

# REPORT FOR 1DV516

ALGORITHMS AND ADVANCED DATA STRUCTURES

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# 1 Abstract

This report will go over how I solved the problems in the assignment.

## 2 Introduction

In this report I will elaborate my solutions to the required problems (4-7) as well as the problems for the grade VG (8). I will start with a general description of the setup for the experiments, how I tested my algorithms for both correctness and speed and how I then used those results to create visualizations of the data.

## 3 Experiment Setup

Before I will go into the details of the testing, benchmarking and visualizations. I will elaborate the general structure of the project and the code.

### 3.1 Structure

I have structured the project so that every major responsibility is contained within its own folder.

- `bencharks` contains all benchmarking code

- `bench_results` contains all benchmarking results as *.csv* files

- `tests` contains all the testing code

- `analysis` contains all the python code for data analysis

- `fits` contains all the plots with fitted graphs generated using *scipy*

- `calcs` contains all the results for the fits generated using *scipy*

- `plots` contains all the generated visualizations as *.png* files

- `bin` contains the compiled java code

- `src` contains all the source code for the algorithms as well as the helper utility for the testing and benchmarking

Running any functionality of the project should be done via *make*. The *Makefile* is located in the root of the project and contains all the necessary commands to build the java code, run tests and benchmarks and generate the visualizations.

## 3.2 Testing

To test the correctness of the algorithms I have created a couple of helper classes that allow me to string together a series of tests and then run them. The results are printed to *stdout* and contain information about which tests passed and which failed. The Makefile contains commands to run all tests together or just a single file. Its not very advanced but it is enough for the purpose of this assignment.

My tests were simple, I took small inputs for which I could figure out the supposed output myself and used it to test the algorithms. For some algorithms I added more tests, just to be sure, because while the algorithms are fairly trivial to implement, the improved cache version required slightly more thinking. But I will talk more about that later in Problem 5 and Problem 6.

## 3.3 Benchmarking

For the benchmarking I did something similar and created a set of utility classes that use Java's *System.nanoTime()* to measure the time it takes to run a given algorithm. To make the *bench* function I used for all my tests generic, I this public interface:

```
public <T> void bench(  
    String name,  
    String filename ,  
    Function<Integer , T> setup ,  
    Consumer<T> fn ,  
    List<Integer> sizes ,  
    int reps  
) { ... }
```

The parameters *name* and *filename* are quite trivial and simply used to display the name of the benchmark to *stdout* and to save the results to a *.csv* file. The rest requires some more explanation:

- *setup* takes the size to test an arbitrary algorithm at as input and returns the algorithms input as type *T*. This is so that the setup can be adjusted according to the size. It is also crucial to our ability to make the benchmarks multithreadable. This setup function allows us

to isolate each thread and encapsulate everything it needs so we don't have any shared state.

- *fn* is a function that takes the input generated by the *setup* of type *T* as input and returns nothing. This function is the algorithm that is being benchmarked.
- *sizes* is a list of integers that represent the input sizes that should be benchmarked. The benchmarking function will run the algorithm for each input size and measure the time it takes to run the algorithm for each input size.
- *reps* is the number of times the algorithm should be run for each input size. The benchmarking function will run the algorithm *reps* times for each input size and then calculate the average time it took to run the algorithm for each input size.

While we get the time as *nano seconds*, we store and display it in *milli seconds* to make it easier to read.

### 3.4 Visualizations

For the visualizations I used *python* and *matplotlib*, *numpy* and *scipy*. There is not much to say here. I simply load the data using *numpy* and then pass use it with *matplotlib* to generate simple graphs. For the fitting I used *scipy*'s *curve\_fit* function together with a couple of simple functions I defined such as linear, quadratic, cubic etc..

## 4 Problems - G

### 4.1 Problem 4 - UnionFind Benchmarking & Growth

For the comparison between the basic Quick Find version of Union Find and some improved version, I chose the Weighted Quick Union (*WQU*). And although I also implemented all other options, I will only use the results for the *WQU* implementation for the comparison.

