 for details).

There is also a non-blocking version  $W.\text{get\_mouse}()$  which returns the constant NO BUTTON if no button was pressed.

The window data type also provides two more general input operations W.read event() and W.get event() for reading events. They return the event type (enumeration in  $\langle\text{LEDA/graphics/x_window.h}\rangle$ , the value of the event, the position of the event in the drawing section, and a time stamp of the event.

## 3.5.1 Read Mouse



$$
int \qquad W.\n\\{\n read mouse(double \& x, \text{ double} \& y)
$$

If a button is pressed inside the drawing area the current position of the cursor is assigned to  $(x, y)$ . The operation returns the number of the pressed button (see  $W$ .read\_mouse().)

int W.read mouse (*point & p*)

as above, the current position is assigned to point  $p$ .

int W.read mouse seg(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x$ , double  $y$ )

displays a line segment from  $(x_0, y_0)$  to the current cursor position until a mouse button is pressed inside the drawing section of  $W$ . When a button is pressed the current position is assigned to  $(x, y)$  and the number of the pressed button is returned.

int W.read mouse seg (const point & p, point & q)

as above with  $x_0 = p.xcoord()$  and  $y_0 = p.ycoord()$  and the current position is assigned to  $q$ .

int W.read mouse line (double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x$ , double  $x$  y)

displays a line passing through  $(x_0, y_0)$  and the current cursor position until a mouse button is pressed inside the drawing section of W. When a button is pressed the current position is assigned to  $(x, y)$  and the number of the pressed button is returned.

int W.read.mouse.line(const point & p, point & q)

as above with  $x_0 = p.xcoord()$  and  $y_0 = p.ycoord()$  and the current position is assigned to q.

int W.read mouse ray(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x$ , double  $x$  y)

displays a ray from  $(x_0, y_0)$  passing through the current cursor position until a mouse button is pressed inside the drawing section of  $W$ . When a button is pressed the current position is assigned to  $(x, y)$  and the number of the pressed button is returned.

int W.read mouse ray (const point & p, point  $\& q$ )

as above with  $x_0 = p.xcoord()$  and  $y_0 = p.ycoord()$  and the current position is assigned to  $q$ .

int W.read mouse rect(double  $x_0$ , double  $y_0$ , double  $x$ , double  $x$  y)

displays a rectangle with diagonal from  $(x_0, y_0)$  to the current cursor position until a mouse button is pressed inside the drawing section of  $W$ . When a button is pressed the current position is assigned to  $(x, y)$  and the number of the pressed button is returned.

int W.read mouse rect (const point & p, point & q)

as above with  $x_0 = p.xcoord()$  and  $y_0 = p.ycoord()$  and the current position is assigned to  $q$ .



3.5.2 Events



 $int$  W.button release time()

returns the time-stamp (in msec) of the last button release event.

## 3.6 Panel Input

The operations listed in this section are useful for simple input of strings, numbers, and Boolean values.



void W.acknowledge(string s)

displays string s and asks for acknowledgement.



#### 3.7 Input and output operators

For input and output of basic geometric objects in the plane such as points, lines, line segments, circles, and polygons the  $<<$  and  $>>$  operators can be used. Similar to C++input streams windows have an internal state indicating whether there is more input to read or not. Its initial value is true and it is turned to false if an input sequence is terminated by clicking the right mouse button (similar to ending stream input by the eof character). In conditional statements, objects of type window are automatically converted to boolean by returning this internal state. Thus, they can be used in conditional statements in the same way as C++input streams. For example, to read a sequence of points terminated by a right button click, use " while  $(W \gg p) \{ \ldots \}$ ".

## 3.7.1 Output





## 3.7.2 Input



As long as an input operation has not been completed the last read point can be erased by simultaneously pressing the shift key and the left mouse button.

## 3.8 Non-Member Functions

 $int$  read mouse(window  $* \& w$ , double  $x$ , double  $(y)$ )

waits for mouse input, assigns a pointer to the corresponding window to w and the position in ∗w to  $(x, y)$  and returns the pressed button.



## 3.9 Panel Operations

The panel section of a window is used for displaying text messages and for updating the values of variables. It consists of a list of panel items and a list of buttons. The operations in this section add panel items or buttons to the panel section of  $W$ . Note that they have to be called before the window is displayed the first time.

In general, a panel item consists of a string label and an associated variable of a certain type (int, bool, string, double, color). The value of this variable can be manipulated through the item. Each button has a label (displayed on the button) and an associated number. The number of a button is either defined by the user or is the rank of the button in the list of all buttons. If a button is pressed (i.e. selected by a mouse click) during a read *mouse* operation its number is returned.

Action functions can be associated with buttons and some items (e.g. slider items) whenever a button with an associated action function is pressed this function is called with the number of the button as actual parameter. Action functions of items are called whenever the value of the corresponding variable is changed with the new value as actual parameter. All action functions must have the type *void* func(int).

Another way to define a button is to associate another window with it. In this case the button will have a menu sign and as soon as it is pressed the attached window will open. This method can be used to implement pop-up menues. The return value of the current read mouse operation will be the number associated with the button in the menu.

## 3.9.1 General Settings



void  $W.\text{set}$  item width $(int w)$ 







#### 3.9.3 Integer Choice Items

- panel\_item W.int\_item(string s, int& x, int l, int h, int step, const char  $*$  hlp = 0) adds an integer choice item with label s, variable x, range  $l, \ldots, h$ , and step size step to W.
- panel\_item W.int\_item(string s, int& x, int l, int h, int step, void  $(*F)(int)$ , const char  $\star hlp = 0$ )

adds an integer choice item with label s, variable x, range  $l, \ldots, h$ , and step size step to W. Function  $F(x)$  is executed whenever the value of x is changed.

panel item W.int item(string s, int & x, int l, int h, int step, const window handler & obj, const char  $* hlp = 0$ ) as above with handler object obj.



## panel\_item W.string item(string s, string & x, const list < string > & L, const char  $\star hlp = 0$ ) adds a string item with label  $s$ , variable  $x$ , and menu  $L$  to  $W$ . panel\_item W.string item(string s, string & x, const list < string > & L, const window\_handler& obj, const char  $* hlp = 0$ ) as above with handler object obj. panel item W.string item(string s, string & x, const list  $\langle \sin \theta \rangle \& L$ , int sz, const char  $\star hlp = 0$ ) menu  $L$  is displayed in a scroll box of height  $sz$ . panel item W.string item(string s, string & x, const list < string > & L, int sz, void  $(*F)(char*)$ , const char  $* hlp = 0$ ) as above with action function F. panel item W.string item(string s, string & x, const list < string > & L, int sz, const window\_handler& obj, const char  $* hlp = 0$ ) as above with handler object obj. void W.set\_menu(panel\_item it, const list < string > & L, int  $sz = 0$ ) replaces the menu of string menu item it by a menu for list L (table style if  $sz = 0$  and scroll box with sz entries otherwise).

#### 3.9.5 Choice Items



adds an integer item with label  $s$ , variable  $x$ , and choices from  $L$  to  $W$ .



## 3.9.6 Multiple Choice Items



## 3.9.7 Buttons

The first occurence of character  $'&'$  in a button label makes the following character c an accelerator character, i.e., the button can be selected by typing ALT-c from the keyboard.







## 3.9.8. Manipulating Panel Items and Buttons

Disabling and Enabling Items or buttons





## 3.9.9. Miscellanous



## 4. Example

Example programs can be found on  $\operatorname{LEDAROOT}/\mathrm{demo}/\mathrm{win}$  and  $\operatorname{LEDAROOT}/\mathrm{test}/\mathrm{win}.$ 

## 15.3 Panels ( panel )

## 1. Definition

Panels are windows consisting of a panel section only (cf. section 15.2). They are used for displaying text messages and updating the values of variables.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graphics/panel.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

panel P; creates an empty panel P.

panel  $P(string s)$ ; creates an empty panel P with header s.

panel  $P(int w, int h);$ 

creates an empty panel  $P$  of width  $w$  and height  $h$ .

panel  $P(int w, int h, string s);$ 

creates an empty panel  $P$  of width  $w$  and height  $h$  with header  $s$ .

#### 3. Operations

All window operations for displaying, reading, closing and adding panel items are available (see section 15.2). There are two additional operations for opening and reading panels.

$$
int \quad P.\text{open}(int \ x \ = \ window::center, int \ y \ = \ window::center)
$$
\n
$$
P. display(x, y) + P.read\_mouse() + P.close()
$$

$$
int \quad P.\text{open}(window \& W, int x = window::center, int y = window::center)
$$
\n
$$
P. display(W, x, y) + P.read\_mouse() + P.close()
$$

# 15.4 Menues ( menu )

## 1. Definition

Menues are special panels consisting only of a vertical list of buttons.

 $\#include \leq LEDA/graphics/menu.h>$ 

## 2. Creation

menu  $M$ ; creates an empty menu  $M$ .

## 3. Operations



int M.open(window & W, int x, int y)

open and read menu  $M$  at position  $(x, y)$  in window  $W$ .

# 15.5 Postscript Files ( ps file )

## 1. Definition

The date type *ps file* is a graphical input/output interface for the familiar LEDA drawing operations of two-dimensional geometry. Unlike the data type window, the output produced by a *ps-file* object is *permanent*, i.e., it is not lost after exiting the  $C++-$ program as it is saved in an output file.

An instance of type *ps file* is (as far as the user takes notice of it) an ordinary ASCII file that contains the source code of the graphics output in the PostScript description language. After running the C++-program, the file is created in the user's current working directory and can later be handled like any other PostScript file, i.e., it may be viewed, printed etc.

Of course, features like a panel section (as in window type instances) don't make sense for a representation that is not supposed to be displayed on the screen and interactively worked with by the user. Therefore, only drawing operations are applicable to a  $ps$ -file instance.

ps file was implemented by

Thomas Wahl Lehrstuhl für Informatik I Universität Würzburg

The complete user manual can be found in LEDAROOT/Manual/contrib.

 $\#include \leq EDA/graphics/ps_file.h>$ 

# 15.6 Graph Windows ( GraphWin )

## 1. Definition

Graph Win combines the two types graph and window and forms a bridge between the graph data types and algorithms and the graphics interface of LEDA. GraphWin can easily be used in LEDA programs for constructing, displaying and manipulating graphs and for animating and debugging graph algorithms.

- The user interface of GraphWin is simple and intuitive. When clicking a mouse button inside the drawing area a corresponding default action is performed that can be redefined by users. With the initial default settings, the left mouse button is used for creating and moving objects, the middle button for selecting objects, and the right button for destroying objects. A number of menues at the top of the window give access to graph generators, modifiers, basic algorithms, embeddings, setup panels, and file input and output.
- Graphwin can display and manipulate the data associated with the nodes and edges of LEDA's parameterized graph type  $GRAPH < vtype, etype >$ . When a Graph-Win is opened for such a graph the associated node and edge labels of type *vtype* and etype can be displayed and edited.
- Most of the actions of GraphWin can be customized by modifying or extending the menues of the main window or by defining call-back functions. So the user can define what happens if a node or edge is created, selected, moved, or deleted.
- Graphwin offers a collection of graph generators, modifiers and tests. The generators include functions for constructing random, planar, complete, bipartite, grid graph, connected graph, biconnected, graphs . . .

There are also methods for modifying existing graphs (e.g. by removing or adding a certain set of edges) to fit in one of these categories and for testing whether a given graph is planar, connected, bipartite . . .

• The standard menu includes a choice of fundamental graph algorithms and basic embedding algorithms.

For every node and edge of the graph GraphWin maintains a set of parameters.

With every node is associated the following list of parameters. Note that for every parameter there are corresponding set and get operations (gw.set param() and gw.get param) where param has to be replaced by the corresponding parameter name.

position: the position of the node (type point),

shape: the shape of the node (type  $qw\_node\_shape$ ), color: the color of the interior of the node (type *color*), border\_color: the color of the node's border (type *color*), label\_color: the color of the node's label (type *color*), pixmap: the pixmap used to fill the interior of the node (char∗), width: the width of the node in pixels  $(int)$ , height: the height of the node in pixels  $(int)$ , radius1: the horizontal radius in real world coordinates (*double*) radius2: the vertical radius in real world coordinates (double), border width: the width of the border in pixels  $(int)$ , label\_type: the type of the node's label (type  $gw\_label\_type$ ), user label: the user label of the node (type string), and label pos: the position of the label (type  $qw\text{-}position$ ).

With every edge is associated the following list of parameters

color: the color of the edge (type  $color$ ),

label\_color: the color of the edge label (type *color*),

shape: the shape of the edge (type  $qw\_edge\_shape$ ),

style: the style of the edge (type  $qw\_edge\_style$ ),

direction: the direction of the edge (type  $gw_{\perp}$ edge\_dir),

width: the width of the edge in pixels (type *int*),

label type: the label type of the edge (type  $qw\_label_type)$ ,

user\_label: the user label of the edge (type  $string$ ),

label pos: the position of the edge's label (type  $qw_{\sim} position$ ),

bends: the list of edge bends (type  $list < point$ ),

source anchor: the source anchor of the edge (type *point*), and

target anchor: the target anchor of the edge (type *point*).

The corresponding types are:

```
gw_node_shape = { circle_node, ellipse_node, square_node, rectangle_node }
gw_edge_shape = { poly_edge, circle_edge, bezier_edge, spline_edge }
gw position = { central_pos, northwest_pos, north_pos,
                northeast_pos, east_pos, southeast_pos,
                south_pos, southwest_pos, west_pos }
gw_label_type = { no_label, user_label, data_label, index_label }
gw_edge_style = { solid_edge, dashed_edge, dotted_edge, dashed_dotted_edge }
gw_edge_dir = { undirected_edge, directed_edge, bidirected_edge, rdirected_edge };
```
 $\#include \leq EDA/graphics/graphics/hwin.h>$ 

### 2. Creation

 $GraphWin$  gw(graph & G, int w, int h, const char  $*$  win label = "");

creates a graph window for graph G with a display window of size w pixels  $\times h$  pixels. If win label is not empty it is used as the frame label of the window, otherwise, a default frame label is used.

 $GraphWin$  gw(graph & G, const char  $*$  win label = "");

creates a graph window for graph G with a display window of default size and frame label *win label*.

 $GraphWin$  gw(int w, int h, const char  $*$  win\_label = "");

creates a graph window for a new empty graph with a display window of size w pixels  $\times h$  pixels, and frame label win label.

 $GraphWin$  gw(const char  $*$  win\_label = "");

creates a graph window for a new empty graph with a display window of default size and frame label *win\_label*.

 $GraphWin$  gw(window & W);

as above, but  $W$  is used as display window.

 $GraphWin$  gw(graph & G, window & W);

as above, but makes  $G$  the graph of  $qw$ .

