

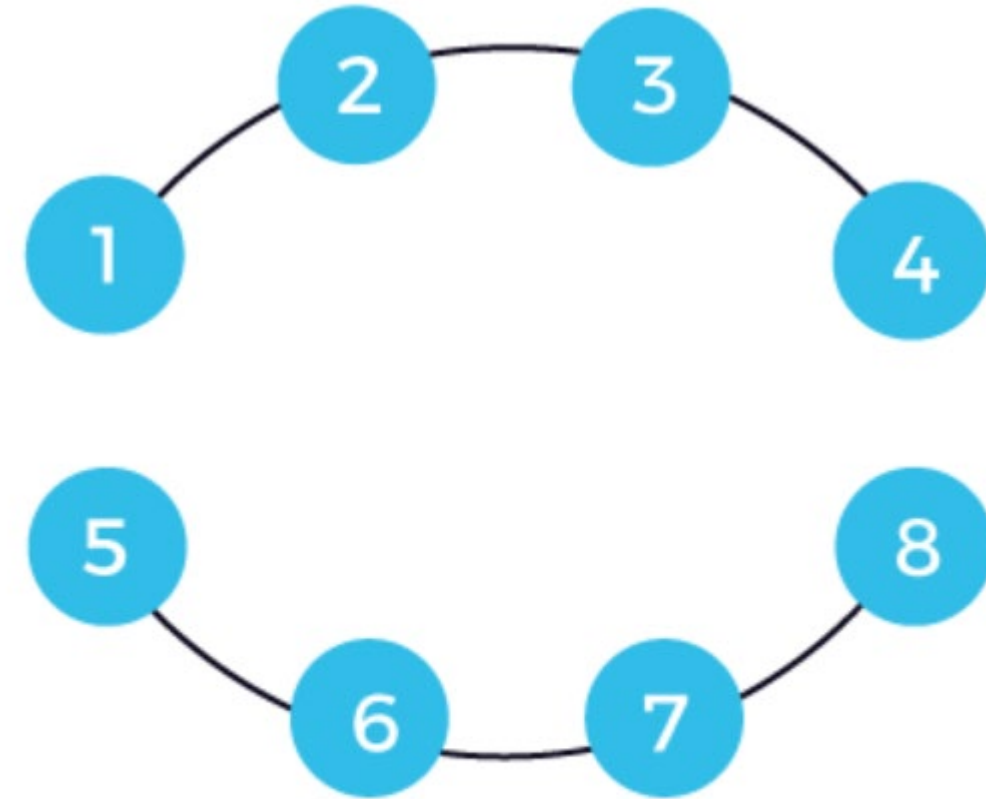
# Disjoint Set Data Structure and Huffman Coding

# Disjoint Set or Union Find Data Structure

- ❑ Union-Find Algorithm: This is the main algorithm used in disjoint set data structure. It helps in creating and merging sets, and finding the parent or representative element of a set.
- ❑ Path Compression: This is an optimization technique used in disjoint set data structure that helps to reduce the time complexity of the find operation by compressing the path from a node to its parent.
- ❑ Union by Rank: This is another optimization technique used in disjoint set data structure that helps to reduce the time complexity of the union operation by merging smaller sets into larger sets.

# What is Disjoint Set?

- ❑ Disjoint set is a data structure that is used to maintain a collection of **disjoint (non-overlapping) sets**.
- ❑ The elements in each set are related to each other through a parent-child relationship, where the parent of an element is either itself or another element in the same set.
- ❑ Since there is no common element between these **two sets, s1 and s2**, we will not get anything if we consider the intersection between these two sets.

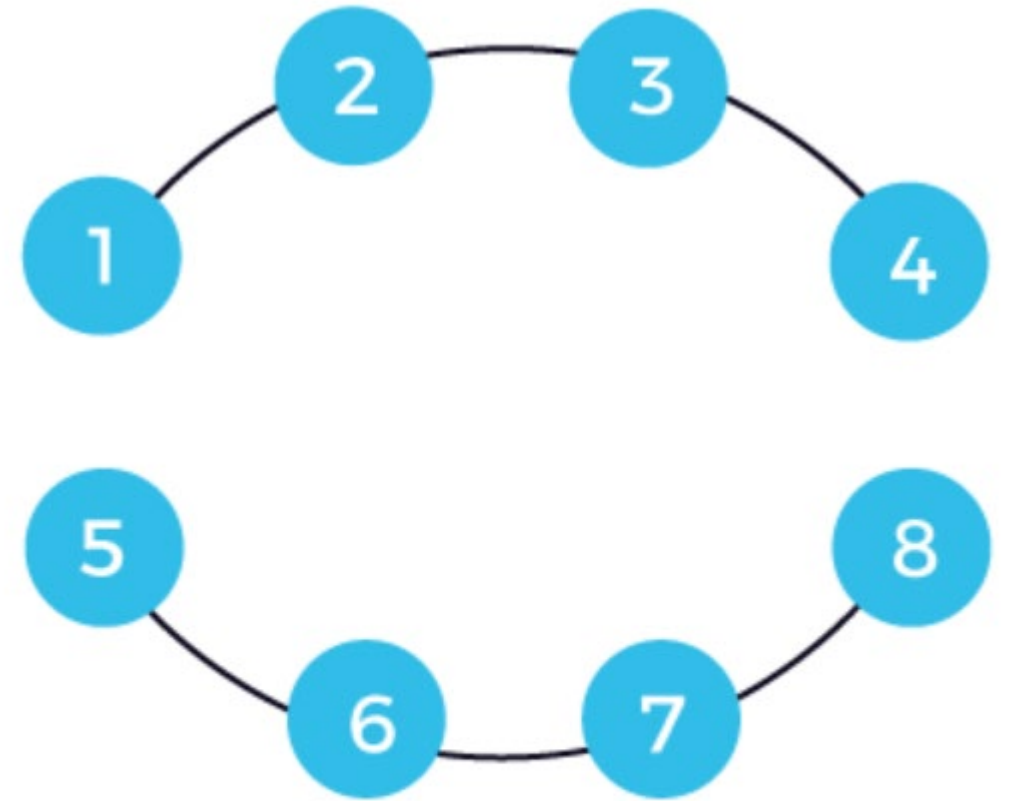


$s1 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$s2 = \{5, 6, 7, 8\}$

# What is Disjoint Set? (cont.)

- ❑ The two main operations that can be performed on a disjoint set data structure are the **Union and Find operations**.
- ❑ It is also called a union–find data structure as it supports union and find operation on subsets.