#### 4.1.1 Quick Union Expectations

Before looking at the benchmarks and calculations we need to think about what we expect to be able to check if we messed up our implementation or if it was correct.

The dominant factor when to consider when arguing about the runtime performance of the basic quick find implementation is the *union* function and here in particular the *for loop* over all  $N$  elements. This will obviously result in a time complexity of  $O(N)$  as other operations such as retrieving the id/root are  $O(1)$  operations and since we ignore lower order terms and coefficients that leaves us with  $O(N)$ .

#### 4.1.2 Weighted Quick Union Expectations

For the *WQU* however we expect something quite a bit better than  $O(N)$ . The reason for this is the check we perform in every union. We maintain a list of weights for all nodes, and with every union, the weight of the two nodes to be connected will be compared and the node that has a lower weight will be appended to the heavier one. I am using weight instead of size as this name more accurately describes what we are keeping track of here. Since we are only keeping track of the total number of nodes in one tree, not the depth/size of it. For a list of length  $N$  we could have a single union with weight  $N$  but a max depth of 1.

Now the reason this check will give us a huge performance boost is because now, the depth of the tree can only be increased when two unions of the same size are connected together. This means that in order to get the max depth of the tree, we would have to only ever unionise nodes with the same weight, which is equivalent to doubling the weight of all nodes before moving on to the next round and doing the same thing again. Lets look at an example:

Lets start with a newly initialised list of size 8. We have 8 root nodes with a weight of 1 [(0, 1), (1, 1), (2, 1), (3, 1), (4, 1), (5, 1), (6, 1), (7, 1)]. In the first round, we unionise 4 unique pairs. This will result in 4 root nodes with a weight of 2 [(1, 1), (1, 2), (3, 1), (3, 2), (5, 1), (5, 2), (7, 1), (7, 2)]. By this point, the max depth is 1. The next iteration will result in 2 root nodes with a weight of 4 and a max depth of 2 and the last iteration last in one root node with a weight of 8 and a max depth of 3. At this point its weight is equal to  $N$ , since all of the nodes within the list have it as its root node.

If we want to apply this to any generic list of size  $N$ , we have to think about how many of those iterations can we possibly do. This is the same as asking, how many times can we *half* the number of  $N$  root nodes or how many times we can double 1. Both of these will lead to the same result, which is  $\log_2 N$ . This holds not only for lengths of a power of 2, but for any  $N$ , since in those cases the depth is still dominated by the largest power of 2 that is smaller than  $N$ .

All of this should lead up to the expectation that the *find* or *root* function of the Weighted Quick Union Find should have a time complexity of  $O(\log N)$ . If we think about the time complexity of the *union* and *connected* function, where we have to call find/root twice, it might seem like the time complexity should be  $O(2\log N)$  but since we ignore coefficients this will still result in  $O(\log N)$  for both functions.

#### 4.1.3 Quick Union Results

The benchmarking for the basic quick find implementation was done by running the *union* function on a list of  $N$  sizes ranging from 10.000 to 1.000.000 in steps of 10.000. Each function will be called 1.000 times. The resulting growth we can observe is as expected linear. To facilitate this lets take a couple of points to calculate the necessary values. For this

size	time	$\log_2 t$	ratio	$\log_2 r$	slope	b	c
100000	15	3.95	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
200000	27	4.78	1.77	0.83	0.000120	0.826	-9.76
300000	44	5.49	1.63	0.71	0.000170	1.208	-16.50
400000	59	5.89	1.32	0.40	0.000145	0.972	-12.20
500000	72	6.19	1.23	0.30	0.000136	0.923	-11.28
600000	87	6.45	1.20	0.26	0.000144	0.991	-12.58
700000	104	6.71	1.20	0.26	0.000175	1.188	-16.36
800000	114	6.85	1.10	0.13	0.000102	0.695	-6.78
900000	132	7.05	1.15	0.20	0.000171	1.179	-16.28
average		6.17	1.33	0.39	0.000146	0.998	-12.72