#### 3. Operations

a) Window Operations




#### b) Graph Operations



#### c) Node Parameters

Node parameters can be retrieved or changed by a collection of get- and set- operations. We use *param\_type* for the type and *param* for the value of the corresponding parameter.

#### Individual Parameters

```
param_type gw.get_param(node v) returns the value of parameter param for node v.
```


generator dialog panels.





## Animation and Zooming



 $(b == false).$ 

# f) Node and Edge Selections











#### h) Zooming



#### i) Operations in Edit-mode

Before entering edit mode ...

 $gw<sub>-</sub>action$  gw.set action(long mask, gw action func)

sets action associated with condition mask to func and returns previous action for this condition. Here  $g_{w\text{-}action}$  is the type void  $(*func)$  (Graph Win &, const point &). For  $func = NULL$  the corresponding action is deleted.

 $gw<sub>-</sub>action$  gw.get. $action(longmask)$ 

returns the action associated with condition mask.





# j) Menus

The default menu  $\ldots$ 



Extending menus by new buttons and sub-menus . . .

int gw.add menu(string label, int menu id = 0, char  $*$  pmap = 0, const char  $* hlp = 0$ )<br>...



# k) Input/Output

int gw.read.gw(istream& in)

reads graph in gw format from stream in.



bool gw.read defaults(string fname)

reads the default attributes of nodes and edges from file fname.

# l) Miscellaneous





returns the list of edges intersecting the rectangular area  $(x0, y0, x1, y1)$ .



void gw.get\_bounding\_box(const list<node>& V, const list<edge>& E,

double  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , double  $x \in \mathcal{Y}$ , double  $\mathcal{Y}$ , double  $\mathcal{Y}$   $\mathcal{Y}$ )

computes the coordinates  $(x0, y0, x1, y1)$  of a minimal bounding box for the current layout of subgraph  $(V, E)$ .

# 15.7 The GraphWin (GW) File Format

The gw-format is the external graph format of  $GraphWin$ . It extends LEDA's graph format described in the previous section by additional parameters and attributes for describing graph drawings. Note that the gw-format was not defined to be a readable or easy to extend file format (in contrast to the  $GML$  format that is also supported by GraphWin).

Each gw file starts with a LEDA graph followed by a (possibly empty) layout section. An empty layout section indicates that no drawing of the graph is known, e.g. in the input file of a layout algorithm. If a layout section is given, it consists of three parts:

- 1. global parameters
- 2. node attributes
- 3. edge attributes

## Global Parameters

The global parameter section consists of 7 lines (with an arbitrary number of inter-mixed comment-lines).

1. version line

The version line specifies the version of of the gw-format. It consists of the string GraphWin followed by a floating-point number (1.32 for the current version of Graph-Win).

2. window parameters

scaling wxmin wymin wxmax wymax

This line consists of 5 floating-point numbers specifiying the scaling, minimal/maximal x- and y-coordinates of the window (see the window class of LEDA).

- 3. node label font
	- type size

This line defines the font used for node labels. The *type* value of of type *int*. Possible values (see gw\_font\_type) are

- $0$  (roman font)
- $1 (bold_{\text{font}})$
- $2$  (italic\_font)

3 (fixed font). The size value is of type int and defines the size of the font in points.

#### 4. edge label font

type size as above, but defines the font used for edge labels.

5. node index format

format

This line contains a printf-like format string used for constructing the index label of nodes  $(e.g. \% d)$ .

6. edge index format

format

This line contains a printf-like format string used for constructing the index label of edges (e.g. %d).

7. multi-edge distance

dist

This line contains a floating-point parameter dist that defines the distance used to draw parallel edges.

We close the description of the global parameter section with an example.

```
# version
GraphWin 1.32
# window parameters
1.0 -10.0 -5.0 499.0 517.0
# node font
0 12
# edge font
0 12
# node index string
%d
# edge index string
%d
# multi-edge distance
4.0
```
## Node Attributes

The node attribute section contains for each node of the graph a line consisting of the following attributes (separated by blanks). More precisely, the  $i$ -th line in this section defines the attributes of the *i*-th node of the graph (see section leda-format).

```
x-coordinate
```
an attribute of type double defining the x-coordinate of the center of the node.

```
y-coordinate
```
an attribute of type double defining the y-coordinate of the center of the node.

shape

```
an attribute of type int defining the shape of the node. Possible values are (see
gw node shape of GraphWin)
0 (circle node)
```

```
1 (ellipse node)
```

```
2 (square node)
```

```
3 (rectangle node.
```
border color

an attribute of type int defining the color used to draw the boundary line of the node. Possible values are (see the LEDA color type)

-1 (invisible)  $0$  (black) 1 (white) 2 (red) 3 (green) 4 (blue) 5 (yellow) 6 (violet) 7 (orange) 8 (cyan) 9 (brown) 10 (pink) 11 (green2) 12 (blue2) 13 (grey1) 14 (grey2) 15 (grey3) 16 (ivory).

border width

an attribute of type double defining the width of the border line of the node.

radius1

an attribute of type double defining the horizontal radius of the node

radius2

an attribute of type double defining the vertical radius of the node

color

an attribute of type int defining the color used to fill the interior of the node. See the LEDA color type for possible values.

label type

an attribute of type int specifying the label type. Possible values (see gw\_label\_type of GraphWin) are

```
0 (no_label)
1 (user label)
2 (data label)
3 (index label).
```
#### label color

an attribute of type int defining the color used to draw the label of the node. See the LEDA color type for possible values.

#### label position

an attribute of type int defining the label position. Possible values (see gw position

```
of GraphWin) are
0 (central pos)
1 (northwest_pos)
2 (north_pos)
3 (northeast pos)
4 (east pos)
5 (southeast pos)
6 (south pos)
7 (southwest pos)
8 (west_pos).
```
user label

an attribute of type string defining the user label of the node.

We close this section with an example of a node attribute line that describes a circle node at position (189, 260) with border color black, border width 0.5, horizontal and vertical radius 12, interior color *ivory*, label type *index label*, label position east pos, and an empty user label.

# x y shape b-clr b-width radius1 radius2 clr l-type l-clr l-pos l-str 189.0 260.0 0 1 0.5 12.0 12.0 16 3 -1 4

### Edge Attributes:

The edge attribute section contains for each edge of the graph a line consisting of the following attributes (separated by blanks). More precisely, the  $i$ -th line in this section defines the attributes of the i-th edge of the graph (see section leda-format).

width

an attribute of type double defining the width of the edge.

color

an attribute of type color defining the color of the edge.

shape

an attribute of type int defining the shape of the edge. Possible values (see gw edge shape of GraphWin) are

```
0 (poly_edge)
1 (circle edge)
2 (bezier edge)
3 (spline edge).
```
style

an attribute of type int defining the line style of the edge. Possible values (see the LEDA line\_style type) are

```
o (solid)
```

```
1 (dashed)
```

```
2 (dotted)
```

```
3 (dashed_dotted).
```
#### direction

an attribute of type int defining whether the edge is drawn as a directed or an undirected edge. Possible values (see gw edge dir of GraphWin) are

```
0 (undirected edge)
```
- 1 (directed edge) 2 (redirected edge)
- 3 (bidirected edge).

### label type

an attribute of type int defining the label type of the edge. Possible values (see gw label type of GraphWin) are

```
0 (no label)
1 (user label)
```

```
2 (data label)
```
3 (index label).

## label color

an attribute of type int defining the color of the edge label. See the LEDA color type for possible values.

### label position

an attribute of type int defining the position of the label. Possible values (see gw position of GraphWin) are

 $0$  (central  $pos$ ) 4 (east pos)  $8$  (west\_pos  $blue$ ).

## polyline

an attribute of type *list*  $\langle$  point  $\rangle$  defining the polyline used to draw the edge. The list is represented by the number n of elements followed by n points  $(x_i, y_i)$ for  $i = 1...n$ . The first element of the list is the point where the edge leaves the interior of the source node, the last element is the point where the edge enters the interior of the target node. The remaining elements give the sequence of bends (or control points in case of a bezier or spline edge).

#### user label

an attribute of type string defining the user label of the edge.

We close this section with an example of an edge attribute line that describes a blue solid polygon edge of width 0.5 drawn directed from source to target, with a black user-defined label "my label" at position *east pos*, centered source and target anchors, and with a bend at position (250, 265).

```
# width clr shape style dir ltype lclr lpos sanch tanch poly lstr
  0.5 \quad 4 \quad 0 \qquad 0 \qquad 1 \quad 1 \qquad 1 \qquad 4 \qquad (0,0) \quad (0,0) \quad 3 \quad (202.0,262.0) \quad (250.0,265.0)
```
# 15.7.1 A complete example

LEDA.GRAPH

```
void
void
5
|{ }|{}|
|{}1||{}|
|{ }7
1 2 0 |{}|
1 3 0 |{}|
2 3 0 |{}|
3 4 0 |{}|
3 5 0 |{}|
4 5 0 |{}|
5 1 0 |{}|
# version string
GraphWin 1.320000
# scaling wxmin wymin wxmax wymax
1.117676 -10 -5.6875 499.8828 517.6133
# node label font and size
0 13.6121
# edge label font and size
0 11.79715
# node index format
%d
# edge index format
%d
# multi-edge distance
4.537367
#
# node infos
# x y shape bclr bwidth r1 r2 clr ltype lclr lpos lstr
189.4805 260.8828 0 1 0.544484 12.70463 12.70463 16 4 -1 4
341.5508 276.0898 0 1 0.544484 12.70463 12.70463 16 4 -1 4
384.4883 175.9023 0 1 0.544484 12.70463 12.70463 16 4 -1 4
294.1406 114.1797 0 1 0.544484 12.70463 12.70463 16 4 -1 4
186.7969 114.1797 0 1 0.544484 12.70463 12.70463 16 4 -1 4
#
# edge infos
# width clr shape style dir ltype lclr lpos sanch tanch poly lstr
0.9074733 1 0 0 1 1 1 5 (0,0) (0,0) 2 (202.122,262.147) (328.9092,274.8257)
0.9074733 1 0 0 1 1 1 5 (0,0) (0,0) 2 (201.1272,255.8074) (372.8415,180.9778)
0.9074733 1 0 0 1 1 1 5 (0,0) (0,0) 2 (346.5554,264.4124) (379.4837,187.5797)
0.9074733 1 0 0 1 1 1 5 (0,0) (0,0) 2 (373.998,168.7357) (304.6309,121.3463)
0.9074733 1 0 0 1 1 1 5 (0,0) (0,0) 2 (372.361,172.116) (198.9242,117.966)
0.9074733 1 0 0 1 1 1 5 (0,0) (0,0) 2 (281.436,114.1797) (199.5015,114.1797)
```
0.9074733 1 0 0 1 1 1 5 (0,0) (0,0) 2 (187.0292,126.8822) (189.2481,248.1803)

# 15.8 Geometry Windows ( GeoWin )

# 1. Definition

An instance of data type GeoWin is an editor for sets of geometric objects. It can be used for the visualization of result and progression of geometric algorithms. GeoWin provides an interactive interface and a programming interface to visualize and manipulate geometric objects and data structures.

Sets of geometric objects are maintained in so-called scenes.

## Scenes

Scenes are instances of the various scene data types supported by GeoWin. They are used to store collections of geometric objects and attributes of the objects and collections. Furthermore the scene classes have to provide functionality for  $GeoWin$  to handle the geometric objects of a scene.

Each scene stores geometric objects in a container (a LEDA-list or STL-list). We call these geometric objects stored in a container of a *scene* the *contents* of a scene. The scenes and their contents can be manipulated by the interactive interface and the programming interface of GeoWin.

With every *scene* a set of attributes is associated. Most of them describe the visual representation of the scene, for instance the boundary- and fill-color of the objects, the visibility of the scene,... .

We use the type  $q\neq$  scene as the scene item type of  $GeoWin$ ; it may be helpful to view it as pointers to scenes.

We distinguish the following types of scene classes:

# 1. Edit Scenes (type GeoEditScene<CONTAINER>)

where *CONTAINER* is the type of the scene's container storing the contents of the scene, for instance *list*  $\epsilon$  *point*. These scenes can be edited by the user through the interactive interface of  $GeoWin$ . Note that edit scenes have some special features. An important feature is the possibility to select objects through the interactive interface. These selected objects have special attributes, see the table of scene attributes.

2. Result Scenes (type GeoResultScene<I, R>)

These scenes are not independently editable by the user. The contents of result scenes is computed by a user-defined update function or update object executing a geometric algorithm. This recomputation of the scene contents will be done every time when another scene (this other scene we call the input scene of the result scene)

changes. The contents of the result scene is stored in a container of type  $R$ . The input scene must be a Basic Scene with a container of type I. The update function void  $(*f\_update)(const \, I\& input, R\& result)$  gets the contents of this input scene and computes the contents result of the result scene. We say that the result scene depends on its input scene.

3. Basic Scenes (type GeoBaseScene<CONTAINER>)

Edit Scenes and Result Scenes are derived from Basic Scenes. The basic scene type works on container types providing an interface as the list of the STL library. More precisely, CONTAINER has to support the following type definitions and STL-like operations:

- value\_type the type  $T$  of the values the container holds
- *iterator*
- operations *begin*() and end() returning an iterator that can be used for begining (ending) the traversal of the container
- void push back(const  $T\&$ ) for inserting an element at the end of the container
- *iterator insert*(*iterator it, const T*&) for inserting an element (before *it*)
- void erase(*iterator it*) for erasing an element at position it
- operation *bool* empty() returning true if the container is empty, false otherwise

That means, that LEDA lists can be used as well as containers.

The programming interface of GeoWin provides various operations to create Edit Scenes and Result Scenes. Basic Scenes are not created directly by the operations of the programming interface, but they are used for derivation of the other scene types, and we will find them in the programming interface, when both Edit and Result Scenes are supported by an operation.

## GeoWin - class

We explain some important terms of the GeoWin data type. Every instance GW of GeoWin can maintain a number of geo\_scenes.

Visible scenes will be displayed by  $GW$ , non-visible scenes will not be displayed. Displayed means, that the contents of the scene will be displayed. A special case is the active scene of GW . Every GeoWin can have at most one active scene. The active scene is an Edit Scene with input focus. That means that this scene is currently edited by the user through the interactive interface. Note that the currently active scene will be displayed.

Another important topic is the display order of scenes. Every scene has an associated non-negative z-coordinate. When a scene is created, it gets z-coordinate 0. When  $GW$ redraws a scene, the contents of this scene and the contents of its visible dependent scenes is drawn. In the redraw-operation of GeoWin the scenes with higher z-coordinates will be drawn in the background of scenes with lower z-coordinate.The scenes with z-coordinate 0 will be drawn on top in the order of their creation in its instance of  $GeoWin$  (the scene, that was created last and has z-coordinae 0 is the scene on top).