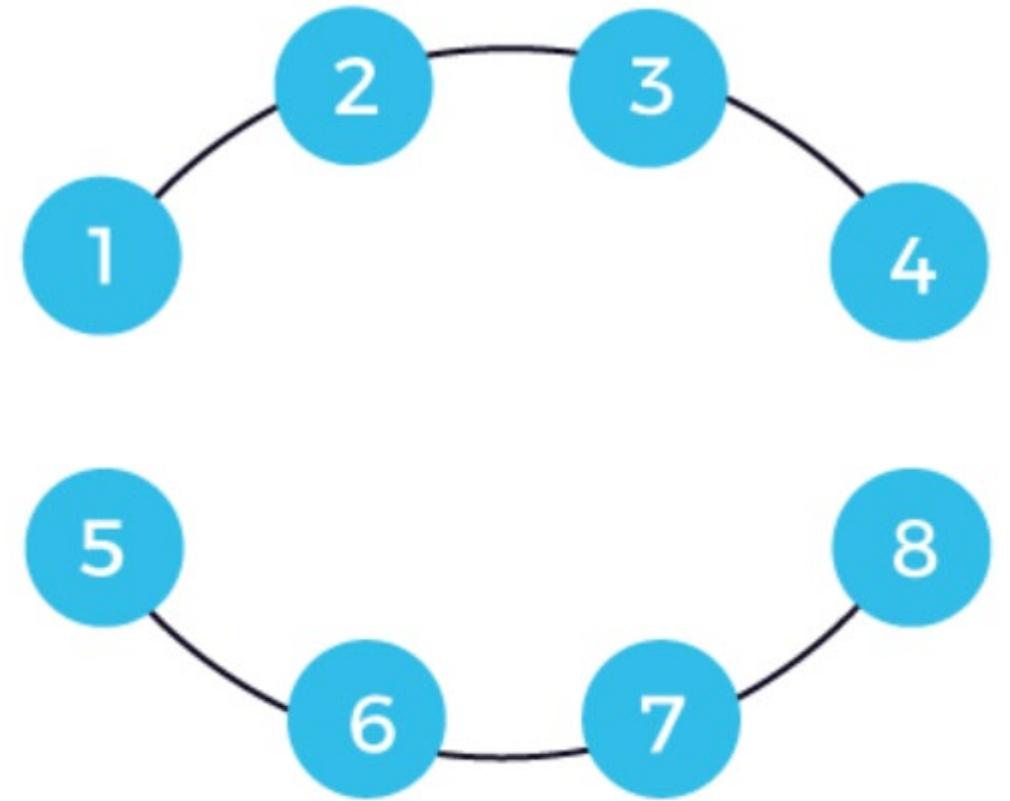


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# Union-Find algorithm

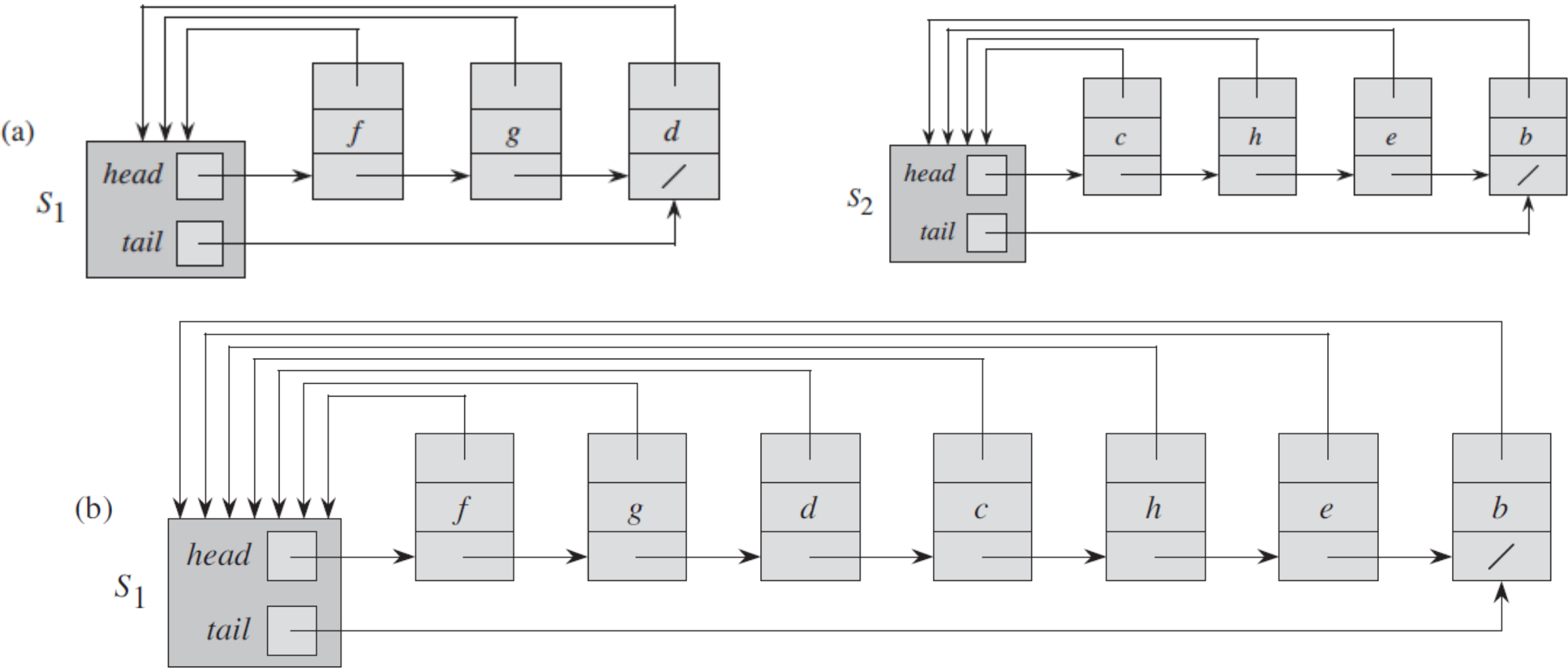
## Find

To find the subset a particular element 'k' belongs to. It is generally used to check if two elements belong to the same subset or not.

## Union

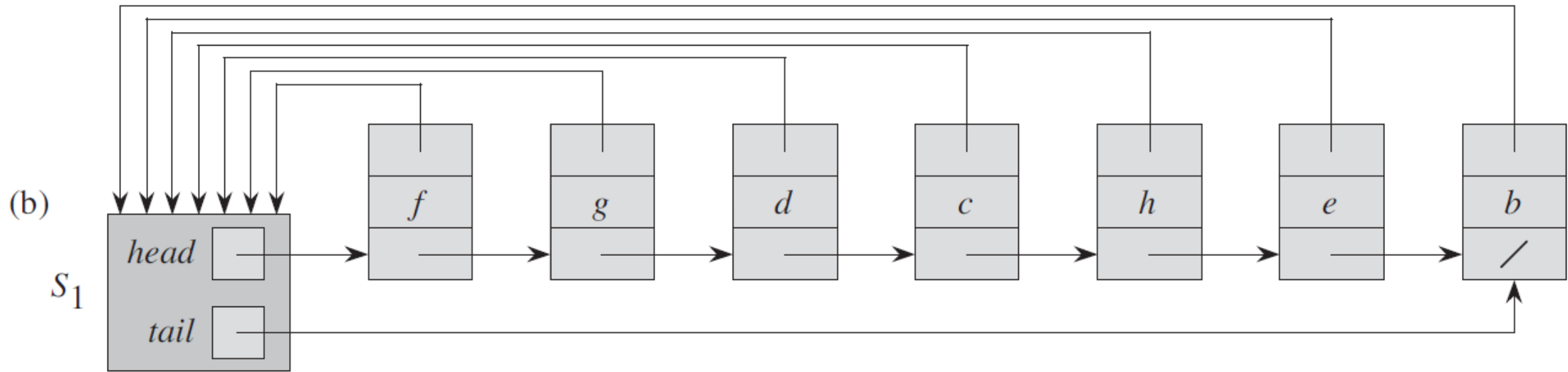
It is used to combine two subsets into one. A union query, say  $\text{Union}(x, y)$  combines the set containing element  $x$  and set containing element  $y$ .