Table 1: All the results of calculations based on the *size* and *time*.  $\log_2 t = \log_2 \text{time}$ ,  $\log_2 r = \log_2 \text{ratio}$

The *size* and *time* column are quite obvious to understand. The  $\log_2 t$  column contains simply the  $\log_2$  of the original time values for comparing

the values we get from our calculated function and confirming its correctness. The same goes for the *ratio/log<sub>2</sub>ratio* columns. To calculate the slope we take the size and time of two rows and put them in this formula:  $\frac{time1-time2}{size1-size2}$ . The *log<sub>2</sub>slope* is basically the same but instead of taking the raw values we use the *log<sub>2</sub>* of them, like this  $\frac{log_2time1-log_2time2}{log_2size1-log_2size2}$ . Once we have the *b*, we can use it to calculate the constant *c* like this:  $c = log_2time - b * log_2size$ . The reason why there are no values in the first row is that since we rely on the previous value for all results and there are no previous values for the first row, we are unable to calculate anything.

But now that we calculated the *b* and *c* for some points, we can take the average and use that to create a mode that predicts/approximates the *log<sub>2</sub>* of a time for a given size. The function in question looks like this  $log_2t = b * log_2n + c$ , where *t* is the time and *n* the size. In our case, the average *b* is 0.998 and the average *c* is -12.72, which leaves us with the following function:  $log_2t = 0.998 * log_2n - 12.72$ . Lets compare the values we get from the model predictions to the original values.

size	original $log_2t$	prediction	accuracy
200000	4.78	4.85	0.98
300000	5.49	5.44	1.01
400000	5.89	5.85	1.01
500000	6.19	6.17	1.00
600000	6.45	6.43	1.00
700000	6.71	6.66	1.01
800000	6.85	6.85	1.00
900000	7.05	7.02	1.00

Table 2: Model Predictions vs Original  $log_2$  times calculated with *b* and *c*

As we can see, the model predictions are quite accurate, with only minimal errors in their accuracy. But these are only the *log<sub>2</sub>* values, to get the actual time we have to create a power law that approximates the actual time rather than just the *log<sub>2</sub>* of it. This is done by simply taking the already calculated *b* and *c* values and plugging them into the general power law formula  $a * x^b$ , where  $a = 2^c$ . This results in the following function:  $t = 2^{-12.72} * n^{0.998}$  or  $t = 0.00015 * n^{0.998}$ . Lets compare the values we get from the model predictions to the original values:

Once again, the predicted values are fairly close to the original times,



size	original t	prediction	accuracy
100000	15.49	14.47	1.07
200000	27.45	28.90	0.95
300000	44.81	43.31	1.03
400000	59.27	57.71	1.03
500000	72.83	72.11	1.01
600000	87.25	86.49	1.01
700000	104.79	100.88	1.04
800000	114.98	115.25	1.00
900000	132.11	129.63	1.02

Table 3: Power Law predictions vs Original times calculated with  $b$  and  $c$

which indicates that our calculated values are indeed correct. To fully confirm this, I also used *scipys curve\_fit* function to generate a power law in order to compare it to our calculated one. Important to mention here is the fact that the *curve\_fit* was ran on all of the data, not just these 9 values. The resulting power law is the following

$a = 0.00016$ ,  $b = 0.994$  vs our results:  $a = 0.00015$ ,  $b = 0.998$

We can confidently say that our calculations were accurate. That now allows us to argue about whether our expectations about the growth rate of the quick find were correct. The calculated exponents ( $b$ ) are very close to 1 which indicates linear growth and confirms our assumption that the basic implementation of union find are linear. This first analysis was a bit more in depth than the following ones since all the rules and formulas had to be established.