## Attributes of scenes

The following attributes are associated with every scene.



## Attributes and parameters of instances of GeoWin

Every instance of type GeoWin uses the following attributes and parameters. The parameters starting with  $d3$  are influencing the 3-d output option of  $GeoWin$ . This 3-d output option uses the LEDA-class  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -window for displaying geometric objects. See also the  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -window - Manualpages for a description of the 3-d output parameters.



#### The geometric objects

The objects stored in the containers of the scenes have to support input and output operators for streams and the LEDA window and the output operator to the ps file.

#### Manual overview

The following manual pages have this structure:

- a) Main operations (creation of scenes)
- b) Window operations (initialization of the drawing window)
- c) Scenes and scene groups (get/set operations for changing attributes)
- d) I/O operations
- e) View operations (zooming)
- f) Parameter operations (get/set operations for instances of type  $GeoWin$ )
- g) Event handling
- h) Scene group operations
- i) Further operations (changing of the user interface, 3d output, ...)

 $\#include \leq EDA/graphics/geown.$ h >

#### 2. Creation

 $GeoWin$  GW (const char  $*$  label = "GEOWIN"); creates a GeoWin GW. GW is constructed with frame label label

 $GeoWin$   $GW(int w, int h, const char * label = "GEOWN");$ creates a GeoWin GW with frame label *label* and window size  $w \times h$ pixels.

#### 3. Operations

#### a) Main Operations

In this section you find operations for creating scenes and for starting the interactive mode of GeoWin.

The new scene and get objects operations use member templates. If your compiler does not support member templates, you should use instead the templated functions geowin new scene and geowin get objects with GW as an additional first parameter.

All new scene operations can get as an optional last parameter a pointer to a function that is used to compute the three-dimensional output of the scene. The type of such a function pointer  $f$  is

```
void (*f)(const T&, d3_window&, GRAPH<d3-point, int>&))
```
where T is the type of the container used in the scene (for instance  $list *point*$ ). The function gets a reference to the container of it's scene, a reference to the output  $d\mathcal{Z}$  window and to the parametrized graph describing the three-dimensional output. The function usually adds new nodes and edges to this graph. Note that every edge in the graph must have a reversal edge ( and the reversal information has to be set). Example:

```
void segments_d3(const list<segment>& L,d3_window& W,
                 GRAPH<d3_point,int>& H)
{
 GRAPH<d3_point,int> G;
 segment iter;
 forall(iter,L) {
   node v1 = G.new_node(d3_point(iter.source().xcoord(),
                                  iter.source().ycoord(),0));
   node v2 = G.new_node(d3_point(iter.target().xcoord(),
                                  iter.target().ycoord(),0));
   edge e1 = G.new\_edge(v1, v2);
   edge e2 = G.new\_edge(v2,v1);G.set reversal(e1.e2);
 }
H.join(G);
}
```
In this simple example the function gets a list of segments. For every segment in the list two new nodes and two new edges are created. The reversal information is set for the two edges. At the end the local graph  $G$  is merged into  $H$ .

The following templated *new scene* operation can be used to create edit scenes. The CONTAINER has to be a list  $\langle T \rangle$ , where T is one of the following 2d LEDA kernel type

- $\bullet$  (rat) point
- $\bullet$  (rat\_)seqment
- $\bullet$  (rat\_)line
- $(rat) circle$
- $\bullet$  (rat\_)polygon

#### •  $(rat$ -)gen\_polygon

or a  $d\mathcal{Z}_{point}$  or a  $d\mathcal{Z}_{rat\_point}$ . If you want to use the other 2d LEDA kernel types, you have to include *geowin init.h* and to initialize them for usage in  $GeoWin$  by calling the *geowin init default type* function at the beginning of main (before an object of data type GW is constructed). If you want to use the other 3d LEDA kernel types, you have to include geowin init  $d3.h$  and to initialize them for usage in  $GeoW$  by calling the geowin init default type function at the beginning of main (before an object of data type GW is constructed).

template <*class CONTAINER*> GeoEditScene<CONTAINER>∗ GW.new scene(CONTAINER& c)

> creates a new edit scene and returns a pointer to the created scene. c will be the container storing the contents of the scene.

template <*class CONTAINER*> GeoEditScene<CONTAINER>∗ GW.new\_scene(CONTAINER& c, string str,  $D3$ <sub>FCN</sub>  $f$ )

> creates a new edit scene and returns a pointer to the created scene. c will be the container storing the contents of the scene. The name of the scene will be set to str.

The following *new scene* operations can be used to create result scenes. Result scenes use the contents of another scene (the input scene) as input for a function (the update function). This function computes the contents of the result scene. The update function is called every time when the contents of the input scene changes. Instead of using an update function you can use an update object that encapsulates an update function. The type of this update object has to be *geowin update*  $I$ ,  $R$  (*I* - type of the container in the input scene,  $R$  - type of the container in the result scene) or a class derived from it. A derived class should overwrite the virtual update function

void update(const I& in, R& out)

of the base class to provide a user defined update function. The class geowin update  $\leq I, R$ has 3 constructors getting function pointers as arguments:

qeowin\_update(void  $(*f)(const \; I& in, R& res)$ 

 $geown\_update(void (\ast f)(const \, I\& in, R:: value\_type \& obj)$ 

 $geown\_update(R::value\_type(*f)(const \; I\&\; in)$ 

When the update object is constructed by calling the constructor with one of these function pointers, the function  $(*f)$  will be called in the update method of the update object. The first variant is the normal update function that gets the contents in of the input scene and computes the contents res of the output scene. In the second variant the contents of the result scene will first be cleared, then the update function will be called and obj will be inserted in the result scene. In the third variant the contents of the result scene will be cleared, and then the object returned by  $(*f)$  will be inserted in the result scene. The class *geowin\_update* has also the following virtual functions:

bool insert(const InpObject& new)

bool del(const InpObject& new)

bool change(const InpObject& old\_obj, const InpObject& new\_obj)

where new is a new inserted or deleted object and  $\textit{old\_obj}$  and new  $\textit{obj}$  are objects before and after a change. InpObject is the value type of the container of the input scene. With these functions it is possible to support incremental algorithms. The functions will be called, when in the input scene new objects are added *(insert)*, deleted *(del)* or changed when performing a move or rotate operation (change). In the base class *geowin update*  $\leq I$ ,  $R$  these functions return *false*. That means, that the standard updatefunction of the update object should be used. But in derived classes it is possible to overwrite these functions and provide user-defined update operations for these three incremental operations. Then the function has to return true. That means, that the standard update function of the update object should not be used. Instead the incremental operation performs the update-operation.

It is also possible to provide user defined redraw for a scene. For this purpose we use redraw objects derived from *geowin\_redraw*. The derived class has to overwrite the virtual redraw function

void draw(window & W, color c1, color c2, double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2)

of the base class to provide a user defined redraw function. The first 3 parameters of this function are the redraw window and the first and second drawing color (*color* and *color2*) of the scene. The class geowin redraw has also a virtual method

 $bool \ draw\_container()$ 

that returns false in the base class. If you want the user defined redraw of the scene (provided by the redraw function draw) and the execution of the 'normal' redraw of the scene as well (output of the objects stored in the container of the scene), you have to overwrite *draw\_container* in a derived class by a function returning true. A virtual method

bool write postscript(ps file & PS, color c1, color c2)

is provided for output to a LEDA postscript file  $PS$ . c1 and c2 are the first and second drawing color (*color* and *color2*) of the scene. Another class that can be used for user defined redraw is the templated class *geowin\_redraw\_container*<*CONTAINER*>. This class has as well virtual functions for redraw and postscript output, but provides a slighly changed interface:

bool draw(const CONTAINER& c, window & w, color c1, color c2, double, double, double, double)

bool write postscript(const CONTAINER& c, ps file  $\&$  ps, color c1, color c2)

The parameters of these two virtual functions are like the parameters of the members with the same name of *geowin redraw*, but there is an additional first parameter. This parameter is a reference to the container of the scene that has to be redrawn.

In update- and redraw- functions and objects the following static member functions of the GeoWin class can be used:

 $Geo Win * GeoWin:: qet\_call\_qeown( )$  $geo\_scene$   $Geo Win::get\_call\_scene()$  $geo\_scene$   $Geo Win::get\_call\_input\_scene()$ 

The first function returns a pointer to the  $GeoWin$  of the calling scene, the second returns the calling scene and the third (only usable in update functions/ objects) returns the input scene of the calling scene.

Note that S and R in the following operations are template parameters. S and R have to be a list  $(T)$ , where T is a 2d LEDA kernel type, a  $d3$ -point or a  $d3$ -rat point. S is the type of the contents of the input scene, R the type of the contents of the created result scene. All operations creating result scenes return a pointer to the created result scene.

This section contains three small example programs showing you the usage of the new scene operations for the creation of result scenes. All example programs compute the convex hull of a set of points stored in the container of an input scene *sc points* and store the computed hull in a result scene schull.

```
template \langle \text{class } S, \text{class } R \rangleGeoResultscence < S, R and GW.new\_scene(void (*f\_update)(const S\&, R\&), geo\_scene sc,string str, D3_FCN f = NULLcreates a new result scene with name str. The input
                                      scene for this new result scene will be sc. The update
                                      function will be f-update.
```
The first example program shows the usage of the *new scene* operation taking an update function pointer. The update function computes the convex hull of the points stored in the input scene. The result polygon will be inserted in the container P of the result scene.

```
#include <LEDA/graphics/geowin.h>
#include <LEDA/geo/float_geo_alg.h>
using namespace leda;
void convex_hull(const list<point>& L, list<polygon>& P)
{ P.clear(); P.append(CONVEX_HULL_POLY(L)); }
int main()
{
 GeoWin gw;
 list<point> LP;
```

```
geo_scene sc_points = gw.new_scene(LP);
 geo_scene sc_hull = gw.new_scene(convex_hull, sc_points, "Convex hull");
 gw.set_color(sc_hull, blue);
 gw.set_visible(sc_hull, true);
 gw.edit(sc_points);
 return 0;
}
```
template  $\langle \text{class } S, \text{class } R \rangle$  $GeoResultScene < S, R$  >  $\diamond$  GW.new scene(geowin update  $\leq S, R$  > & up, list  $\leq q$  eo scene > & infl.

string str, D3\_FCN  $f = NULL$ creates a new result scene scr with name str. The input scene for this new result scene will be the first scene in  $\inf$ . The update object will be up. up has to be constructed by a call  $up(tu, 0)$ , where fu is a function of type *void* fu(const  $C0\&$ , const  $C1\&$ , ..., const Cn&, R&). infl is a list of scenes influencing the result scene.  $C_0, \ldots, C_n$  are the types of the containers of the scenes in  $\inf$ . When one of the scenes in  $\inf$ changes, fu will be called to update the contents of scr. Precondition: infl must not be empty.

template  $\langle \text{class } S, \text{class } R \rangle$  $GeoResultScene < S, R$   $\rightarrow$   $GW$ .new scene(qeowin update  $\leq S, R$   $\geq$  & up, qeo scene sc input, string str, D3\_FCN  $f = NULL$ 

> creates a new result scene with name str. The input scene for this new result scene will be *sc\_input*. The update object will be up.

The second variant of the example program uses an update object *update*.

```
#include <LEDA/graphics/geowin.h>
#include <LEDA/geo/float_geo_alg.h>
using namespace leda;
int main()
{
GeoWin gw;
 list<point> LP;
 geo_scene sc_points = gw.new_scene(LP);
 geowin_update<list<point>, list<polygon> > update(CONVEX_HULL_POLY);
 geo_scene sc_hull = gw.new_scene(update, sc_points, "Convex hull");
 gw.set_color(sc_hull, blue);
 gw.set_visible(sc_hull, true);
 gw.edit(sc_points);
```
return 0; }

template  $\langle \text{class } S, \text{class } R \rangle$ void  $GW.\text{set.update}(geo\_scene\ res,geom\_update\!<\!S,R\!\!>\&up)$ makes up the update object of res. Precondition: res points to a scene of type  $GeoResultScene\leq S, R$ . template  $\langle \text{class } S, \text{class } R \rangle$ void  $GW.\text{set.update}(geo\_scene\ res, \ void \ (*f\_update)(const \ Sk \ R\ \ R) )$ makes *f\_update* the update function of res. Precondition: res points to a scene of type  $GeoResultScene < S, R$ template  $\langle \text{class } S, \text{class } R \rangle$  $GeoResultsCene\leq S, R\geq K GW.$ new scene(qeowin update $\leq S, R\geq K$  up, qeowin redraw  $K$ rd, geo\_scene sc\_input, string str,  $D3\_FCN f = NULL$ creates a new result scene with name *str*. The input scene for this new result scene will be *sc* input. The update object will be ub. The redraw object will be rd.

The third variant of the example program uses an update and redraw object. We provide a user defined class for update and redraw of the result scene.

```
#include <LEDA/graphics/geowin.h>
#include <LEDA/geo/float_geo_alg.h>
using namespace leda;
class hull_update_redraw : public geowin_update<list<point>, list<polygon>>>,
                           public geowin_redraw
{
list<polygon> polys;
public:
 void update(const list<point>& L, list<polygon>& P)
 {
 polys.clear();
 polys.append(CONVEX_HULL_POLY(L));
 }
 void draw(window& W,color c1,color c2,double x1,double y1,double x2,double y2)
 {
 polygon piter;
 segment seg;
 forall(piter, polys){
   forall_segments(seg, piter){
     W.draw_arrow(seg, c1);
    }
  }
```

```
}
};
int main()
{
 GeoWin gw;
 list<point> LP;
 geo_scene sc_points = gw.new_scene(LP);
 hull_update_redraw up_rd;
 geo_scene sc_hull = gw.new_scene(up_rd, up_rd, sc_points, "Convex hull");
 gw.set_color(sc_hull, blue);
 gw.set_visible(sc_hull, true);
 gw.edit(sc_points);
return 0;
}
```
template  $\langle \text{class } S, \text{class } R \rangle$  $GeoResultsCene < S, R$  >  $W$ .new scene(qeowin\_update < S, R > & up,

> $q\text{e}owin\_redraw\_container \leq R \geq \& rd$ ,  $q\acute{e}o$ -scene sc input, string str,  $D3$ <sub>-FCN</sub>  $f = NULL$

creates a new result scene with name str. The input scene for this new result scene will be *scinput*. The update object will be ub. The redraw container object will be rd.

template <*class CONTAINER*> bool  $GW.get\_objects(CONTAINER& c)$ 

> If the container storing the contents of the current edit scene has type CONTAINER, then the contents of this scene is copied to c.

template <*class CONTAINER*>

bool GW.get\_objects(geo\_scene sc, CONTAINER& c)

If the container storing the contents of scene sc has type CONTAINER, then the contents of scene sc is copied to c.

template <class CONTAINER>

void GW.get\_selected\_objects(GeoEditScene<CONTAINER> ∗ sc, CONTAINER& cnt) returns the selected objects of scene sc in container

cnt.

template <*class CONTAINER*>



#### Simple Animations

The following operation can be used to perform simple animations. One can animate the movement of selected objects of a scene. This can be done in the following way: select a number of objects in an edit scene; then start the animation by calling the animate member function. The second parameter of this member function is an object *anim* of type *geowin animation*, the first parameter is the scene that will be animated. The object anim has to be derived from the abstract base class *geowin\_animation*. The derived class has to overwrite some methods of the base class:

```
class geowin_animation {
public:
 virtual void init(const GeoWin&) { }
 virtual void finish(const GeoWin&) { }
```

```
virtual bool is_running(const GeoWin&) { return true; }
 virtual point get_next_point(const GeoWin&) = 0;
virtual long get_next_action(const GeoWin&)
{ return GEOWIN_STOP_MOVE_SELECTED; }
};
```
At the start and at the end of an animation the member functions *init* and  $finish$ are called. The animation is stopped if *is\_running* returns false. The member functions get next point and get next action specify the animation. get next point delivers the next point of the animation path. *get\_next\_action* currently can return two values: GEOWIN\_MOVE\_SELECTED (moves the selected objects of the scene) and GEOWIN STOP MOVE SELECTED (stops the movement of the selected objects of the scene).

```
bool GW.animate(geo_scene sc, geowin_animation& anim)
                              starts animation anim for edit scene sc.
```
### b) Window Operations





c) Scene and scene group Operations


In front of the scenes of a  $GeoWin$  object a so-called "user layer" can store some geometric objects illustrating scenes. The following functions let you add some of these objects.