# Linked List Representation of Disjoint Sets



Each set object has pointers *head* and *tail* to the first and last objects

# Linked List Representation of Disjoint Sets



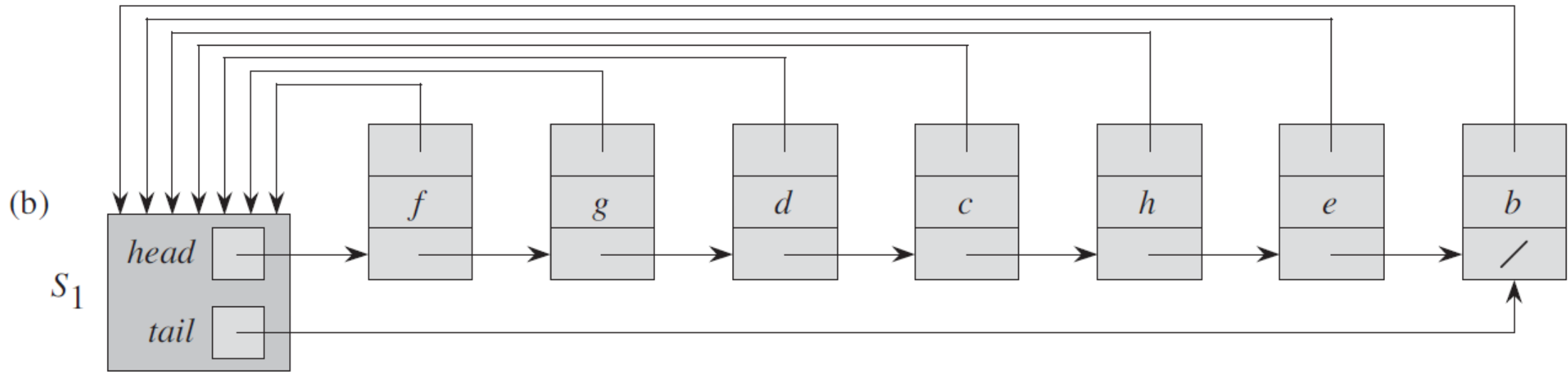
we perform  $\text{UNION}(x, y)$  by appending  $y$ 's list onto the end of  $x$ 's list.

We use the *tail* pointer for  $x$ 's list to quickly find where to append  $y$ 's list.

- we must update the pointer to the set object for each object originally on  $y$ 's list,
  - which takes time linear in the length of  $y$ 's list.



# A weighted-union heuristic



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- we must update the pointer to the set object for each object originally on  $y$ 's list,
  - which takes time linear in the length of  $y$ 's list.
- In the worst case, the above implementation of the UNION procedure requires an average of time per call because we may be appending a longer list onto a shorter list
- We always append the shorter list onto the longer, breaking ties arbitrarily.  
Called weighted-union heuristic

# Disjoint Set Forest

- we represent sets by rooted trees, with each node containing one member and each tree representing one set.
- Straight forward representation of this are no faster than the linked list version. We can use heuristic!!
- Each tree corresponds to one set and the root of the tree will be the **parent/leader/representative** of the set.
- All the seven nodes are parents of themselves. we have seven different trees  
cor



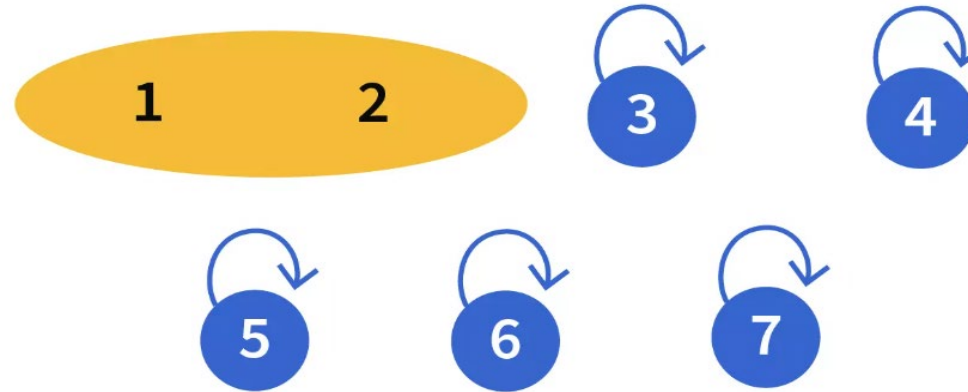
# Union

In  $Union(2, 3)$ , need to join the sets which contain elements 2 and 3.

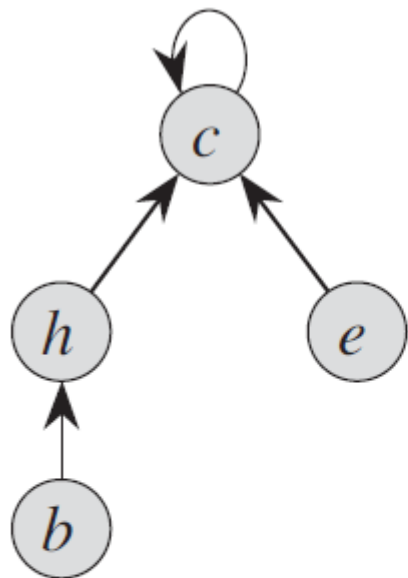
After performing the query we can see that, 1, 2, and 3 are clubbed into one set so our disjoint set will look like:



