A disjoint sets data structure keeps trace of multiple sets which do not share any elements. Here's the ADT:

#### UnionFind ADT

find(x)	Returns a number representing the set that <b>x</b> is in.
union(x, y)	Updates the sets so whatever sets <b>x</b> and <b>y</b> were in are now considered the same sets.

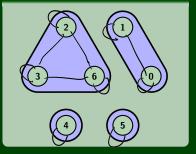
## Example

```
list = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6];
   UF uf = new UF(list); // State: {1}, {2}, {3}, {4}, {5}, {6}
3 uf.find(1);
                   // Returns 1
   uf.find(2);
                     // Returns 2
5 uf.union(1, 2);
                 // State: {1, 2}, {3}, {4}, {5}, {6}
6 uf.find(1);
                        // Returns 1
   uf.find(2);
                      // Returns 1
8 uf.union(3, 5); // State: {1, 2}, {3, 5}, {4}, {6}
                 // State: {1, 2, 3, 5}, {4}, {6}
9 uf.union(1, 3);
10 uf.find(3);
                       // Returns 1
  uf.find(6);
                        // Returns 6
```

Type: List<LinkedList<Integer>>

**Idea**: A mapping from  $id \rightarrow a$  list of ids in the same set

## Pictorial View



```
find(x)
find(x) {
    return a[x].front;
}
```

# 

```
union(x, y)

union(x, y) {

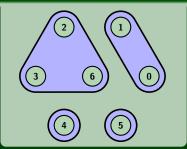
...

}
```

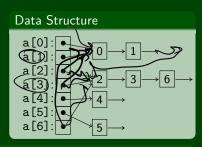
Type: List<LinkedList<Integer>>

**Idea**: A mapping from  $id \rightarrow a$  list of ids in the same set

## Pictorial View



```
find(x)
find(x) {
   return a[x].front;
}
```



## union(x, y)

```
union(x, y) {
    curr = a[x].head;
    a[y].tail.next = curr;

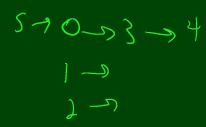
while (curr! = null && curr.next! = null) {
    a[curr.data] = a[y].head
    curr = curr.next;
}
```

We started with a **list of linked lists**. Then, we realized that we could use **references to the same linked list** to save memory.

We can do even better. The idea is to use an "implicit list".







We started with a **list of linked lists**. Then, we realized that we could use **references to the same linked list** to save memory.

We can do even better. The idea is to use an "implicit list".



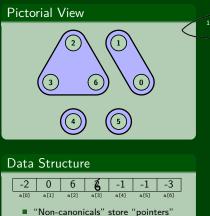


If you've already taken CSE 351, you've seen this idea already! When implementing malloc, you store a **free list**. You can save a lot of memory (which in malloc is important...) by using the unused **data fields** to store the **pointers**.



Type: An array

**Idea**: Each index has either the value of the "next" thing in its set or a negative number representing the size of the set



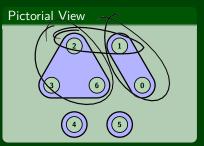
"Canonicals" store -size

# Implementation

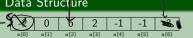
 $init(x) { a[x] = -1 }$ 

## Type: An array

**Idea**: Each index has either the value of the "next" thing in its set or a negative number representing the size of the set



## Data Structure



- "Non-canonicals" store "pointers"
- "Canonicals" store -size

## Implementation

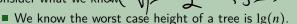
```
init(x) { a[x] = -1 }
find(x) {
  while(a[x] >= 0) {
    x = a[x]
}
}
return x
}
```

```
OLD find(x)
find(x) {
  while(a[x] >= 0) {
     x = a[x]
   return x
```

```
NEW find(x)
find(x) {
   if (a[x] < 0) {
     return x
  a[x] = find(a[x])
  return a[x]
```

**In Words**: Once we've **found** a node...save it.

### Amortized Analysis of m find Operations?



- We know it's difficult to make a tree of large height.
- We know that as soon as we access a path in a tree, it flattens the whole path

This **feels** like it should be better than lg(n), and it is.

We can use facts to show this, but its outside the scope of this lecture. Instead, we'll just talk about two bounds.

But it gets better...

**Upper Bound 2**: find(x) is amortized  $\mathcal{O}(\alpha(n))$ 

The Ackermann function grows even more quickly than ighte.

It turns out  $\alpha(n)$ , the inverse Ackermann function is also an upper bound. . .

Interestingly, it is also a lower bound for the disjoint data structures problem! We can't do better than the algorithm we came up with! (Just like with sorting!)