The following get and set operations can be used for retrieving and changing scene parameters. All set operations return the previous value.

string  $GW.get_name(geo\_scene sc)$ 

returns the name of scene sc.





returns the visible flag of scene sc.





 $qeown\_defining\_points$   $GW.get\_handle\_defining\_points(qeo\_scene sc)$ returns the attribute for handling of defining points of editable scene (∗sc).

The following operations can be used for getting/setting a flag influencing the behaviour of incremental update operations in result scenes. If update state is true (default) : if the first incremental operation returns false , incremental update loop will be left false: the incremental update loop will be executed until the end You can also set an *update\_limit* for the incremental update operations. If a number of

objects bigger than this limit will be added/deleted/changed, the incremental update will not be executed. Instead the "normal" scene update operation will be used.



It is not only possible to assign (graphical) attributes to a whole scene.

The following operations can be used to set/get individual attributes of objects in scenes. All set operations return the previous value. The first parameter is the scene, where the object belongs to. The second parameter is a generic pointer to the object or an iterator pointing to the position of the object in the container of a scene. Precondition: the object belongs to the scene (is in the container of the scene).

Note that you cannot use a pointer to a copy of the object.

The following example program demonstrates the setting of individual object attributes in an update member function of an update class:

```
#include <LEDA/graphics/geowin.h>
#include <LEDA/geo/rat_geo_alg.h>
using namespace leda;
class attr_update : public geowin_update<list<rat_point>, list<rat_circle>>
{
 void update(const list<rat_point>& L, list<rat_circle>& C)
 {
 GeoWin* GW_ptr = GeoWin::get_call_geowin();
 GeoBaseScene<list<rat_circle> >* aec =
   (GeoBaseScene<list<rat_circle> >*) GeoWin::get_call_scene();
  C.clear();
  if (! L.empty()) {
    ALL_EMPTY_CIRCLES(L,C);
    // now set some attributes
    list<rat_circle>::iterator it = C.begin();
    int cw=0;
    for(;it!=C.end();it++) {
      GW_ptr->set_obj_fill_color(aec,it,color(cw % 15));
      GW_ptr->set_obj_color(aec,it,color(cw % 10));
      cw++:
    }
 }
}
};
int main()
{
  GeoWin GW("All empty circles - object attribute test");
 list<rat_point> L;
  geo_scene input = GW.new_scene(L);
 GW.set_point_style(input, disc_point);
  attr_update aec_help;
  geo_scene aec = GW.new_scene(aec_help, input, string("All empty circles"));
 GW.set_all_visible(true);
 GW.edit(input);
  return 0;
}
template \langle \text{class } T \ranglecolor \qquad \qquad GW.get\_object(GeoBaseScene \leq T\geq * sc, void * adr)returns the boundary color of the object at (*adr).
template \langle \text{class } T \ranglecolor GW.get\_object(GeoBaseScore \leq T) * sc, typename T::iterator it)
                                     returns the boundary color of the object it points to.
template \langle \text{class } T \rangle
```






string  $GW.\text{set\_ob}$  [label( $GeoBaseScore < T$ ) \* sc, typename  $T::iterator$  it, string lb) sets the label of the object it points to to lb.

#### Object texts

The following operations can be used to add/retrieve objects of type *geowin-text* to objects in scenes. The class *geowin\_text* is used to store graphical representations of texts. It stores a string (the text) and the following attributes:



The enumeration type *geowin font type* has the following set of integral constants: roman font, bold font, italic font, fixed font and user font. The class *geowin\_text* has the following constructors:

geowin\_text(string t, double ox, double oy, geowin\_font\_type ft, double  $sz$ , string uf, color  $c = black$ ; geowin\_text(string t, geowin\_font\_type ft, double sz); geowin\_text(string t);

The arguments are:  $t$  - the text,  $\partial x$ ,  $\partial y$  - the x/y offsets,  $ft$  - the font type,  $sz$  - the font size,  $uf$  - the user font and  $c$  - the text color. If a text is associated with an object, it will be drawn centered at the center of the bounding box of the object translated by the  $x/y$  - offset parameters. Note that it is also possible to add texts to a whole scene and to instances of class  $GeoWin$ . Then the  $x/y$  - offset parameters specify the position (see add\_text operation).

```
template \langle \text{class } T \ranglebool GW.get\_objtext(<math>GeoBaseScore < T</math>)* <math>sc</math>, <math>void * adr</math>, <math>geovin.text&gt; gt</math>)
```
Gets the text associated with the object at *adr* in the container of scene sc and assigns it to  $qt$ . If no text is associated with the object, false will be returned, otherwise true.



#### d) Input and Output Operations



#### e) View Operations



#### f) Parameter Operations

The following operations allow the set and retrieve the various parameters of GeoWin.



### bool  $GW.set.show\_position(bool sp)$

sets the show position flag to sp and returns the previous value.

The following operations set or return various parameters that are used in the threedimensional output of  $GeoWin$ . The three-dimensional output can be started by pressing the Show D3 Output button in the Window menu.



#### g) Handling of events

GeoWin provides operations for changing its default handling of events. As in *GraphWin* (cf. Section 15.6) the user can define what action should follow a mouse or key event. Constants are defined as in GraphWin :

- A\_LEFT (left mouse-button)
- A\_MIDDLE (middle mouse-button)
- A\_RIGHT (right mouse-button)
- A\_SHIFT (shift-key)
- A\_CTRL (control-key)
- $A_ALT$  (alt-key)
- A DOUBLE (double click)
- A\_DRAG (button not released)
- A IMMEDIATE (do it immediatly without dragging or double click check)
- A OBJECT (editable object at mouse position).

and can be combined with OR  $( )$ .

void  $GW.\text{set}\text{action}(long\;mask,\;geo\text{-}action\;f=0)$ 

set action on condition mask to f. geo-action is a function of type *void*  $(*)(GeoWink, const point \&).$ For  $f = 0$  the corresponding action is deleted.

```
geo\_action GW.get\text{action}(long\ mask)
```
get action defined for condition mask.

*void*  $GW.\text{reset}$  actions est all actions to their default values.

Default values are defined as follows :

- A LEFT or A LEFT | A OBJECT read a new object at mouse position.
- $\bullet$  A LEFT  $A$  DRAG scrolling the window.
- $\bullet$  A LEFT | A DRAG | A OBJECT move the object.
- $\bullet$  A\_LEFT | A\_CTRL pin current scene at mouse position or delete the pin point if it is currently there.
- A\_MIDDLE | A\_OBJECT toggle the selection state of the object at mouse position.
- $\bullet$  A\_MIDDLE | A\_DRAG toggle the selection state of the objects in the dragging area.
- $\bullet$  A RIGHT | A IMMEDIATE set the options of the currently active scene.
- $\bullet$  A\_RIGHT | A\_IMMEDIATE | A\_OBJECT opens a menu for the object at mouse position.

void  $GW$ .clear\_actions() clears all actions.

#### Scene events

The following event handling functions can be set for edit scenes:

- Pre add handler
- Pre add change handler
- Post add handler
- Pre delete handler
- Post delete handler
- Start, Pre, Post and End change handler

The add handlers will be called when a user tries to add an object to an edit scene in GeoWin, the delete handlers will be called when the user tries to delete an object and the change handlers will be called when the user tries to change an object (for instance by moving it). The templated set operations for setting handlers uses member templates. If your compiler does not support member templates, you should use instead the templated functions geowin set HANDLER, where HANDLER is one the following handlers. All handling functions get as the first parameter a reference to the  $GeoWin$ , where the scene belongs to.

```
template \langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \ranglebool GW.set_pre_add_handler(GeoEditScene<T>* sc, F handler)
```
sets the handler that is called before an object is added to (∗sc). handler must have type bool  $(*handler)$  (GeoWin&, const T:: value\_type &).<br>handler gets a reference to the added object. If handler gets a reference to the added object. handler returns false, the object will not be added to the scene.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$ 

 $bool$   $GW.set\_post.add}$  handler( $GeoEdits$ cene<T>  $*$  sc, F handler)

sets the handler that is called after an object is added to (∗sc). handler must have type void  $(*handler)(Geo Wink, const T:: value_type &).$ handler gets a reference to the added object.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$ 

 $bool$  GW.set pre del handler (GeoEditScene<T>  $*$  sc, F handler)

sets the handler that is called before an object is deleted from (∗sc). handler must have type bool  $(*handler)$  (Geo Win &, const T: value\_type &). handler gets a reference to the added object. If handler returns true, the object will be deleted, if handler returns false, the object will not be deleted.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$  $bool$  GW.set post del handler (GeoEditScene<T>  $*$  sc, F handler)

> sets the handler that is called after an object is deleted from (∗sc). handler must have type void  $(*handler)$  (GeoWin&, const T: value\_type &).

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$  $bool$   $GW.set.start-change handler(GeeEdittSee7 \rightarrow sc. F \; handler)$ 

> sets the handler that is called when a geometric object from (∗sc) starts changing (for instance when you move it or rotate it). handler must have type bool  $(*handler)$  (Geo Win &, const T: value\_type &). The handler function gets a reference to the object.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$  $bool$  GW.set pre move handler ( $GeoEditscene < T$ ) \* sc, F handler )

> sets the handler that is called before every move operation. handler must have type bool  $(*handler)$ (GeoWin&, const T:: value\_type &, *double x, double y*). The handler gets as the second parameter a reference to the object, as the third parameter and fourth parameter the move vector. If the handler returns true, the change operation will be executed, if the handler returns false, it will not be executed.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$ bool  $GW.\text{set-post\_move}$  handler( $GeoEdit Score \ll T$   $*$   $sc$ , F handler)

> sets the handler that is called after every move operation. *handler* must have type void  $(*handler)(Geo\nWink, const T:: value_type &,$ double x, double y). The handler gets as the second parameter a reference to the object, as the third parameter and fourth parameter the move vector.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$  $bool$   $GW.set{\text{-}}pre$  rotate handler( $GeoEdits$ cene< $T$ >  $*$  sc,  $F$  handler)

> sets the handler that is called before every rotate operation. handler must have type bool  $(*handler)(Geo\nWink, const T:: value_type &,$ double x, double y, double a). If the handler returns true, the rotate operation will be executed, if the handler returns false, it will not be executed.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$ 

 $bool$  GW.set post rotate handler ( $GeoEditscene < T$ ) \* sc, F handler

sets the handler that is called after every rotate operation. handler must have type void  $(*handler)$  (GeoWin&, const T:: value\_type&, double x, double x, double  $a$ ).

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } F \rangle$ 

 $bool$  GW.set end change handler (GeoEditScene<T>  $*$  sc, F handler)

sets the handler that is called when a geometric object from (∗sc) ends changing. handler gets the object as the second parameter. handler must have type void  $(*handler)$  (GeoWin&, const T:: value\_type &).

Generator functions: The following operation can be used to set a generator function for an edit scene. The operation uses member templates. If your compiler does not support member templates, you should use instead the templated function *geowin\_set\_generate\_fcn*.



Editing of objects in a scene: It is possible to edit single objects in an editable scene. For this purpose an *edit<sub>robject* - function can be set for editable scenes. This function has</sub> type

void  $(*f)(Geo\,W\hat{\mathit{nk}}\,q\mathit{w},\mathit{T\&\,obj,\,int\,\mathit{nr})$ 

where gw is the  $GeoWin$ -object where the scene belongs to,  $obj$  is a reference to the object that will be edited and nr is the edit mode of the scene.

template  $\langle \text{class } T, \text{class } T \rangle$ bool  $GW.\text{set\_edit\_object\_fcn}(GeoEditscence < T\text{~} * sc, T2 \text{~} f)$ 

sets the edit object - function of scene sc to f.

template  $\langle \text{class } T \rangle$ void∗ GW.get edit object fcn(GeoEditScene<T> ∗ sc)

returns the edit object - function of scene sc .

#### Transformation objects:

GeoWin supports affine transformations of selected objects in editable scenes for the LEDA rat- and float-kernel classes. The used transformation classes are rat transform and transform respectively. The following class templates can be used to instantiate transformation objects. They are derived from type *qeowin\_transform*.

```
geowin_gui_rat_transform<KERNEL_CLASS>
geowin_gui_transform<KERNEL_CLASS>
```
where KERNEL CLASS is a class of the LEDA rat- or float-kernel. The default is that no transformation objects are associated with editable scenes.

```
template \langle class S, class \text{Geo} Obj \ranglevoid GW.set_{transform}(GeoEditScene < S\ * sc,
                                   geown\_transform \le GeoObj \ge \& trans)makes trans the transformation object of edit scene
                                      sc.
```
Input objects: The following operation can be used to set an input object for an edit scene. The operation uses member templates. If your compiler does not support member templates, you should use instead the templated functions prefixed with geowin. A GeoInputObject<GeoObj> has the following virtual functions:

```
void operator( )(GeoWin& gw, list<GeoObj>& L);
```
This virtual function is called for the input of objects. The new objects have to be returned in L.

```
void options(GeoWin& gw);
```
This function is called for setting options for the input object.

```
template \langle \text{class } T \ranglebool GW.\text{set} input object(GeoEditScene \leq T> * sc,
                                       const GeolnputObject \leq type name \ T:: value_type \geq \& obj,string name)
                                       sets the input object obj for edit scene (*sc). The
                                       function gets the GeoWin where (∗sc) belongs to and
                                       a reference to a list L. The function must write the
                                       new objects to L.
template \langle \text{class } T \ranglebool GW.add input object(GeoEdit Scene \leq T\geq *sc,const GeolnputObject \leq type name \ T::value\_type \geq \& obj,
```
string name) adds the input object *obj* to the list of available input objects of edit scene  $(*sc)$  without setting *obj* as input object.

template  $\langle \text{class } T \rangle$ 



#### h) Scene group Operations

GeoWin can manage scenes in groups. It is possible to add and remove scenes to/from groups. Various parameters and dependences can be set for whole groups. Note that geo scenegroup is a pointer to a scene group.