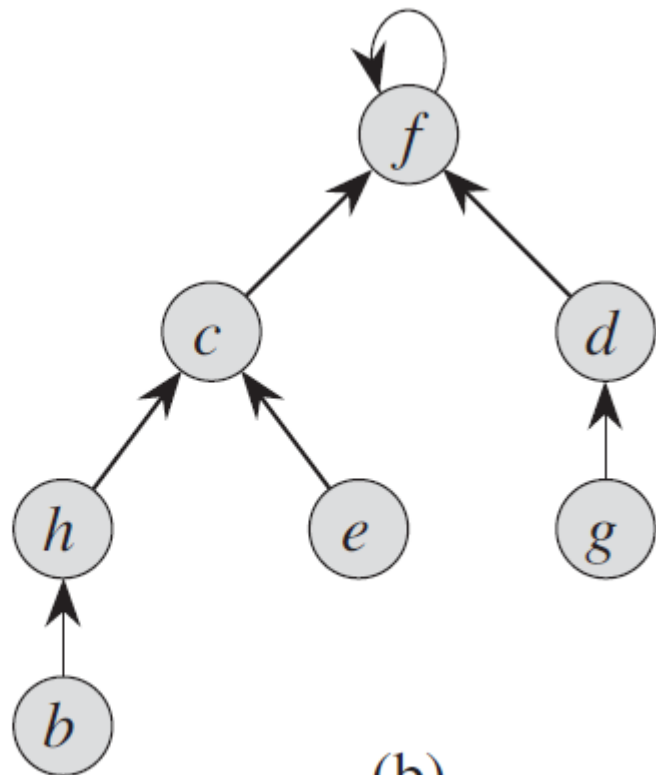
- $Union(1, 2)$
- $Union(2, 3)$
- $Union(4, 5)$
- $Union(6, 7)$
- $Union(5, 6)$
- $Union(2, 6)$



# Example



(a)



(b)

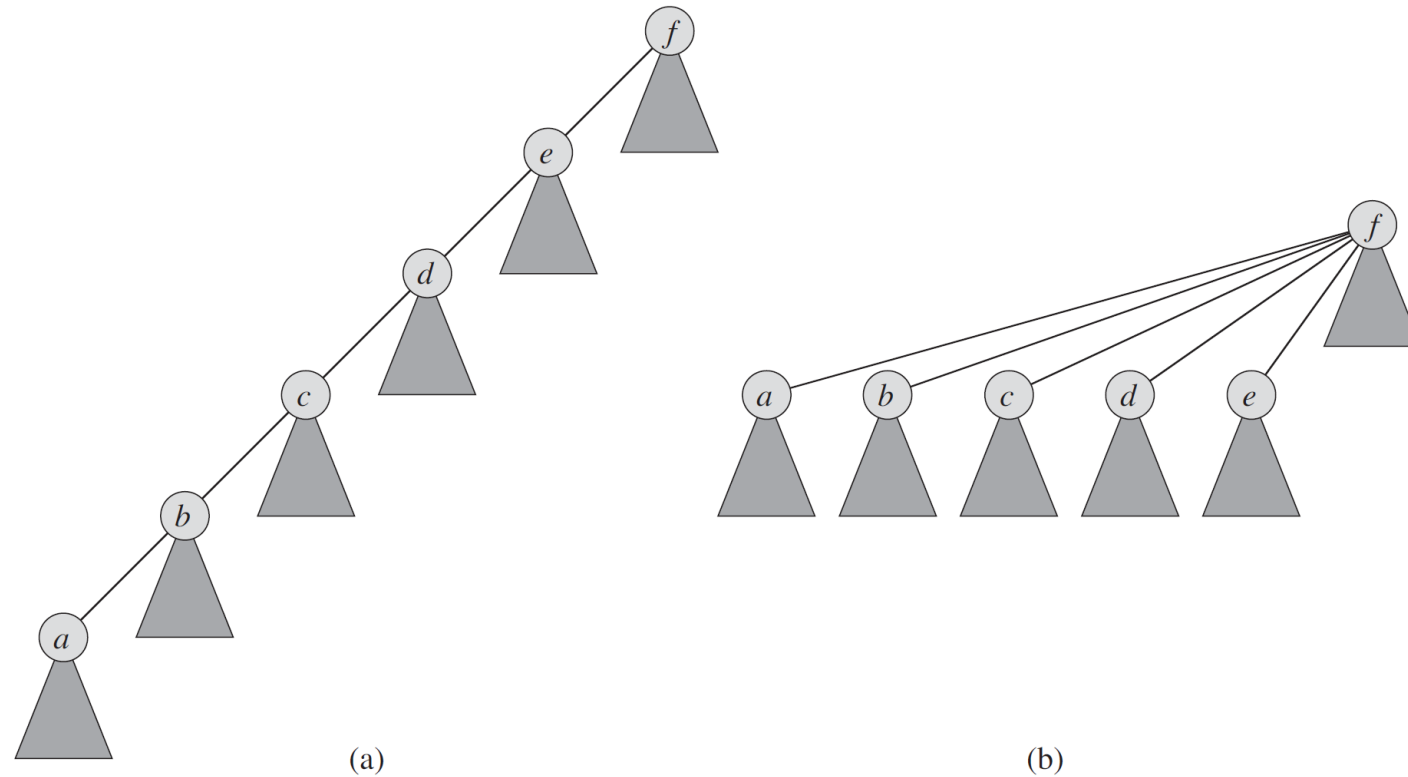
# Naïve Implementation of Disjoint Set

## Complexity Analysis:

- **Find** - Time complexity of Find operation is  $O(n)$  in the worst case (consider the case when all the elements are in the same set and we need to find the parent of a given element then we may need to make  $n$  recursive calls).
- **Union** - For union query (say  $Union(u, v)$ ) we need to find the parents of  $u$  and  $v$  making its time complexity to be  $O(n)$ .

