Motivation

Some kinds of data analysis require keeping track of transitive relations. Equivalence relations are one family of transitive relations. Grouping pixels of an image into colored regions is one form of data analysis that uses "dynamic equivalence relations". Creating mazes without cycles is another application. Later we’ll learn about “minimum spanning trees” for networks, and how the dynamic equivalence relations help out in computing spanning trees.

Disjoint Sets

• Two sets \(S_1\) and \(S_2\) are disjoint if and only if they have no elements in common.

• \(S_1\) and \(S_2\) are disjoint iff \(S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset\)

(for the intersection of the two sets is the empty set)

For example \(\{a, b, c\}\) and \(\{d, e\}\) are disjoint.

But \(\{x, y, z\}\) and \(\{t, u, x\}\) are not disjoint.
Equivalence Relations

- A binary relation $R$ on a set $S$ is an equivalence relation provided it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive:
- Reflexive - $R(a,a)$ for all $a$ in $S$.
- Symmetric - $R(a,b) \rightarrow R(b,a)$
- Transitive - $R(a,b) \land R(b,c) \rightarrow R(a,c)$

Is $\leq$ an equivalence relation on integers?
Is “is connected by roads” an equivalence relation on cities?

Induced Equivalence Relations

- Let $S$ be a set, and let $P$ be a partition of $S$.
  $P = \{ S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k \}$
  $P$ being a partition of $S$ means that:
  $i \neq j \rightarrow S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$ and
  $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \ldots \cup S_k = S$
- $P$ induces an equivalence relation $R$ on $S$:
  $R(a,b)$ provided $a$ and $b$ are in the same subset (same element of $P$).

So given any partition $P$ of a set $S$, there is a corresponding equivalence relation $R$ on $S$.

Example

- $S = \{ a, b, c, d, e \}$
- $P = \{ S_1, S_2, S_3 \}$
  $S_1 = \{ a, b, c \}, S_2 = \{ d \}, S_3 = \{ e \}$
- $P$ being a partition of $S$ means that:
  $i \neq j \rightarrow S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$ and
  $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup S_3 = S$
- $P$ induces an equivalence relation $R$ on $S$:
  $R = \{ (a,a), (b,b), (c,c), (a,b), (b,a), (a,c), (c,a), (b,c), (c,b), (d,d), (e,e) \}$

Introducing the UNION-FIND ADT

- Also known as the Disjoint Sets ADT or the Dynamic Equivalence ADT.
- There will be a set $S$ of elements that does not change.
- We will start with a partition $P_0$, but we will modify it over time by combining sets.
- The combining operation is called “UNION”
- Determining which set (of the current partition) an element of $S$ belongs to is called the “FIND” operation.
Example

- Maintain a set of pairwise disjoint sets.
  - \{3,5,7\}, \{4,2,8\}, \{9\}, \{1,6\}
- Each set has a unique name: one of its members
  - \{3,5,7\}, \{4,2,8\}, \{9\}, \{1,6\}

*Pairwise Disjoint: For any two sets you pick, their intersection will be empty*

Union

- \text{Union}(x,y) – take the union of two sets named x and y
  - \{3,5,7\}, \{4,2,8\}, \{9\}, \{1,6\}
  - \text{Union}(5,1) \{3,5,7,1,6\}, \{4,2,8\}, \{9\}

To perform the union operation, we replace sets x and y by \((x \cup y)\)

Find

- \text{Find}(x) – return the name of the set containing x.
  - \{3,5,7,1,6\}, \{4,2,8\}, \{9\}
  - \text{Find}(1) = 5
  - \text{Find}(4) = 8

Application: Building Mazes

- Build a random maze by erasing edges.
Building Mazes (2)

• Pick Start and End

Building Mazes (3)

• Repeatedly pick random edges to delete.

Desired Properties

• None of the boundary is deleted
• Every cell is reachable from every other cell.
• Only one path from any one cell to another (There are no cycles – no cell can reach itself by a path unless it retraces some part of the path.)

A Cycle
We have disjoint sets $P = \{ \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}, \ldots, \{36\} \}$ each cell is unto itself. We have all possible edges $E = \{(1,2), (1,7), (2,8), (2,3), \ldots\}$ 60 edges total.

### Basic Algorithm

- $P = \text{set of disjoint sets of connected cells}$
- $E = \text{set of edges}$
- $\text{Maze} = \text{set of maze edges}$ (initially empty)

```
While there is more than one set in $P$
{
    pick a random edge $(x,y)$ and remove from $E$
    $u := \text{Find}(x)$;
    $v := \text{Find}(y)$;
    if $u \neq v$ then
        // removing edge $(x,y)$ connects previously non-
        // connected cells $x$ and $y$ - leave this edge removed!
        $\text{Union}(u,v)$;
    else
        // cells $x$ and $y$ were already connected, add this
        // edge to set of edges that will make up final maze.
        add $(x,y)$ to $\text{Maze}$
    }
All remaining members of $E$ together with $\text{Maze}$ form the maze.
```
Example Step

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pick (8,14)</th>
<th>P (1.2,7,8,9,13,19)</th>
<th>{1} {3} {4} {5} {6}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Start</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6</td>
<td>7 8 9 10 11 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>13 14 15 16 17 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>19 20 21 22 23 24</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
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<td>25 26 27 28 29 30</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>31 32 33 34 35 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End</td>
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</table>

\[ \text{End} \]

Example

\[ \text{Pick (19,20)} \]

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<th>P (1.2,7,8,9,13,19)</th>
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Example at the End

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Implementing the Disjoint Sets ADT

- \( n \) elements,
  Total Cost of: \( m \) finds, \( \leq n-1 \) unions

- Target complexity: \( O(m+n) \)
  \( i.e. \ O(1) \) amortized

- \( O(1) \) worst-case for find as well as union would be great, but...
  Known result: both find and union cannot be done in worst-case \( O(1) \) time

Find Operation

\( \text{Find}(x) \) - follow \( x \) to the root and return the root

Union Operation

\( \text{Union}(x,y) \) - assuming \( x \) and \( y \) are roots, point \( y \) to \( x \).
Simple Implementation

• Array of indices

```
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
up 0 1 0 7 5 0
```

```
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
up 0 1 0 7 5 0
```

Up[x] = 0 means x is a root.