 $geo\_scenegroup$  GW.new scenegroup(string name)

Creates a new scene group with name name and returns a pointer to it.

geo\_scenegroup GW.new\_scenegroup(string name, const list <geo\_scene> & LS)

Creates a new scene group name and adds the scenes in LS to this group.

void GW.insert(geo\_scenegroup gs, geo\_scene sc)

adds sc to scene group gs .



You can associate a) buttons with labels or b) bitmap buttons with the visibility of a scene in GeoWin. You cannot use a) and b) at the same time. The following operations allow you to use add such visibility buttons to GeoWin. Note that before setting bitmap buttons with the set bitmap operation you have to set the button width and height.





#### void GW.set d3 fcn(geo scene sc, void (∗f)(geo scene gs, d3 window& W,  $GRAPH < d3$ -point, int>& H))

sets a function for computing 3d output. The parameters of the function are the *geo-scene* for that it will be set and a function pointer. The function  $f$  will get the scene for that it was set and the reference to a  $d3$ -window that will be the output window.

 $D3\_FCN$  GW.get\_d3.fcn(geo\_scene sc)

returns the function for computing 3d output that is set for scene sc. The returned function has pointer type *void*  $(*)$ (geo\_scene, d3\_window&,  $GRAPH < d3$ -point, int>&).

GeoWin can be pined at a point in the plane. As standard behavior it is defined that moves of geometric objects will be rotations around the pin point.



template  $\langle \text{class } T \rangle$ 

#### int  $GW.\text{set-limit}(GeoEditscence  $T$   $\rightarrow$  es, int limit)$

sets the limit of edit scene es to limit and returns the previous value.

The templated *add user call* operation uses member templates. If your compiler does not support member templates, you should use instead the templated function  $q\textit{eown}\textit{add}\textit{\_}user\textit{\_}call$  with  $GW$  as an additional first parameter.

template  $\langle \text{class } F \rangle$ void  $GW$ .add user call(*string label*,  $F f$ )

> adds a menu item label to the "User" menu of GW. The user defined function *void geo\_call(GeoWin&*,  $F$ , string) is called whenever this menu button was pressed with parameters  $GW, f$  and *label*. This menu definition has to be finished before GW is opened.

Import- and export objects can be used to import and export the contents of scenes in various formats.

The classes *geowin import* and *geowin export* are used for implementing import- and export objects. The classes *geowin\_import* and *geowin\_export* have virtual  $( )$  - operators:

virtual void operator  $((q_{eo} \text{.} \text{sc} \text{.} \text{sc}, \text{.} \text{string} \text{.} \text{filename}))$ 

This virtual operator can be overwritten in derived classes to provide import and export functionality for own formats. The first parameter is the scene sc that will be used as source for the output or target for the input. The second parameter *filename* is the name of the input (import objects) or output (export objects) file.

void GW.add import object (geo\_scene sc, geowin import & io, string name, string desc) Adds an import object io to scene sc. The import object gets the name name and the description desc. void GW.add export object (geo scene sc, geowin export & eo, string name, string desc) Adds an export object eo to scene sc. The export object gets the name name and the description desc.

#### 4. Non-Member Functions

GeoWin∗ get geowin(geo scene sc)

returns a pointer to the *GeoWin* of sc.

template <*class CONTAINER*>

bool get objects (*geo\_scene sc*,  $CONTAINER& c$ )

If the contents of scene sc matches type CONTAINER, then the contents of scene sc is copied to c.

# 15.9 Windows for 3d visualization ( d3 window )

#### 1. Definition

The data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$  window supports three-dimensional visualization. It uses a LEDA window to visualize and animate three-dimensional drawings of graph. For this purpose we need to assign positions in 3d space to all nodes of the graph (see *init*-operations and set position-operation). The edges of the visualized graph are drawn as straight-linesegments between the 3d positions of their source and target nodes. Note all edges of the graph must have a reversal edge.

If the graph to be shown is a planar map the faces can be shaded in different grey scales (if the solid flag is true).

The graph can be drawn with the *draw*-operation and animated with the *move*-operation. The draw-operation draws a frontal projection of the graph on the output window. The move-operation starts a simple animation mode. First it *draws* the graph, then it rotates it (the rotation depends on the x-rotation and y-rotation flags and the mouse position) and finally returns the pressed mouse button.

Every object of type  $d\mathcal{Z}$  window maintains a set of parameters:

- x\_rotation (type bool); if true, rotation about the x-axis is enabled during a move operation
- y rotation (type bool); if true, rotation about the y-axis is enabled during a move operation
- $elim$  (type  $bool$ ); if  $true$ , hidden lines will be eliminated
- solid (type  $bool$ ); if  $true$ , faces have to be drawn in different grey scales
- *draw\_edges* (type *bool*) enables/disables the redraw of edges
- *message* (type *string*) is the message that will be displayed on top of the drawing area of the output window

In addition, a  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -window stores information assigned to the nodes and edges of the visualized graph.

- $color$  (type  $color$ ) information for nodes and edges
- *position* (three-dimensional vectors) information for the nodes
- arrow (type bool) information for the edges (define whether or not edges have to be drawn as arrows)

 $\#include \leq EDA/graphics/d3\_window.h>$ 

#### 2. Creation

d3\_window  $D(window \& W, const\qquad graph \& G, double \thinspace rot1 = 0, double \thinspace rot2 = 0);$ 

creates an instance  $D$  of the data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$ -window. The output window of  $D$  is  $W$ . The visualized graph is  $G$ .

d3\_window  $D(\text{window} \& W, \text{ const } \text{ graph} \& G, \text{ const } \text{ node\_array} \leq \text{vector} \geq \& \text{ pos};$ creates an instance  $D$  of the data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$  window. The output window of  $D$  is  $W$ . The visualized graph is  $G$ . The positions of the nodes are given in pos. Precondition: the vectors in pos are three-dimensional.

d3\_window  $D(window \& W, const\ qraph \& G, const\ node_array \leq rat\_vector \& pos);$ 

creates an instance  $D$  of the data type  $d\mathcal{Z}$  window. The output window of  $D$  is  $W$ . The visualized graph is  $G$ . The positions of the nodes are given in pos. Precondition: the vectors in pos are three-dimensional.

#### 3. Operations





#### Get- and set-operations

The following operations can be used to get and set the parameters of D. The setoperations return the previous value of the parameter.





# Chapter 16

# Implementations

### 16.1 User Implementations

User-defined data structures can be used as actual implementation parameters provided they fulfill certain requirements.

#### 16.1.1 Dictionaries

Any class *dic impl* that provides the following operations can be used as actual implementation parameter for the  $\text{dictionary} \leq K, I, \text{dic} \leq m$  and the  $\text{d} \text{array} \leq I, E, \text{dic} \leq m$ data types (cf. sections Dictionaries and Dictionary Arrays).

```
class dic_impl {
 virtual int cmp(GenPtr, GenPtr) const = 0;
 virtual int int_type() const = 0;
 virtual void clear_key(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void clear_inf(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void copy_key(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void copy_inf(GenPtr&) const = 0;
public:
typedef ... item;
 dic_impl();
 dic_impl(const dic_impl&);
 virtual \tilde{\text{dic}}_1impl();
 dic_impl& operator=(const dic_impl&);
  GenPtr key(dic_impl_item) const;
```

```
GenPtr inf(dic_impl_item) const;
  dic_impl_item insert(GenPtr,GenPtr);
  dic_impl_item lookup(GenPtr) const;
  dic_impl_item first_item() const;
  dic_impl_item next_item(dic_impl_item) const;
  dic_impl_item item(void* p) const
  { return dic_impl_item(p); }
 void change_inf(dic_impl_item,GenPtr);
  void del_item(dic_impl_item);
  void del(GenPtr);
  void clear();
  int size() const;
};
```
#### 16.1.2 Priority Queues

Any class *prio impl* that provides the following operations can be used as actual implementation parameter for the *priority queue*  $K, I, prio$  *impl* data type (cf. section Priority Queues).

```
class prio_impl $\{$
 virtual int cmp(GenPtr, GenPtr) const = 0;
 virtual int int_type() const = 0;
 virtual void clear_key(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void clear_inf(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void copy_key(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void copy_inf(GenPtr&) const = 0;
public:
typedef ... item;
 prio_impl();
 prio_impl(int);
 prio_impl(int,int);
 prio_impl(const prio_impl&);
 virtual "prio_impl();
 prio_impl& operator=(const prio_impl&);
 prio_impl_item insert(GenPtr,GenPtr);
 prio_impl_item find_min() \ const;
 prio_impl_item first_item() const;
 prio_impl_item next_item(prio_impl_item) const;
 prio_impl_item item(void* p) const
  { return prio_impl_item(p); }
 GenPtr key(prio_impl_item) const;
 GenPtr inf(prio_impl_item) const;
 void del_min();
 void del_item(prio_impl_item);
 void decrease_key(prio_impl_item,GenPtr);
 void change_inf(prio_impl_item,GenPtr);
 void clear();
  int size() const;
};
```
#### 16.1.3 Sorted Sequences

Any class seq implement that provides the following operations can be used as actual implementation parameter for the  $\_sortseq \le K, I, seq\_imp \triangleright$  data type (cf. section Sorted Sequences).

```
class seq_impl {
 virtual int cmp(GenPtr, GenPtr) const = 0;
 virtual int int_type() const = 0;
 virtual void clear_key(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void clear_inf(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void copy_key(GenPtr&) const = 0;
 virtual void copy_inf(GenPtr&) const = 0;
public:
typedef ... item;
  seq_impl();
  seq_impl(const seq_impl&);
 virtual "seq_impl();
  seq_impl& operator=(const seq_impl&);
  seq_impl& conc(seq_impl&);
  seq_impl_item insert(GenPtr,GenPtr);
  seq_impl_item insert_at_item(seq_impl_item,GenPtr,GenPtr);
  seq_impl_item lookup(GenPtr) const;
  seq_impl_item locate(GenPtr) const;
  seq_impl_item locate_pred(GenPtr) const;
  seq_impl_item succ(seq_impl_item) const;
  seq_impl_item pred(seq_impl_item) const;
  seq_impl_item item(void* p) const
  { return seq_impl_item(p); }
  GenPtr key(seq_impl_item) const;
 GenPtr inf(seq_impl_item) const;
 void del(GenPtr);
 void del_item(seq_impl_item);
 void change_inf(seq_impl_item,GenPtr);
 void split_at_item(seq_impl_item,seq_impl&,seq_impl&);
 void reverse_items(seq_impl_item,seq_impl_item);
 void clear();
  int size() const;
};
```
# Appendix A

# Technical Information

This chapter provides information about installation and usage of LEDA, the interaction with other software packages, and an overview of all currently supported system platforms.

# A.1 LEDA Library and Packages

The implementations of most LEDA data types and algorithms are precompiled and contained in one library libleda that can be linked with C++ application programs.

LEDA is available either as source code package or as object code package for the platforms listed in Section Platforms. Information on how to obtain LEDA can be found at http://www.algorithmic-solutions.com/index.php/products/leda-for-c

Sections Source Contents ff. describe how to compile the LEDA libraries in the source code package for Unix (including Linux and CygWin) and Microsoft Windows. Section http://www.algorithmic-solutions.info/leda manual/Object Code on.html and Section http://www.algorithmic-solutions.info/leda manual/DLL s MS Visual.html describe the installation and usage of the object code packages for Unix and Windows, respectively.

## A.2 Contents of a LEDA Source Code Package

The main directory of the GUI source code package should contain at least the following files and subdirectories:



# A.3 Source Code on UNIX Platforms

#### Source Code Configuration on UNIX

Important remark: When compiling the sources on Unix- or Linuxsystems the development packages for X11 and Xft should be installed. On Ubuntu, for instance, you should call

sudo apt-get install libx11-dev sudo apt-get install libxft-dev

- 1. Go to the LEDA main directory.
- 2. Type: lconfig <cc> [static | shared]

where  $\langle \langle c \rangle$  is the name (or command) of your C++ compiler and the optional second parameter defines the kind of libraries to be generated. Please note that as far as Unix systems go, we currently only support several Linux distributions. LEDA might work on other Unix systems, too - it was originally developed, for instance, on SunOS - but there is no guarantee for that.

Examples: lconfig CC, lconfig g++, lconfig sunpro shared

lconfig without arguments prints a list of known compilers. If your compiler is not in the list you might have to edit the <LEDA/sys/unix.h> header file.

### LEDA Compilation on UNIX

Type make for building the object code library libleda.a (libleda.so if shared libraries are used). The make command will also have another library created named libGeoW.a; it only deals with the data type GeoWin. There is no shared version of the this library available.

Now follow the instructions given in Section UnixObjectCodePackage.

# A.4 Source Code on Windows with MS Visual C++

#### Source Code Configuration for MS Visual C++

1. Setting the Environment Variables for Visual C++: The compiler CL.EXE and the linker LINK.EXE require that the environment variables PATH, INCLUDE, and LIB have been set properly. Therefore, when compiling LEDA, simply open the proper command prompt that comes with the Visual Studio. The environment variables are then set as required. Just start the x86 (when compiling for a 32 bit platform) or the x64 (when compiling for a 64 bit platform) Native Tools Command Prompt.

- 2. Go to the LEDA main directory.
- 3. Type: lconfig [msc | msc-mt | msc-mt | msc64-mt | msc-mt-15 | msc64-mt-15 ] [dll] [ md | mt | mdd | mtd ]

Remark: When using MS Visual C++to compile LEDA you have to choose msc for 32 bit single-threaded compilation, msc-mt for 32 bit multi-threaded compilation, msc64 for 64 bit single-threaded compilation, and msc64-mt for 64 bit multi-threaded compilation. When using MS Visual Studio 2015 or later Visual Studio versions, you should use mscmt-15 and msc64-mt-15 respectively. When building an application with LEDA and MS Visual Studio C++the LEDA library you use depends on the Microsoft C runtime library you intend to link with. Your application code and LEDA both must be linked to the same Microsoft C runtime library; otherwise serious linker or runtime errors may occur. The Microsoft C runtime libraries are related to the compiler options as follows



In order to get the suitable Libs or DLL please choose the corresponding option in the call of lconfig.