# Heuristics to improve the running time

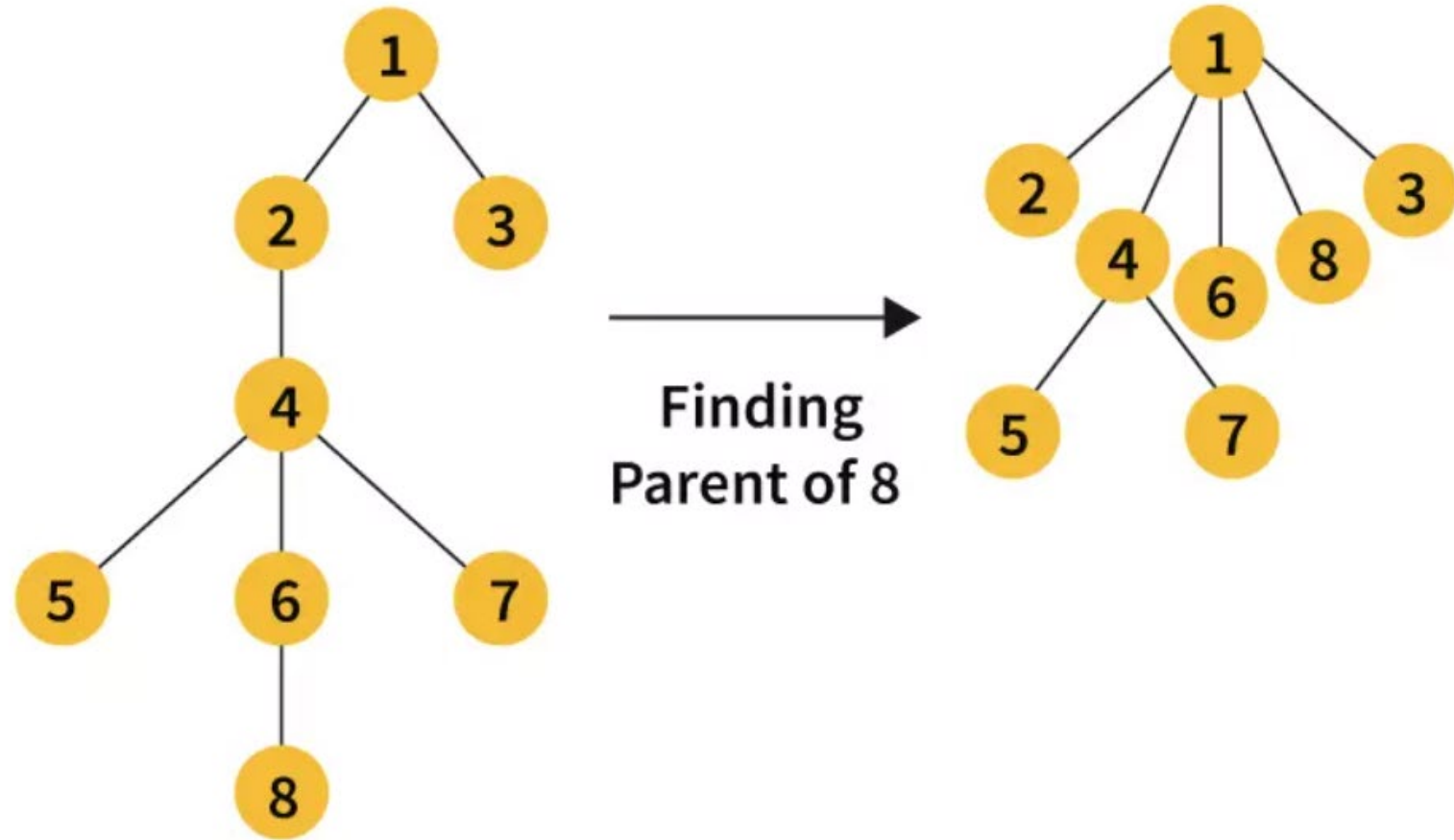
## □ Path Compression



**Figure 21.5** Path compression during the operation  $\text{FIND-SET}$ . Arrows and self-loops at roots are omitted. **(a)** A tree representing a set prior to executing  $\text{FIND-SET}(a)$ . Triangles represent subtrees whose roots are the nodes shown. Each node has a pointer to its parent. **(b)** The same set after executing  $\text{FIND-SET}(a)$ . Each node on the find path now points directly to the root.

# Heuristics to improve the running time

## □ Path Compression

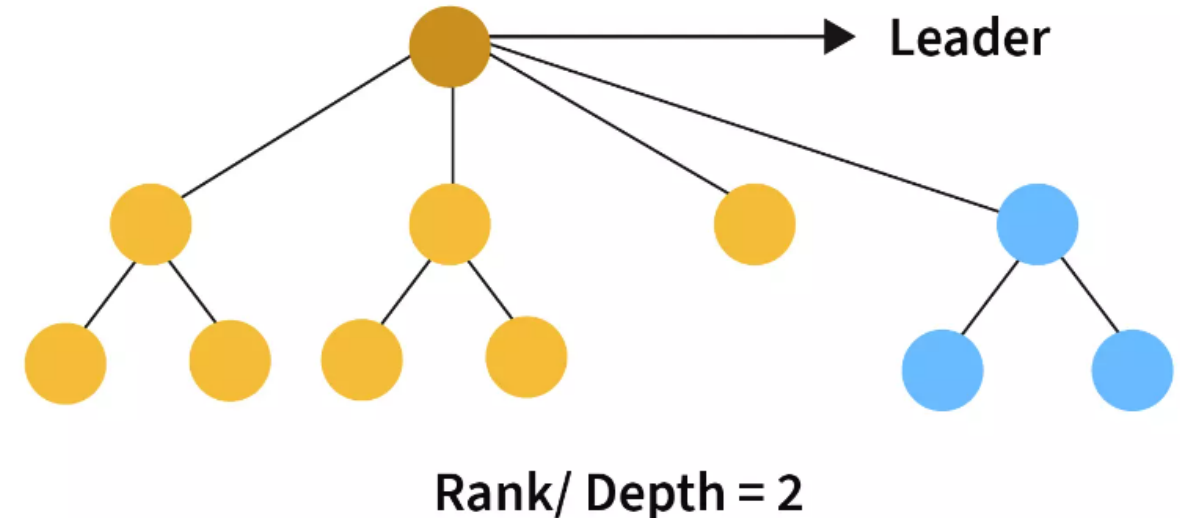
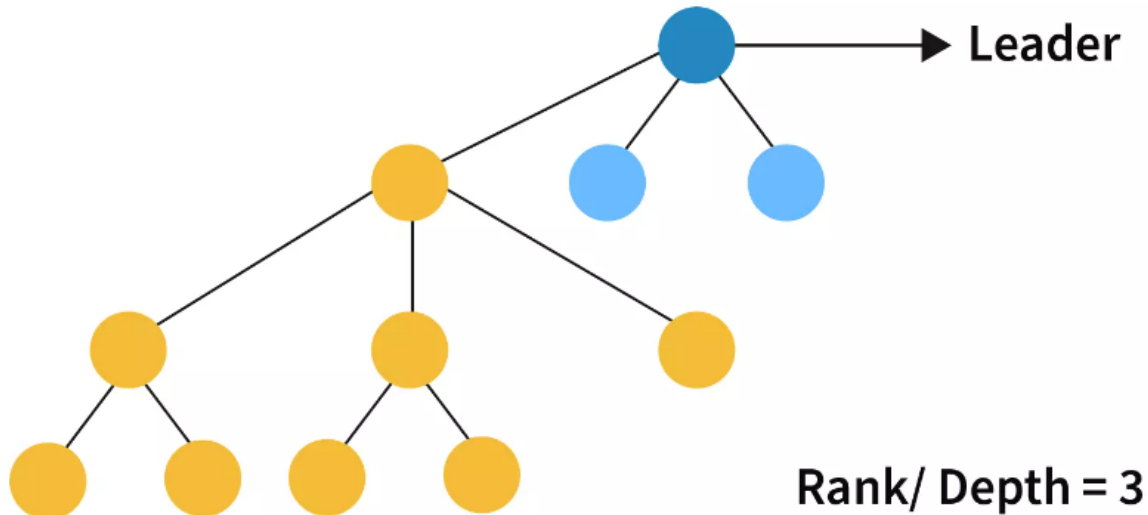
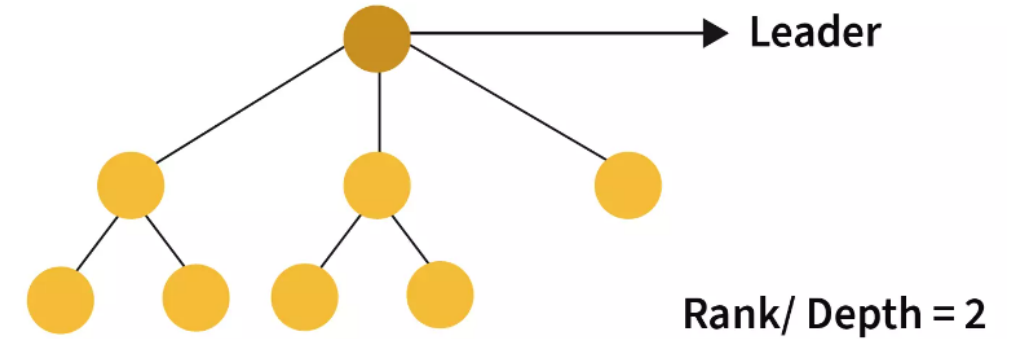