#### 4.1.4 Weighted Quick Union Results

Since now the process is established we can go straight into the calculations and their results. We apply the same steps as previously, take the sizes and times, calculate the slopes,  $b$ 's and  $c$ 's and use it to create the general function to predict the  $\log_2 t$  and the power law to approximate the actual size. This leaves us with the following tables.

size	time	l2 t	ratio	l2 r	slope	b	c
100000	1.94	0.95	0.00	0.00	0.0000e+00	0.000	0.00
200000	2.03	1.02	1.05	0.07	9.1965e-07	0.067	-0.16
300000	1.95	0.97	0.96	-0.05	-7.3533e-07	-0.091	2.62
400000	2.29	1.20	1.17	0.23	3.3610e-06	0.551	-9.07
500000	1.73	0.79	0.76	-0.40	-5.5719e-06	-1.249	24.44
600000	1.96	0.97	1.13	0.18	2.2789e-06	0.677	-12.03
700000	2.03	1.02	1.04	0.05	7.2662e-07	0.236	-3.56
800000	1.90	0.93	0.94	-0.09	-1.2665e-06	-0.481	10.37
900000	1.98	0.99	1.04	0.05	7.2805e-07	0.318	-5.30
average		0.99	1.01	0.00	5.51e-08	0.004	0.91

Table 4: All the results of calculations based on the *size* and *time*.  $l2\ t = \log_2 time$ ,  $l2\ r = \log_2 ratio$

size	original	pred	acc	size	original	pred	acc
100000	1.9364	1.9637	0.9861	100000	0.9534	0.9735	0.9793
200000	2.0283	1.9685	1.0304	200000	1.0203	0.9771	1.0442
300000	1.9548	1.9713	0.9916	300000	0.9670	0.9792	0.9876
400000	2.2909	1.9733	1.1609	400000	1.1959	0.9806	1.2195
500000	1.7337	1.9749	0.8779	500000	0.7939	0.9818	0.8086
600000	1.9616	1.9762	0.9926	600000	0.9720	0.9827	0.9891
700000	2.0343	1.9773	1.0288	700000	1.0245	0.9835	1.0417
800000	1.9076	1.9782	0.9643	800000	0.9318	0.9842	0.9467
900000	1.9804	1.9790	1.0007	900000	0.9858	0.9848	1.0010

Table 5: Model Predictions vs Original  $\log_2 Time$  vs Table 6: Power Law Predictions vs Original Time

As we can see in Table 4, the results are drastically different from the basic quick find implementation. The slope for example is at some points negative and adds up to an average of near 0 (0.0000000551). The calculated b and c values seem to check out with accuracies close around 1. If we look at the *scipy* generated power law however, it looks quite a lot different.

a: 3.145, b: -0.0335 vs a: 1.879, b: 0.004

Now those are quite different results. This is most likely due to the fact that for the *scipy* version I again used all of the data, not just this subset, but it is interesting to see, that such different values can be used to get bascially

the same output. Nevertheless, we can use our calculations to evaluate our predictions.

## 4.2 Problem 5 - Threesum Brute Force

The implementation of the brute-force threesum was straight forward. Simply nest three for loops and check if the sum of the three numbers is zero in the third loop. In order to avoid using the same number in the calculation, we check the indices of the numbers we are currently checking and just continue the loop if any of the indices of the loops match. To keep track of the three numbers I created a simple *record* that stores the three numbers. This will include duplicates, meaning for example that  $(1, -2, -6, 1)$  will result in  $(1, -2, 1)$ ,  $(1, 1, -2)$ ,  $(-2, 1, 1)$ ,  $(-2, 1, 1)$ ,  $(1, -2, 1)$ ,  $(1, 1, -2)$  for a total of  $3!$  results which includes results that are the same simply reordered versions of an already existing Triple. This is of course not optimal and we will see later that with the cached and improved cached version we can reduce these.

## 4.3 Problem 6 - Threesum Improved

I chose the

## 4.4 Problem 7 - Threesum Benchmarking & Growth

# 5 Problems - VG

## 5.1 Problem 8 - Percolation

# 6 Conclusion

The conclusion of the report.