### LEDA Compilation with MS Visual C++

Type make lib for building the object code libraries



Remarks: The current LEDA package supports only the dynamic version; therefore setting dll in the lconfig call is mandatory at the moment. GeoWin is currently not available as a DLL and will always be build as a static library.

Now follow the instructions given in the corresponding section for the Windows object code package (Section WinObjectCodePackage ff.).

# A.5 Usage of Header Files

LEDA data types and algorithms can be used in any C++ program as described in this manual (for the general layout of a manual page please see Chapter LEDA Manual Page). The specifications (class declarations) are contained in header files. To use a specific data type its header file has to be included into the program. In general the header file for data type xyz is <LEDA/group/xyz.h>. The correct choice for group and xyz is specified on the type's manual page.

# A.6 Object Code on UNIX

### Files and Directories

To compile and link your programs with LEDA, the LEDA main directory should contain at least the following files and subdirectories:



The static library has the extension .a. If a shared library is provided it has extension .so.

### Preparations

Unpacking the LEDA distribution file LEDA-<ver>-<sys>-<cc>.tar.gz will create the LEDA root directory "LEDA-<ver>-<sys>-<cc>". You might want to rename it or move it to some different place. Let <LEDA> denote the final complete path name of the LEDA root directory.

To install and use the Unix object code of LEDA you have to modify your environment as follows:

• Set the environment variable LEDAROOT to the LEDA root directory:

csh/tcsh: setenv LEDAROOT <LEDA> sh/bash: LEDAROOT=<LEDA> export LEDAROOT

- Shared Library: (for solaris, linux, irix, osf1) If you planning to use the shared library include \$LEDAROOT into the LD LIBRARY PATH search path.
- Make sure that the development packages for X11 and Xft have been installed. On Ubuntu, for instance, you should have called sudo apt-get install libx11-dev sudo apt-get install libxft-dev

#### Compiling and Linking Application Programs

1. Use the -I compiler flag to tell the compiler where to find the LEDA header files.

CC (g++) -I\$LEDAROOT/incl -c file.cpp

2. Use the -L compiler flag to tell the compiler where to find the library.

CC (g++) -L\$LEDAROOT file.o -lleda -lX11 -lXft -lm

When using graphics on Solaris systems you might have to link with the system socket library and the network services library as well:

CC (g++) ... -lleda -lX11 -lXft -lsocket -lnsl -lm

Remark: The libraries must be given in the above order.

3. Compile and link simultaneously with

```
CC (g++) -I$LEDAROOT/incl -L$LEDAROOT file.c -lleda -1X11 -1Xft -1m
```
When using the multi-threaded version of LEDA you also have to set the flags LEDA MULTI THREAD and pthread during compilation (-DLEDA MULTI THREAD -pthread) and you have to additionally link against the pthread library (-pthread). You may want to ask your system administrator to install the header files and libraries in the system's default directories. Then you no longer have to specify header and library search paths on the compiler command line.

#### Example programs and demos

The source code of all example and demo programs can be found in \$LEDAROOT/test and \$LEDAROOT/demo. Goto \$LEDAROOT/test or \$LEDAROOT/demo and type make to compile and link all test or demo programs, respectively.

**Important Remark:** When using  $g++$  version 4.x.x with optimization level 2 (-O2) or higher, you should always compile your sources setting the following flag: -fno-strictaliasing

## A.7 Static Libraries for MS Visual C++ .NET

This section describes the installation and usage of static libraries of LEDA with Microsoft Visual C++ .NET.

Remark: The current LEDA package is delivered with dynamic libraries. So this section is only relevant to you if you created static libraries from the source code.
## Preparations

To install LEDA you only need to execute the LEDA distribution file LEDA-<ver>-<package>-win32-<compiler>.exe. During setup you can choose the name of the LEDA root directory and the parts of LEDA you want to install.

Then you have to set the environment variable LEDAROOT. On MS Windows 10 this can be done as follows:

#### MS Windows 10:

- 1. Open the Start Search, type in env, and choose Edit the system environment variables. A window titled "System Properties" should open.
- 2. Click the button "Environment variables..." in the lower right corner of the "System Properties" window. A new window opens that allows to add/change/delete the user variables for your account as well as the system variables, provided you have admin rights. If not, change the environment variables of your account.

Add a new user variable LEDAROOT with value <LEDA>.

In case you are working on a different version of MS Windows, please consult the documentation of your version in order to learn how to perform the corresponding steps. You might have to restart your computer for the changes to take effect.

## Files and Directories

To compile and link your programs with LEDA, the LEDA main directory should contain the following files and subdirectories:

> Readme.txt Readme File incl\ the LEDA include directory

and at least one of the following library sets

- libleda md.lib, libgeow md.lib
- libleda mdd.lib, libgeow mdd.lib
- libleda mt.lib, libgeow mt.lib
- libleda\_mtd.lib, libgeow\_mtd.lib

### Compiling and Linking in Microsoft Visual C++ .NET

We now explain how to proceed in order to compile and link an application program using LEDA with MS Visual Studio 2017. If you are using a different version of MS Visual Studio, please read and understand the guidelines below and consult the documentation of your version of the Studio in order to learn how to perform the corresponding steps.

- (1) In the "File" menu of Visual C++ .NET click on "New–¿Project".
- (2) Choose "Visual C++" as project type and choose "Empty Project".
- (3) Enter a project name, choose a directory for the project, and click "OK".
- (4) After clicking "OK" you have an empty project space. Choose, for instance, "Debug" and "x64" (or "x86" in case you are working on a 32-bit system) in the corresponding pick lists.

#### If you already have a source file prog.cpp:

- (5) Activate the file browser and add prog.cpp to the main folder of your project
- (6) In the Solution Explorer of your project click on "Source Files" with the right mouse button, then click on "Add–¿ Add Existing Item" with the left mouse button
- (7) Double click on prog.cpp

#### If you want to enter a new source file:

- (5') In the Solution Explorer of your project click on "Source Files" with the right mouse button, then click on "Add– $\zeta$  Add New Item" with the left mouse button.
- (6') Choose "C++ File" in Templates, enter a name, and click "Add".
- (7') Enter your code.
- (8) In the Solution Explorer right click on your project and left click on "Properties"
- (9) Click on "C/C++" and "Code Generation" and choose the "Run Time Library" (=compiler flag) you want to use.

If you chose "Debug" in step 4, the default value is now "/MDd", alternatives are "/MD", "/MT", and "/MTd". Notice that you have to use the LEDA libraries that correspond to the chosen flag, e.g., with option "/MDd" you must use libleda mdd.lib and libgeow mdd.lib. Using another set of libraries with "/MDd" could lead to serious linker errors.

- (10) Click on "Linker" and "Command Line" and add the name of the LEDA libraries you want to use in "Additional Options" as follows. We use <opt> to indicate the compiler option chosen in Step  $(9)$  (e.g.,  $\text{opt}$  is mdd for "/MDd").
	- libleda\_<opt>.lib for programs using data types of LEDA but not GeoWin.
	- libgeow\_<opt>.lib libleda\_<opt>.lib for programs using GeoWin
- (11) Click on "VC++ Directories" of the "Properties" window.
- (12) Choose "Include Files" and add the directory <LEDA>\incl containing the LEDA include files (Click on the line starting with "Include Files", then click on "Edit..." in the pick list at the right end of that line. Push the "New line" button and then enter <LEDA>\incl, or click on the small grey rectangle on the right and choose the correct directory.) Alternatively you can click  $C/C^{++}$ –*i*. General in the Configuration Properties and then edit the line "Additional Include Directories".
- (13) Choose "Library Directories" and add the directory <LEDA> containing the LEDA libraries.
- (14) Click "OK" to leave the "Properties".
- (15) In the "Build" menu click on "<Build Project>" or "Rebuild <Project>" to compile your program.
- (16) In order to execute your program, click the green play button in the tool bar.

Remark: If your C++ source code files has extension .c, you need to add the option "/TP" in "Project Options" (similar to Step (9)), otherwise you will get a number of compiler errors. (Click on "C/C++" and "Command Line". Add /TP in "Additional Options" and click "Apply".)

To add LEDA to an existing Project in Microsoft Visual C++ .NET, start the Microsoft Visual Studio with your project and follow Steps (8)–(14) above.

#### Compiling and Linking Application Programs in a DOS-Box

#### (a) Setting the Environment Variables for Visual C++:

The compiler CL.EXE and the linker LINK.EXE require that the environment variables PATH, INCLUDE, and LIB have been set properly. This can easily be ensured by using the command prompts that are installed on your computer with your Visual Studio installation.

To compile programs together with LEDA, the environment variables PATH, LIB, and INCLUDE must additionally contain the corresponding LEDA directories. We now explain how to do that with MS Windows 10. If you are using a different version of MS Windows, please read and understand the guidelines below and consult the documentation of your operating system in order to learn how to perform the corresponding steps.

#### (b) Setting Environment Variables for LEDA:

#### MS Windows 10:

1. Open the Start Search, type in env, and choose Edit the system environment variables. A window titled "System Properties" should open.

2. Click the button "Environment variables..." in the lower right corner of the "System Properties" window. A new window opens that allows to add/change/delete the user variables for your account as well as the system variables, provided you have admin rights. If not, change the environment variables of your account.

If a user variable PATH, LIB, or INCLUDE already exists, extend the current value as follows:

- extend PATH by <LEDA>
- extend INCLUDE by <LEDA>\incl
- extend LIB by <LEDA>

Otherwise add a new user variable PATH, INCLUDE, or LIB with value <LEDA>, respectively <LEDA>\incl.

You might have to restart your computer for the changes to take effect.

#### (c) Compiling and Linking Application Programs:

After setting the environment variables, you can use the LEDA libraries as follows to compile and link programs.

Programs that do not use GeoWin:

cl <option> prog.cpp libleda.lib

Programs using GeoWin:

cl <option> prog.cpp libGeoW.lib libleda.lib

Possible values for  $\langle \text{option} \rangle$  are "-MD", "-MDd", "-MT", and "-MTd". You have to use the LEDA libraries that correspond to the chosen  $\leq$ option $\geq$ , e.g., with option "-MD" you must use libleda md.lib. Using another set of libraries with "-MD" could lead to serious linker errors.

#### Example programs and demos

The source code of all example and demo programs can be found in the directory <LEDA>\test and <LEDA>\demo. Goto <LEDA> and type make test or make demo to compile and link all test or demo programs, respectively.

## A.8 DLL's for MS Visual C++ .NET

This section describes the installation and usage of LEDA Dynamic Link Libraries (DLL's) with Microsoft Visual C++ .NET.

### Preparations

To install LEDA you only need to execute the LEDA distribution file LEDA-<ver>-<package>-win32-<compiler>.exe. During setup you can choose the name of the LEDA root directory and the parts of LEDA you want to install.

Then you have to set the environment variable LEDAROOT. On MS Windows 10 this can be done as follows:

#### MS Windows 10:

- 1. Open the Start Search, type in env, and choose Edit the system environment variables. A window titled "System Properties" should open.
- 2. Click the button "Environment variables..." in the lower right corner of the "System Properties" window. A new window opens that allows to add/change/delete the user variables for your account as well as the system variables, provided you have admin rights. If not, change the environment variables of your account.

Add a new user variable LEDAROOT with value  $\langle$ LEDA $\rangle$ .

In case you are working on a different version of MS Windows, please consult the documentation of your version in order to learn how to perform the corresponding steps. You might have to restart your computer for the changes to take effect.

#### Files and Directories

To compile and link your programs with LEDA, the LEDA main directory should contain the following files and subdirectories:

> Readme.txt Readme File incl\ the LEDA include directory

and at least one of the following dll/library sets

- leda md.dll, leda md.lib, libGeoW md.lib
- leda mdd.dll, leda mdd.lib, libGeoW mdd.lib
- leda mt.dll, leda mt.lib, libGeoW mt.lib
- leda mtd.dll, leda mtd.lib, libGeoW mtd.lib

Note: A DLL of GeoWin is currently not available.

#### Compiling and Linking in Microsoft Visual C++ .NET

We now explain how to proceed in order to compile and link an application program using LEDA with MS Visual Studio 2017. If you are using a different version of MS Visual Studio, please read and understand the guidelines below and consult the documentation of your version of the Studio in order to learn how to perform the corresponding steps.

- (1) In the "File" menu of Visual C++ .NET click on "New–¿Project".
- (2) Choose "Visual C++" as project type and choose "Empty Project".
- (3) Enter a project name, choose a directory for the project, and click "OK".
- (4) After clicking "OK" you have an empty project space. Choose, for instance, "Debug" and "x64" (or "x86" in case you are working on a 32-bit system) in the corresponding pick lists.

#### If you already have a source file prog.cpp:

- (5) Activate the file browser and add prog.cpp to the main folder of your project
- (6) In the Solution Explorer of your project click on "Source Files" with the right mouse button, then click on "Add– $\chi$  Add Existing Item" with the left mouse button
- (7) Double click on prog.cpp

#### If you want to enter a new source file:

- (5') In the Solution Explorer of your project click on "Source Files" with the right mouse button, then click on "Add–¿ Add New Item" with the left mouse button.
- (6') Choose "C++ File" in Templates, enter a name, and click "Add".
- (7') Enter your code.
- (8) In the Solution Explorer right click on your project and left click on "Properties"
- (9a) Click on "C/C++" and "Code Generation" and choose the "Run Time Library" (=compiler flag) you want to use.

If you chose "Debug" in step 4, the default value is now "/MDd", alternatives are "/MD", "/MT", and "/MTd". Notice that you have to use the LEDA libraries that correspond to the chosen flag, e.g., with option "/MDd" you must use libleda mdd.lib and libgeow mdd.lib. Using another set of libraries with "/MDd" could lead to serious linker errors.

(9b) Click on "C/C++" and "Preprocessor" and add  $/D$  "LEDA DLL" in "Preprocessor Definitions".

- (10) Click on "Linker" and "Command Line" and add the name of the LEDA libraries you want to use in "Additional Options" as follows. We use <opt> to indicate the compiler option chosen in Step  $(9)$  (e.g.,  $\text{opt}$  is mdd for "/MDd").
	- $\bullet$  leda\_ $<$ opt $>$ .lib for programs that do not use GeoWin
	- libGeoW\_<opt>.lib leda\_<opt>.lib for programs using GeoWin

Alternatively, you can include <LEDA/msc/autolink\_dll.h> in your program and the correct LEDA libraries are linked to your program automatically. If GeoWin is used you need to add " LINK GeoW" to the "Preprocessor definitions" in Step (9).