we reduced the time complexity from  $O(n)$  to  $O(\log(n))$



# Heuristic: Union by Rank, and combination of the two heuristics?

- For each node, we maintain a rank, which is an upper bound on the height of the node. In union by rank, we make the **root with smaller rank point** to the root with larger rank during a UNION operation.





# Use Union Find Algorithm to detect cycle?

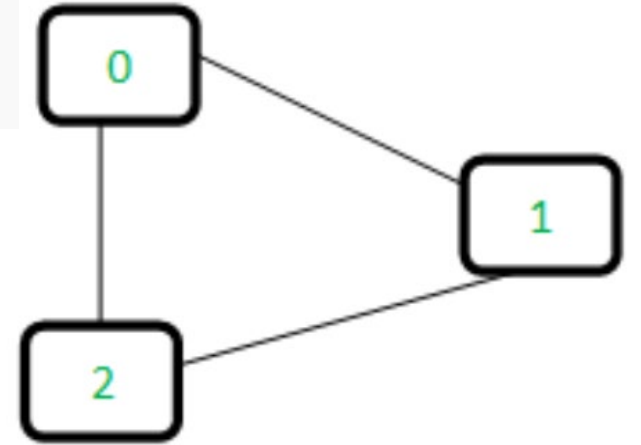
- Initially create a **parent[]** array to keep track of the subsets.
- Traverse through all the edges:
  - Check to which subset each of the nodes belong to by finding the parent[] array till the node and the parent are the same.
  - If the two nodes belong to the same subset then they belong to a cycle.
  - Otherwise, perform union operation on those two subsets.
- If no cycle is found, return false.

# Use Union Find Algorithm to detect cycle?

*`parent[] = {0, 1, 2}`. Also when the value of the node and its parent are same, that is the root of that subset of nodes.*

## **Edge 0-1:**

- => Find the subsets in which vertices 0 and 1 are.*
- => 0 and 1 belongs to subset 0 and 1.*
- => Since they are in different subsets, take the union of them.*
- => For taking the union, either make node 0 as parent of node 1 or vice-versa.*
- => 1 is made parent of 0 (1 is now representative of subset {0, 1})*
- => `parent[] = {1, 1, 2}`*



- Initially create a **parent[]** array to keep track of the subsets.
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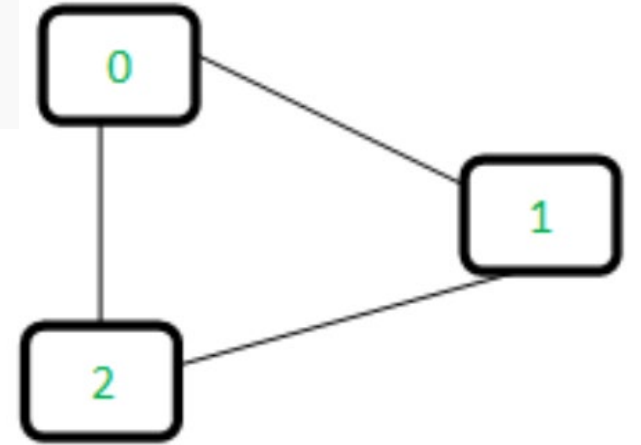
## **Edge 1-2:**

*=> 1 is in subset 1 and 2 is in subset 2.*

*=> Since they are in different subsets, take union.*

*=> Make 2 as parent of 1. (2 is now representative of subset {0, 1, 2})*

*=> `parent[] = {1, 2, 2}`*



- Initially create a **parent[]** array to keep track of the subsets.
- Traverse through all the edges:
  - Check to which subset each of the nodes belong to by finding the `parent[]` array till the node and the parent are the same.
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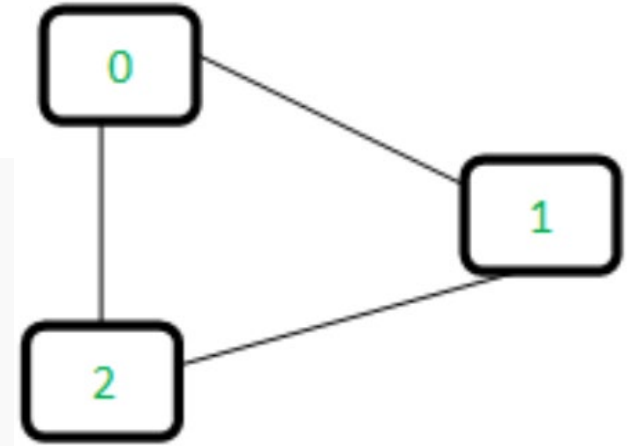
## **Edge 0-2:**

*=> 0 is in subset 2 and 2 is also in subset 2.*

*=> Because 1 is parent of 0 and 2 is parent of 1. So 0 also belongs to subset 2*

*=> Hence, including this edge forms a cycle.*

*Therefore, the above graph contains a cycle.*



- Initially create a **parent[]** array to keep track of the subsets.
- Traverse through all the edges:
  - Check to which subset each of the nodes belong to by finding the parent[] array till the node and the parent are the same.
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# Huffman Coding

- Huffman codes compress data very effectively: savings of 20% to 90% are typical, depending on the characteristics of the data being compressed.

	a	b	c	d	e	f
Frequency (in thousands)	45	13	12	16	9	5
Fixed-length codeword	000	001	010	011	100	101

## A character-coding problem

- A data file of 100,000 characters contains only the characters a–f, with the frequencies indicated.
- If we assign each character a 3-bit codeword, we can encode the file in 300,000 bits.