Implementation

```c
int Find(int x) {
    while(up[x] != 0) {
        x = up[x];
    }
    return x;
}
```

```c
void Union(int x, int y) {
    up[y] = x;
}
```

```
runtime for Union():
```

```
runtime for Find():
```

```
runtime for m Finds and n-1 Unions:
```

Find Solutions

Recursive

Find(up[]): integer array, x: integer) : integer {
    //precondition: x is in the range 1 to size/
    if up[x] = 0 then return x
    else return Find(up,up[x]);
}

Iterative

Find(up[]): integer array, x: integer) : integer {
    //precondition: x is in the range 1 to size/
    while up[x] ≠ 0 do
        x := up[x];
    return x;
}

Now this doesn’t look good 😊

Can we do better? Yes!

1. Improve union so that find only takes \(\Theta(\log n)\)
   • Union-by-size
   • Reduces complexity to \(\Theta(m \log n + n)\)

2. Improve find so that it becomes even better!
   • Path compression
   • Reduces complexity to almost \(\Theta(m + n)\)
A Bad Case

Weighted Union

• Weighted Union
  – Always point the *smaller* (total # of nodes) tree to the root of the larger tree

Example Again

Analysis of Weighted Union

With weighted union an up-tree of height $h$ has weight at least $2^h$.

• Proof by induction
  – **Base**: $h = 0$. The up-tree has one node, $2^0 = 1$
  – **Inductive step**: Assume true for all $h' < h$. 

$$W(T) \geq W(T_i) \geq 2^{h-1}$$

Weighted union

Induction hypothesis

Minimum weight

up-tree of height $h$

formed by

weighted unions

Find(1) $n$ steps!!

Find(1) constant time

$W(T) \geq 2^{h-1} + 2^{h-1} = 2^h$
Analysis of Weighted Union (cont)
Let T be an up-tree of weight n formed by weighted union. Let h be its height.

\[ n \geq 2^h \]
\[ \log_2 n \geq h \]

• Find(x) in tree T takes \( O(\log n) \) time.
  – Can we do better?

Worst Case for Weighted Union

Example of Worst Case (cont’)

After \( n/2 + n/4 + \ldots + 1 \) Weighted Unions:

If there are \( n = 2^k \) nodes then the longest path from leaf to root has length \( k \).

Array Implementation
Weighted Union

\[ \text{W-Union}(i, j : \text{index}) \{
\]
// i and j are roots
wi := weight[i];
wj := weight[j];
if wi < wj then
up[i] := j;
weight[j] := wi + wj;
else
up[j] := i;
weight[i] := wi + wj;
\}

new runtime for Union():
new runtime for Find():

runtime for \( m \) finds and \( n - 1 \) unions =

Nifty Storage Trick

- Use the same array representation as before

- Instead of storing \(-1\) for the root, simply store \(-\text{size}\)

[Read section 8.4, page 299]

How about Union-by-height?

- Can still guarantee \( O(\log n) \) worst case depth

\textit{Left as an exercise!}

- Problem: Union-by-height doesn’t combine very well with the new find optimization technique we’ll see next

Path Compression

- On a Find operation point all the nodes on the search path directly to the root.

\[ \text{PC-Find}(3) \]
Path Compression Find

PC-Find(i : index) {
  r := i;
  while up[r] ≠ -1 do //find root
    r := up[r];
  // Assert: r= the root, up[r] = -1
  if i ≠ r then // if i was not a root
    temp := up[i];
    while temp ≠ r do // compress path
      up[i] := r;
      i := temp;
      temp := up[temp]
  return(r)
}

Interlude: A Really Slow Function

**Ackermann’s function** is a really big function \( A(x, y) \) with inverse \( \alpha(x, y) \) which is really small

How fast does \( \alpha(x, y) \) grow?

\( \alpha(x, y) = 4 \) for a far larger than the number of atoms in the universe \( \left(2^{300}\right) \)

\( \alpha \) shows up in:

- Computation Geometry (surface complexity)
- Combinatorics of sequences
A More Comprehensible Slow Function

\[ \log^* x = \text{number of times you need to compute} \]
\[ \log \text{ to bring value down to at most 1} \]

E.g. \( \log^* 2 = 1 \)
\( \log^* 4 = \log^* 2^2 = 2 \)
\( \log^* 16 = \log^* 2^{2^2} = 3 \) \( \text{(log log log 16 = 1)} \)
\( \log^* 65536 = \log^* 2^{2^{2^2}} = 4 \) \( \text{(log log log log 65536 = 1)} \)
\( \log^* 2^{2^{2^{2^2}}} = \ldots = 5 \)

Take this: \( \alpha(p, n) \) grows even slower than \( \log^* n \) !!