- (11) Click on "VC++ Directories" of the "Properties" window.
- (12) Choose "Include Files" and add the directory <LEDA>\incl containing the LEDA include files (Click on the line starting with "Include Files", then click on "Edit..." in the pick list at the right end of that line. Push the "New line" button and then enter <LEDA>\incl, or click on the small grey rectangle on the right and choose the correct directory.) Alternatively you can click  $C/C++-<sub>i</sub>$  General in the Configuration Properties and then edit the line "Additional Include Directories".
- (13) Choose "Library Directories" and add the directory <LEDA> containing the LEDA libraries.
- (14) Click "OK" to leave the "Properties"
- (15) In the "Build" menu click on "<Build Project>" or "Rebuild <Project>" to compile your program.
- (16) To execute the program "prog.exe" Windows needs to have  $\text{leda\_opt>}$ .dll in its search path for DLL's. Therefore, you need to do one of the following.
	- Copy leda\_ $\text{opt}\textgt$ .dll to the bin $\lambda$  subdirectory of your compiler or the directory containing "prog.exe".
	- Alternatively, you can set the environment variable PATH to the directory containing leda\_<opt>.dll as described below.

(17) In order to execute your program, click the green play button in the tool bar.

Remark: If your C<sup>++</sup> source code files has extension .c, you need to add the option "/TP" in "Project Options" (similar to Step (9)), otherwise you will get a number of compiler errors. (Click on "C/C++" and "Command Line". Add /TP in "Additional Options" and click "Apply".)

If you chose "Debug" for your project type, the default value is "/MDd", alternatives are "/MD", "/MT", and "/MTd". Notice that you have to use the LEDA libraries that correspond to the chosen flag, e.g., with option "/MDd" you must use leda mdd.lib and libGeoW mdd.lib. Using another set of libraries with "/MDd" could lead to serious linker errors.

To add LEDA to an existing Project in Microsoft Visual C++ .NET, start the Microsoft Visual Studio with your project and follow Steps (8)–(14) above.

#### Compiling and Linking Application Programs in a DOS-Box

#### (a) Setting the Environment Variables for Visual C++ .NET:

The compiler CL.EXE and the linker LINK.EXE require that the environment variables PATH, INCLUDE, and LIB have been set properly. This can easily be ensured by using the command prompts that are installed on your computer with your Visual Studio installation.

To compile programs together with LEDA, the environment variables PATH, LIB, and INCLUDE must additionally contain the corresponding LEDA directories. We now explain how to do that with MS Windows 10. If you are using a different version of MS Windows, please read and understand the guidelines below and consult the documentation of your operating system in order to learn how to perform the corresponding steps.

#### (b) Setting Environment Variables for LEDA:

#### MS Windows 10:

- 1. Open the Start Search, type in env, and choose Edit the system environment variables. A window titled "System Properties" should open.
- 2. Click the button "Environment variables..." in the lower right corner of the "System Properties" window. A new window opens that allows to add/change/delete the user variables for your account as well as the system variables, provided you have admin rights. If not, change the environment variables of your account.

If a user variable PATH, LIB, or INCLUDE already exists, extend the current value as follows:

- extend PATH by <LEDA>
- extend INCLUDE by <LEDA>\incl
- extend LIB by <LEDA>

Otherwise add a new user variable PATH, INCLUDE, or LIB with value <LEDA>, respectively <LEDA>\incl.

You might have to restart your computer for the changes to take effect.

#### (c) Compiling and Linking Application Programs:

After setting the environment variables, you can use the LEDA libraries as follows to compile and link programs.

Programs that do not use GeoWin:

cl <option> -DLEDA\_DLL prog.cpp <libleda.lib>

Programs using GeoWin:

cl <option> -DLEDA\_DLL prog.cpp <libGeoW.lib> <libleda.lib>

Possible values for  $\text{~cption>}$  are "-MD", "-MDd", "-MT", and "-MTd". You have to use the LEDA libraries that correspond to the chosen  $\leq$  option  $\geq$ , with option  $\geq$ MD" you must use leda md.lib and libGeoW md.lib. Using another set of libraries with "-MD" could lead to serious linker errors.

#### Example programs and demos

The source code of all example and demo programs can be found in the directory <LEDA>\test and <LEDA>\demo. Goto <LEDA> and type make test or make demo to compile and link all test or demo programs, respectively.

## A.9 Namespaces and Interaction with other Libraries

If users want to use other software packages like STL together with LEDA in one project avoiding naming conflicts is an issue.

LEDA defines all names (types, functions, constants, ...) in the namespace leda. This makes the former macro–based prefixing scheme obsolete. Note, however, that the prefixed names leda.... still can be used for backward compatibility. Application programs have to use namespace leda globally (by saying "using namespace leda;") or must prefix every LEDA symbol with "leda::".

The second issue of interaction concerns the data type bool which is part of the new C++ standard. However not all compilers currently support a bool type. LEDA offers bool either compiler provided or defined within LEDA if the compiler lacks the support. Some STL packages follow a similar scheme. To solve the existance conflict of two different bool type definitions we suggest to use LEDA's bool as STL is a pure template library only provided by header files and its defined bool type can be easily replaced.

## A.10 Platforms

Please visit our web pages for information about the supported platforms.

# Appendix B The golden LEDA rules

The following rules must be adhered to when programming with LEDA in order to write syntactically and semantically correct and efficient LEDA programs. The comprehension of most of the rules is eased by the categorization of the LEDA types given in section rules-exp.

Every rule is illustrated in section rules-exp by one or more code examples.

## B.1 The LEDA rules in detail

- 1. (Definition with initialization by copying) Definition with initialization by copying is possible for every LEDA type. It initializes the defined variable with a copy of the argument of the definition. The next rule states precisely what a copy of a value is.
- 2. (Copy of a value) Assignment operator and copy constructor of LEDA types create copies of values. This rule defines recursively what is meant by the notion "copy of a value".
	- (a) A copy of a value of a primitive type (built-in type, pointer type, item type) is a bitwise copy of this value.
	- (b) A value x of a simple-structured type is a set or a sequence of values, respectively.

A copy of x is a componentwise copy of all constituent values of this set or this sequence, respectively.

- (c) A value x of an item-based, structured type is a structured collection of values. A copy of x is a collection of new values, each one of which is the copy of a value of x, the original . The combinatorical structure imposed to the new values is isomorphic to the structure of x, the original.
- 3. (Equality and identity) This rule defines when two objects x and y are considered as equal and identical, respectively.
	- (a) For objects x and y of a dependent item type, the equality predicate  $x=$ y means equality between the values of these objects.

(b) For objects x and y of an independent item type T, the equality predicate  $x==y$ is defined individually for each such item type. In the majority of cases it means equality between the values of x and y, but this is not guaranteed for every type.

Provided that the identity predicate

bool identical(const T&, const T&);

is defined on type T, it means equality between the values of these objects.

- (c) For objects x and y of a structured type the equality predicate  $x=$ y means equality between the values of these objects.
- 4. (Illegal access via an item) It is illegal to access a container which has been destroyed via an item, or to access a container via the item nil.
- 5. (Initialization of attributes of an independent item type) The attributes of an independent item type are always defined. In particular, a definition with default initialization initializes all attributes. Such a type may specify the initial values, but it need not.
- 6. (Specification of the structure to be traversed in forall-macros)

The argument in a forall-macro which specifies the structure to be traversed should not be a function call which returns this structure, but rather an object by itself which represents this structure.

7. (Modification of objects of an item-based container type while iterating over them)

An iteration over an object x of an item-based container type must not add new elements to x. It may delete the element which the iterator item points to, but no other element. The values of the elements may be modified without any restrictions.

8. (Requirements for type parameters)

Every type parameter T must implement the following functions:



9. (Requirements for linearly ordered types)

In addition to the Requirements for type parameters a linearly ordered type must implement



Here, for the function compare() the following must hold:

- (a) It must be put in the namespace leda.
- (b) It must realize a linear order on T.
- (c) If y is the copy of a value x of type T, then compare $(x, y)$  == 0 must hold.
- 10. (Requirements for hashed types) In addition to the Requirements for type parameters a hashed type must implement



Here, for the function Hash() the following must hold:

- (a) It must be put in the namespace leda.
- (b) For all objects x and y of type T: If  $x == y$  holds, then so does  $Hash(x) == Hash(y)$ .

For the equality operator operator == () the following must hold:

- (a) It defines an equivalence relation on T.
- (b) If y is a copy of a value x of type T, then  $x == y$  must hold.
- 11. (Requests for numerical types) In addition to the Requirements for type parameters a numerical type must offer the arithmetical operators operator+ $($ ), operator-(), and operator $*($ ), as well as the comparison operators operator $<($ ), operator<=(), operator>(), operator>=(), operator==(), and operator!=().

## B.2 Code examples for the LEDA rules

```
1. string s("Jumping Jack Flash");
  string t(s); // definition with initialization by copying
  string u = s; // definition with initialization by copying
  stack<int> S;
  // ... fill S with some elements
  stack<int>T(S); // definition with initialization by copying
2. (a) list_item it1, it2;
      // \dotsit2 = it1; // it2 now references the same container as it1
   (b) array<int> A, B:
      // ...fill A with some elements...
      B = A;
      Now B contains the same number of integers as A, in the same order, with the
      same values.
      However, A and B do not contain the same objects:
      int* p = A[0];int* q = B[0];p == q; // false
```
A and B are different objects:

 $(c)$  list<int> L, M; list\_item it1, it2; L.push(42); L.push(666);  $M = L$ ;

 $A = B$ ; // false

L and M now both contain the numbers 666 and 42. These numbers are not the same objects:

 $it1 = L.first()$ ;  $it2 = M.first()$ ; it1 == it2; // false

L and M are different objects as well:

 $L = M$ ; // false

In the following assignment the rules c, b, and a are applied recursivley (in this order):

```
list< array<int> > L, M;
  // ...fill L with some array<int>s
  // each of them filled with some elements...
  M = L;3. (a) list_item it1, it2;
      // ...
      it2 = it1; // it2 now references the same container as it1
      it1 == it2; // true
   (b) point p(2.0, 3.0);
      point q(2.0, 3.0);
      p == q; // true (as defined for class point)
      identical(p, q); // false
      point r;
      r = p;identical(p, r); // true
   (c) list<int> L, M;
      // ...fill L with some elements...
      M = L;
      L == M; // false
```

```
4. list_item it = L.first();
  L.del_item(it);
  L.contents(it); // illegal access
  it = nil:
  L.contents(it); // illegal access
5. point p(2.0, 3.0); // p has coordinates (2.0, 3.0)
  point q; // q has coordinates but it is not known which
6. edge e;
  forall(e, G.all_edges()) // dangerous!
    { ... }
  // do it like this
  list \leq dge> E = G.all_{edges}(;
  forall(e, E)
   { ... }
7. list_item it;
  forall(it, L) {
    L.append(1); // illegal; results in infinite loop
    if(L[it] == 5) L.del(it); // legalif(L[it] == 6) L.del(L.succ(it)); // illegalL[it]++; // legal
  }
8. class pair {
  public:
   int x, y;
   pair() { x = y = 0; }
   pair(const pair & p) { x = p.x; y = p.y; }
   pair& operator=(const pair& p) {
         if(this != &p) { x = p.x; y = p.y; }
         return *this;
         }
  };
  std::istream& operator>> (std::istream& is, pair& p)
     { is >> p.x >> p.y; return is; }
  std::ostream& operator<< (std::ostream& os, const pair& p)
     { os << p.x << " " << p.y; return os; }
9. namespace leda {
  int compare(const pair& p, const pair& q)
  {
    if (p.x < q.x) return -1;
    if (p.x > q.x) return 1;
    if (p.y < q.y) return -1;
```

```
if (p.y > q.y) return 1;
     return 0;
   }
   };
10. namespace leda {
   int Hash(const pair& p)
   {
     return p.x ^ p.y;
   }
   };
   bool operator == (const pair& p, const pair& q)
   {
      return (p.x == q.x & p.y == q.y) ? true : false;
   }
```
## Bibliography