# What is a variable length code

	a	b	c	d	e	f
Frequency (in thousands)	45	13	12	16	9	5
Fixed-length codeword	000	001	010	011	100	101
Variable-length codeword	0	101	100	111	1101	1100

- ❑ A variable-length code can do considerably better than a fixed-length code, by giving frequent characters short codewords and infrequent characters long codewords.
- ❑ Here, the 1-bit string 0 represents a, and the 4-bit string 1100 represents f.

$$(45 \cdot 1 + 13 \cdot 3 + 12 \cdot 3 + 16 \cdot 3 + 9 \cdot 4 + 5 \cdot 4) \cdot 1,000 = 224,000 \text{ bits}$$

savings of approximately 25%

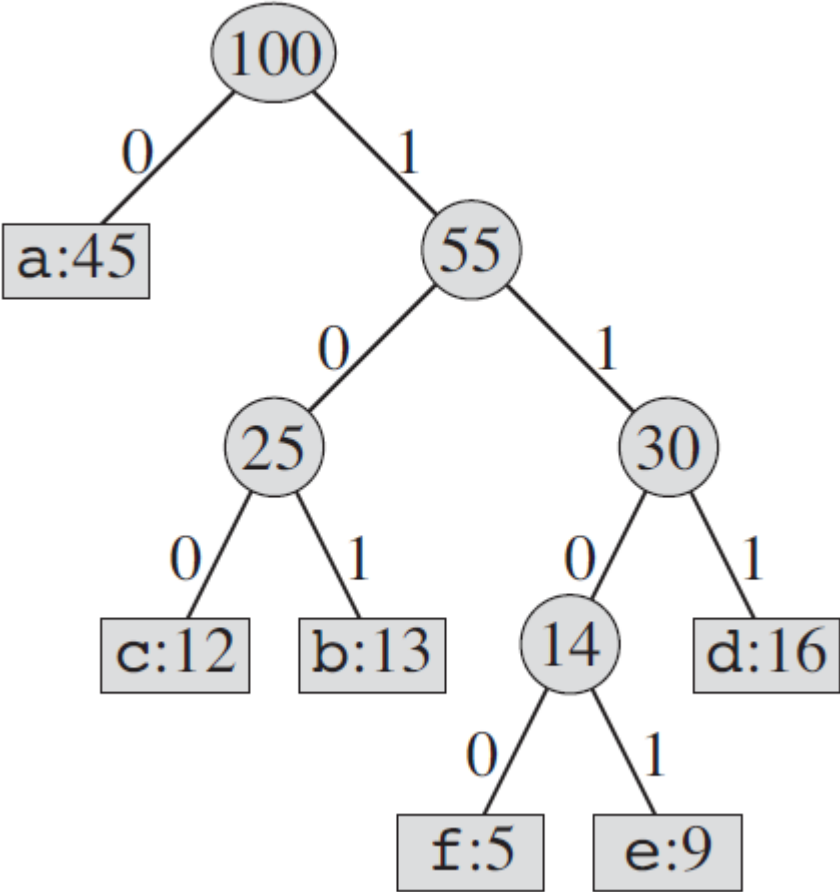
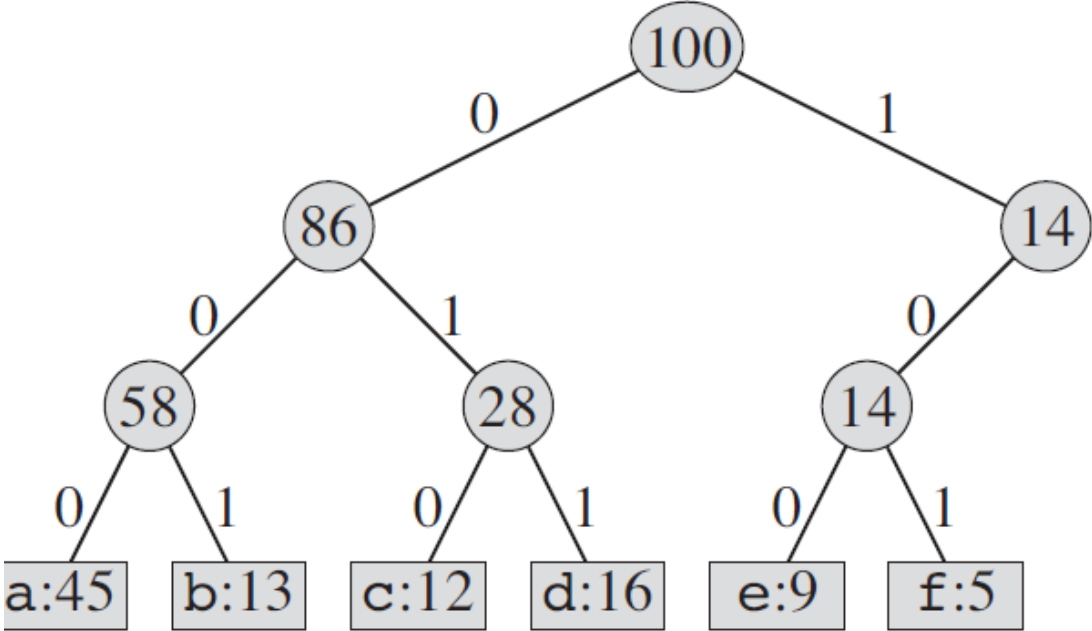
# Prefix Code for variable length coding

- ❑ We consider here only codes in which no codeword is also a prefix of some other codeword, also called as Prefix Codes.
- ❑ Prefix codes are desirable **because they simplify decoding**.
- ❑ Since no codeword is a prefix of any other, the codeword that begins an encoded file is unambiguous.

	a	b	c	d	e	f
Frequency (in thousands)	45	13	12	16	9	5
Fixed-length codeword	000	001	010	011	100	101
Variable-length codeword	0	101	100	111	1101	1100



# Trees corresponding to the coding schemes



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Variable-length codeword	0	101	100	111	1101	1100



# Constructing a Huffman Code

- Huffman invented a greedy algorithm that constructs an optimal prefix code called a Huffman code.

The alphabet  $C$  contains 6 characters,  $n = 6$   
5 merge steps build the tree.

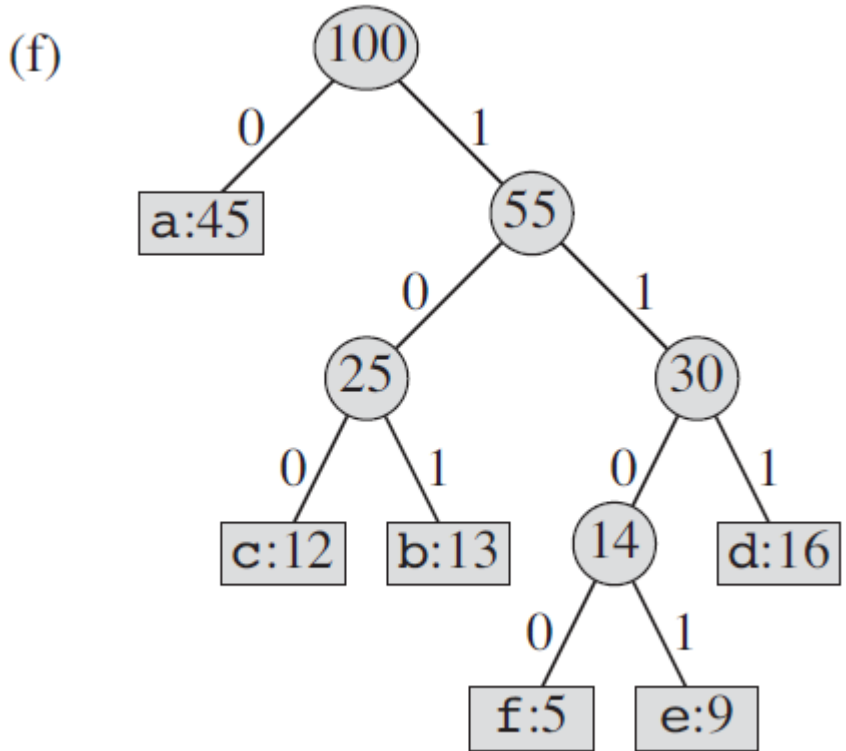
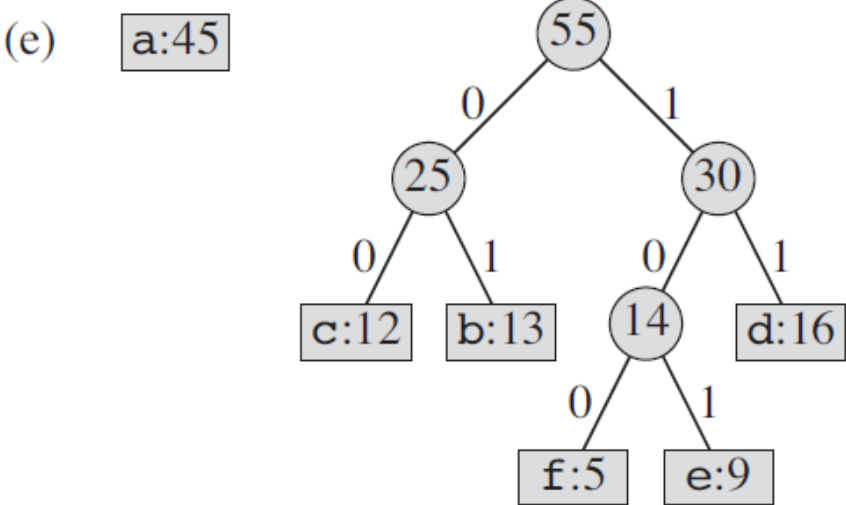
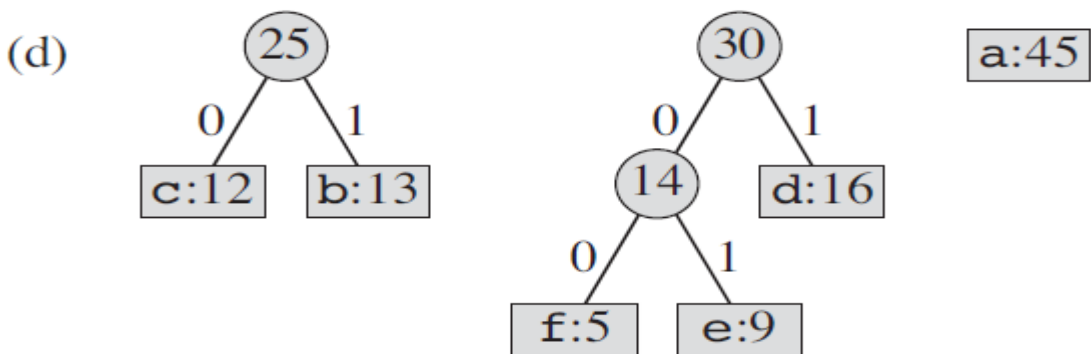
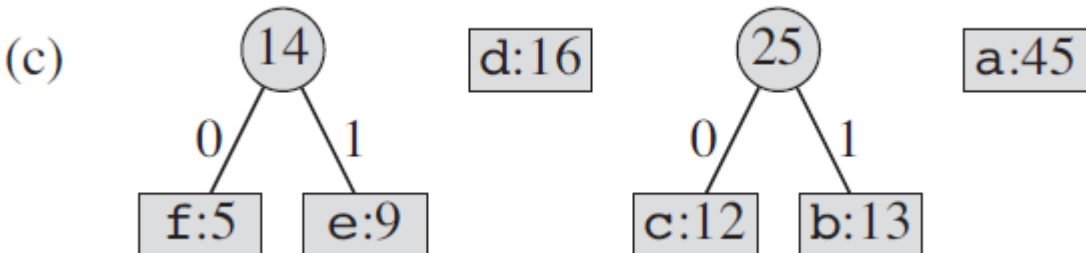
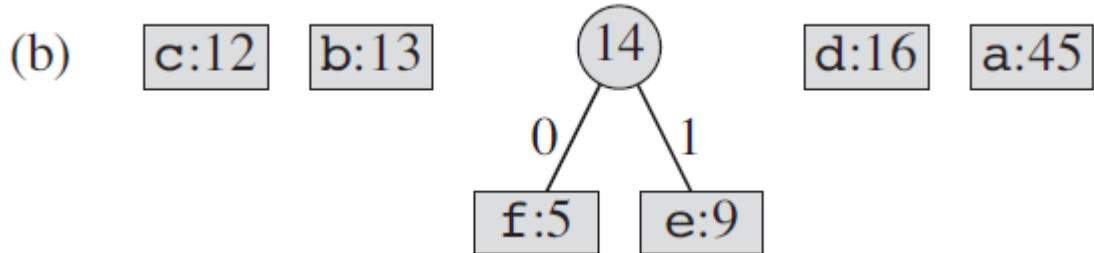
HUFFMAN( $C$ )

```
1   $n = |C|$       Line 2 initializes the min-priority queue  $Q$  with the characters in  $C$ .
2   $Q = C$ 
3  for  $i = 1$  to  $n - 1$ 
4      allocate a new node  $z$ 
5       $z.left = x = \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$ 
6       $z.right = y = \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$ 
7       $z.freq = x.freq + y.freq$ 
8       $\text{INSERT}(Q, z)$ 
9  return  $\text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$     // return the root of the tree
```

Extracts the two nodes  $x$  and  $y$  of lowest frequency from the queue, replacing them in the queue with a new node  $Z$ .

# Constructing a Huffman Code

(a) f:5 e:9 c:12 b:13 d:16 a:45



# Complexity

- we assume that  $Q$  is implemented as a binary min-heap
- For a set  $C$  of  $n$  characters, we can initialize  $Q$  in line 2 in  $O(n)$  time using the BUILD-MIN-HEAP procedure

lines 3–8 executes exactly  $n - 1$  times

each heap operation requires time  $O(\lg n)$

the loop contributes  $O(n \lg n)$

HUFFMAN( $C$ )

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