- [1] H. Alt, N. Blum, K. Mehlhorn, M. Paul: "Computing a maximum cardinality matching in a bipartite graph in time  $O(n^{1.5}\sqrt{m/\log n})$ ". Information Processing Letters, Vol. 37, No. 4, 237-240, 1991
- [2] M. Ansaripour, A. Danaei, K. Mehlhorn: "Gabow's Cardinality Matching Algorithm in General Graphs Implementation and Experiments". https://arxiv.org/pdf/2409.14849, 2024
- [3] C. Aragon, R. Seidel: "Randomized Search Trees". Proc. 30th IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, 540-545, 1989
- [4] A.V. Aho, J.E. Hopcroft, J.D. Ullman: "Data Structures and Algorithms". Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1983
- [5] R.K. Ahuja, T.L. Magnanti, J.B. Orlin: "Network Flows", Section 10.2. Prentice Hall, 1993
- [6] G.M. Adelson-Veslkii, Y.M. Landis: "An Algorithm for the Organization of Information". Doklady Akademi Nauk, Vol. 146, 263-266, 1962
- [7] I.J. Balaban: "An Optimal Algorithm for Finding Segment Intersections". Proc. of the 11th ACM Symposium on Computational Geometry, 211-219, 1995
- [8] B. Balkenhol, Yu.M. Shtarkov: "One attempt of a compression algorithm using the BWT". Preprint 99-133, SFB343, Fac. of Mathematics, University of Bielefeld, 1999
- [9] J.L. Bentley: "Decomposable Searching Problems". Information Processing Letters, Vol. 8, 244-252, 1979
- [10] J.L. Bentley: "Multi-dimensional Divide and Conquer". CACM Vol 23, 214-229, 1980
- [11] R.E. Bellman: "On a Routing Problem". Quart. Appl. Math. 16, 87-90, 1958
- [12] J.L. Bentley, T. Ottmann: "Algorithms for Reporting and Counting Geometric Intersections". IEEE Trans. on Computers C 28, 643-647, 1979
- [13] R. Bayer, E. McCreight: "Organization and Maintenance of Large Ordered Indizes", Acta Informatica, Vol. 1, 173-189, 1972
- [14] N. Blum, K. Mehlhorn: "On the Average Number of Rebalancing Operations in Weight-Balanced Trees". Theoretical Computer Science 11, 303-320, 1980
- [15] C. Burnikel, K. Mehlhorn, and S. Schirra: "How to compute the Voronoi diagram of line segments: Theoretical and experimental results". In LNCS, volume 855, pages 227–239. Springer-Verlag Berlin/New York, 1994. Proceedings of ESA'94.
- [16] C. Burnikel, R. Fleischer, K. Mehlhorn, and S. Schirra: "A strong and easily computable separation bound for arithmetic expressions involving square roots". Proceedings of the 8th ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, 1997.
- [17] C. Burnikel, R. Fleischer, K. Mehlhorn, and S. Schirra: "A strong and easily computable separation bound for arithmetic expressions involving radicals. Algorithmica, Vol.27, 87-99, 2000.
- [18] C. Burnikel. "Exact Computation of Voronoi Diagrams and Line Segment Intersections". PhD thesis, Universität des Saarlandes, 1996.
- [19] M. Burrows, D.J. Wheeler. "A Block-sorting Lossless Data Compression Algorithm". Digital Systems Research Center Research Report 124, 1994.
- [20] T.H. Cormen, C.E. Leiserson, R.L. Rivest: "Introduction to Algorithms". MIT Press/McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1990
- [21] D. Cheriton, R.E. Tarjan: "Finding Minimum Spanning Trees". SIAM Journal of Computing, Vol. 5, 724-742, 1976
- [22] J. Cheriyan and K. Mehlhorn: "Algorithms for Dense Graphs and Networks on the Random Access Computer". Algorithmica, Vol. 15, No. 6, 521-549, 1996
- [23] O. Devillers: "Robust and Efficient Implementation of the Delaunay Tree". Technical Report, INRIA, 1992
- [24] E.W. Dijkstra: "A Note on Two Problems in Connection With Graphs". Num. Math., Vol. 1, 269-271, 1959
- [25] M. Dietzfelbinger, A. Karlin, K. Mehlhorn, F. Meyer auf der Heide, H. Rohnert, R. Tarjan: "Upper and Lower Bounds for the Dictionary Problem". Proc. of the 29th Annual IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, 1988
- [26] J.R. Driscoll, N. Sarnak, D. Sleator, R.E. Tarjan: "Making Data Structures Persistent". Proc. of the 18th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing, 109-121, 1986
- [27] J. Edmonds: "Paths, Trees, and Flowers". Canad. J. Math., Vol. 17, 449-467, 1965
- [28] H. Edelsbrunner: "Intersection Problems in Computational Geometry". Ph.D. thesis, TU Graz, 1982
- [29] J. Edmonds and R.M. Karp: "Theoretical Improvements in Algorithmic Efficiency for Network Flow Problems". Journal of the ACM, Vol. 19, No. 2, 1972
- [30] P.v. Emde Boas, R. Kaas, E. Zijlstra: "Design and Implementation of an Efficient Priority Queue". Math. Systems Theory, Vol. 10, 99-127, 1977
- [31] A. Fabri, G.-J. Giezeman, L. Kettner, S. Schirra, and S. Schönherr: "The CGAL kernel: A basis for geometric computation". First ACM Workshop on Applied Computational Geometry, 1996.
- [32] I. Fary: "On Straight Line Representing of Planar Graphs". Acta. Sci. Math. Vol. 11, 229-233, 1948
- [33] P. Fenwick: "Block Sorting Text Compression Final Report". Tech. Rep. 130, Dep. of Comp. Science, University of Auckland, 1996
- [34] R.W. Floyd: "Algorithm 97: Shortest Paths". Communcication of the ACM, Vol. 5, p. 345, 1962
- [35] L.R. Ford, D.R. Fulkerson: "Flows in Networks". Princeton Univ. Press, 1963
- [36] S. Fortune and C. van Wyk: "Efficient exact arithmetic for computational geometry". Proc. of the 9th Symp. on Computational Geometry, 163–171, 1993.
- [37] M.L. Fredman, and R.E. Tarjan: "Fibonacci Heaps and Their Uses in Improved Network Optimization Algorithms". Journal of the ACM, Vol. 34, 596-615, 1987
- [38] H.N. Gabow: "Implementation of algorithms for maximum matching on nonbipartite graphs". Ph.D. thesis, Stanford Univ., Stanford, CA, 1974
- [39] H.N. Gabow: "An efficient implementation of Edmond's algorithm for maximum matching on graphs". Journal of the ACM, Vol. 23, 221-234, 1976
- [40] H.N. Gabow: "The wighted matching approach to maximum cardinality matching.". Fundamenta Informaticae, Vol. 154, 109-130, 2017
- [41] E. Gamma, R. Helm, R. Johnson, and J. Vlissides: Design patterns. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1995
- [42] A. Goralcikova, V. Konbek: "A Reduct and Closure Algorithm for Graphs". Mathematical Foundations of Computer Science, LNCS 74, 301-307, 1979
- [43] K.E. Gorlen, S.M. Orlow, P.S. Plexico: "Data Abstraction and Object-Oriented Programming in C++". John Wiley & Sons, 1990
- [44] L.J. Guibas, R. Sedgewick: " A Dichromatic Framework for Balanced Trees". Proceedings of the 19th IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, 8-21, 1978
- [45] Goldberg, R.E. Tarjan: "A New Approach to the Maximum Flow Problem". Journal of the ACM, Vol. 35, 921-940, 1988
- [46] J.E. Hopcroft, R.M. Karp: "An  $O(n^{2.5})$  Algorithm for Matching in Bipartite Graphs". SIAM Journal of Computing, Vol. 4, 225-231, 1973
- [47] J.E. Hopcroft, R.E. Tarjan: "Efficient Planarity Testing". Journal of the ACM, Vol. 21, 549-568, 1974
- [48] M. Himsolt: "GML: A portable Graph File Format". Technical Report, Universität Passau, 1997, cf. http://www.fmi.uni-passau.de/himsolt/Graphlet/GML
- [49] T. Hagerup, C. Uhrig: "Triangulating a Planar Map Without Introducing multiple Arcs", unpublished, 1989
- [50] D.A. Huffman: "A Method for the Construction of Minimum Redundancy Codes". Proc. IRE 40, 1098-1101, 1952
- [51] T. Iwata, K. Kurosawa: "OMAC: One-Key CBC MAC". Proc. Fast Software Encryption (FSE), LNCS 2887, 129-153, 2003
- [52] A.B. Kahn: "Topological Sorting of Large Networks". Communications of the ACM, Vol. 5, 558-562, 1962
- [53] D. Knuth and S. Levy: The CWEB System of Structured Documentation, Version 3.0. Addison-Wesley, 1993.
- [54] J.B. Kruskal: "On the Shortest Spanning Subtree of a Graph and the Travelling Salesman Problem". Proc. American Math. Society 7, 48-50, 1956
- [55] D. Kühl, M. Nissen, K. Weihe: "Efficient, adaptable implementations of graph algorithms". Workshop on Algorithm Engineering, Venice, Italy, September 15-17, 1997. http://www.dsi.unive.it/ $\tilde{w}$ ae97/proceedings/ONLY PAPERS/pap4.ps.gz
- [56] D. Kühl and K. Weihe: "Data access templates".  $C++$  Report, 9/7, 15 and 18-21, 1997
- [57] E.L. Lawler: "Combinatorial Optimization: Networks and Matroids". Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1976
- [58] S.B. Lippman: "C++Primer". Addison-Wesley, Publishing Company, 1989
- [59] G.S. Luecker: "A Data Structure for Orthogonal Range Queries". Proc. 19th IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, 28-34, 1978
- [60] K. Mehlhorn: "Data Structures and Algorithms". Vol. 1–3, Springer Publishing Company, 1984
- [61] D.M. McCreight: "Efficient Algorithms for Enumerating Intersecting Intervals". Xerox Parc Report, CSL-80-09, 1980
- [62] D.M. McCreight: "Priority Search Trees". Xerox Parc Report, CSL-81-05, 1981
- [63] M. Mignotte: "Mathematics for Computer Algebra". Springer Verlag, 1992.
- [64] K. Mehlhorn, S. Näher: "LEDA, a Library of Efficient Data Types and Algorithms". TR A 04/89, FB10, Universität des Saarlandes, Saarbrücken, 1989
- [65] K. Mehlhorn, S. Näher: " LEDA, a Platform for Combinatorial and Geometric Computing". Communications of the ACM, Vol. 38, No. 1, 96-102, 1995
- [66] K. Mehlhorn, S. Näher: "LEDA, a Platform for Combinatorial and Geometric Computing". book, in preparation. For sample chapters see the LEDA www-pages.
- [67] K. Mehlhorn and S. Näher: "Implementation of a sweep line algorithm for the straight line segment intersection problem". Technical Report MPI-I-94-160, Max-Planck-Institut für Informatik, Saarbrücken, 1994.
- [68] K. Mehlhorn and S. Näher: "The implementation of geometric algorithms". In  $13th$ World Computer Congress IFIP94, volume 1, pages 223–231. Elsevier Science B.V. North-Holland, Amsterdam, 1994.
- [69] M. Mignotte: Mathematics for Computer Algebra. Springer Verlag, 1992
- [70] K. Mulmuley: Computational Geometry: An Introduction Through Randomized Algorithms. Prentice Hall, 1994
- [71] D.R. Musser and Atul Saini. STL Tutorial and Reference Guide. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1995
- [72] S. Näher: "LEDA2.0 User Manual". Technischer Bericht A 17/90, Fachbereich Informatik. Universität des Saarlandes, Saarbrücken, 1990
- [73] M. Nissen: "Design Pattern Data Accessor". Proceedings of the EuroPLoP 1999.
- [74] M. Nissen. Graph Iterators: "Decoupling Graph Structures from Algorithms" (masters thesis). http://www.mpi-sb.mpg.de/m̃arco/diplom.ps.gz
- [75] M. Nissen, K. Weihe: "Combining LEDA with customizable implementations of graph algorithms". Konstanzer Schriften in Mathematik und Informatik (no. 17), Universität Konstanz, 1996. Available at ftp://ftp.informatik.uni-konstanz.de/pub/preprints/
- [76] M. Nissen, K. Weihe: "Attribute classes in Java and language extensions". Konstanzer Schriften in Mathematik und Informatik (no. 66), Universität Konstanz, 1998. Available at ftp://ftp.informatik.uni-konstanz.de/pub/preprints/
- [77] M. H. Overmars: Designing the computational geometry algorithms library CGAL. In Proceedings First ACM Workshop on Applied Computational Geometry, 1996
- [78] F.P. Preparata, M.I. Shamos: "Computational Geometry: An Introduction". Springer Publishing Company, 1985
- [79] W. Pugh: "Skip Lists: A Probabilistic Alternative to Balanced Trees". Communications of the ACM, Vol. 33, No. 6, 668-676, 1990
- [80] N. Ramsey: "Literate programming simplified". IEEE Software, pages 97–105, 1994
- [81] S. Schmitt: "Improved separation bounds for the diamond operator". Technical Report ECG-TR-36-31-08-01, 2004
- [82] B. Schneier: "Applied Cryptography, Second Edition". John Wiley and Sons, 1996
- [83] D. Shkarin: "PPM: one step to praticality". Proc. IEEE Data Compression Conf. (DCC'2002), 202-211, 2002
- [84] M. Stoer and F. Wagner: "A Simple Min Cut Algorithm". Algorithms ESA '94, LNCS 855, 141-147, 1994
- [85] B. Stroustrup: "The C++Programming Language, Second Edition". Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1991
- [86] J.T. Stasko, J.S. Vitter: "Pairing Heaps: Experiments and Analysis". Communications of the ACM, Vol. 30, 234-249, 1987
- [87] R.E. Tarjan: "Depth First Search an Linear Graph Algorithms". SIAM Journal of Computing, Vol. 1, 146-160, 1972
- [88] R.E. Tarjan: "Data Structures and Network Algorithms". CBMS-NSF Regional Conference Series in Applied Mathematics, Vol. 44, 1983
- [89] J.S. Vitter: "Dynamic Huffman Coding". ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software, Vol. 15, No. 2, 158-167, 1989
- [90] M. Wenzel: "Wörterbücher für ein beschränktes Universum". Diplomarbeit, Fachbereich Informatik, Universität des Saarlandes, 1992
- [91] A.G. White: "Graphs,Groups, and Surfaces". North Holland, 1973
- [92] D.E. Willard: "New Data Structures for Orthogonal Queries". SIAM Journal of Computing, 232-253, 1985
- [93] J.W.J. Williams: "Algorithm 232 (heapsort). Communications of the ACM, Vol. 7, 347-348, 1964
- [94] I.H. Witten, M. Radford and J.G. Cleary: "Arithmetic Coding for Data Compression". Communications of the ACM, Vol. 30, 520-540, 1987
- [95] J. Ziv and A. Lempel: "A universal algorithm for sequential data compression". IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, Vol. 30(3), 337-343, 1977
- [96] J. Ziv and A. Lempel: "Compression of individual sequences via variable-rate coding" IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, Vol. 24(5), 530-536, 1978
- [97] S. N¨aher, O. Zlotowski: "Design and Implementation of Data Types for Static Graphs". ESA, 2002

## Index





## A











## B





## C









cmp segments at x...(...) . . . . . . 340, 380, 406 cmp signed dist(...) . . . . . . . . . . . 334, 374, 400  $cmp_slope(...)$  $rat\_segment \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 378$  c cmp slopes(...) 340, 343, 347, 380, 383, 387, 406, 409, 413 cocircular(...) . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 335, 375, 402  $\text{col}(\ldots)$  $integer\_matrix \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots 93$ matrix .87  $real_matrix \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 105$ collinear(...) . . . . . . . . 335, 374, 401, 481, 499 color . 523  $coloritem(...)$ window . 551, 552  $compare(...) \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 45, 47, 48$ real .69  $compact(\dots)$ . *see* User defined parameter c types compare all(...) . 69 compare by angle(...) 86, 100, 104, 335, 375, 402 compare files(...) . 34 compare tangent s...(...) . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 449 complement()  $GEN_POLYGON$  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 362 int set . 133 POLYGON .355  $r\_circle\_gen\_polyqon \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 460$  $r\_circle\_polyqon \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 453$  $complete\,\mathrm{bigraph}(\ldots)\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots$  $complete\_graph(...) \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 226$  $complete_ugraph(...) \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 226$ compnumb()  $GIT\_SCC < Out. In ... > ... \dots . 327$ COMPONENTS(...) . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 245  $CompPred \leq Iter, DA... > \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 309$ compute bounding box(...) r circle segment .448 compute faces() graph . 179  $COMPUTESHORTEST...(...)$  . . . . . . . . . 248 compute voronoi(...) POINT SET . 470 compute with prec...(...) real .69  $cone(...)$ 









D



















## E









## F









## G


















#### H





#### I





















#### J



# $\operatorname{K}_{\mathbf{H}(\mathbb{C})}$



# L









#### M

















#### O







#### P















#### Q

queue<E> . 116

#### R



















## S



































#### T













#### U





# V







#### W



#### X







## Y









Z