CS101 Algorithms and Data Structures

Disjoint Sets
Textbook Ch 21



Outline

In this topic, we will cover disjoint sets, including:

- A review of equivalence relations
- The definition of a Disjoint Set
- An efficient data structure
 - A general tree
- An optimization which results in
 - Worst case $O(\ln(n))$ height
 - Average case O(α(n))) height
 - Best case $\Theta(1)$ height
- A few examples and applications

Definitions

Recall the properties of an equivalence relation:

- $a \sim a$ for all a
- $a \sim b$ if and only if $b \sim a$
- If $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, it follows that $a \sim c$

An equivalence relation *partitions* a set into distinct equivalence classes

Each equivalence class may be represented by a single object: the representative object

Another descriptive term for the sets in such a partition is disjoint sets

Explicitly Defined Disjoint Sets

Alternatively, a partition or collection of disjoint sets may be used to explicitly define an equivalence relation:

- $a \sim b$ if and only if a and b are in the same partition

For example, the 10 numerals

can be partitioned into the three sets

$$\{1, 2, 3, 5, 7\}, \{4, 6, 9, 0\}, \{8\}$$

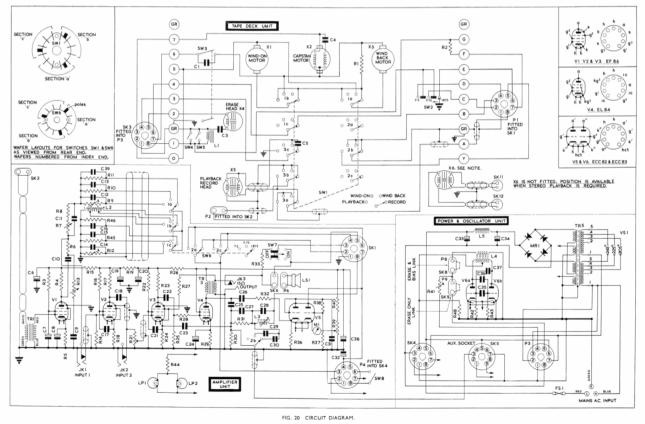
Therefore, $1 \sim 2$, $2 \sim 3$, etc.

Explicitly Defined Disjoint Sets

Consider simulating a device and tracking the connected components in a circuit

This forms an equivalence relation:

 $a \sim b$ if a and b are connected



Disjoint Sets

Definition: a set of elements partitioned into a number of disjoint subsets

For example, a partition of the 10 numerals

into three disjoint subsets

$$\{1, 2, 3, 5, 7\}, \{4, 6, 9, 0\}, \{8\}$$

- Also called:
 - union–find data structure
 - merge–find set

Operations on Disjoint Sets

There are two operations we would like to perform on disjoint sets:

- Determine if two elements are in the same disjoint set, and
- Take the union of two disjoint sets creating a single set

We will determine if two objects are in the same disjoint set by defining a **find** function

- find(a): find the representative object of the disjoint set that a belongs
 to
- Given two elements a and b, they are in the same set if

```
find( a ) == find( b )
```

What **find** returns is irrelevant so long as:

- If a and b are in the same set, find(a) == find(b)
- If a and b are not in the same set, find(a) != find(b)

Here we assume find returns an integer

Here is a poor implementation:

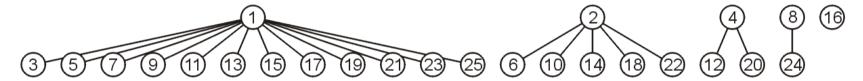
Have two arrays and the second array stores the representative objects

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1	2	1	4	1	2	1	8	1	2	1	4	1	2	1	16	1	2	1	4	1	2	1	8	1

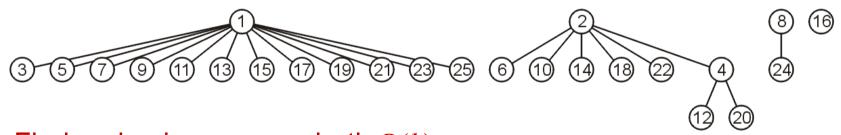
- Given the index of an element, finding the representative object is $\Theta(1)$
- However, taking the union of two sets is $\Theta(n)$
 - It would be necessary to check each array entry

As an alternate implementation, let each disjoint set be represented by a general tree

The root of the tree is the representative object

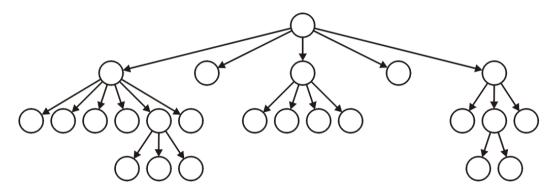


To take the union of two such sets, we will simply attach one tree to the root of the other



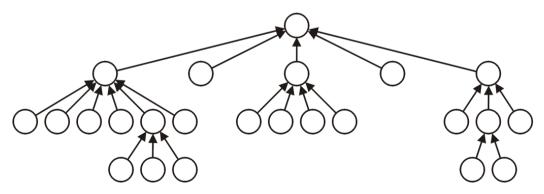
Find and union are now both O(h)

Normally, a node points to its children:



We are only interested in the root; therefore, our interest is in storing

the parent



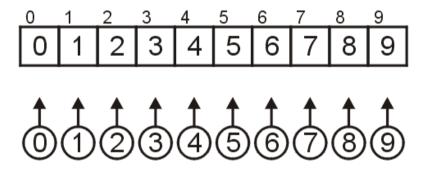
For simplicity, assume we are creating disjoint sets for the n integers

```
0, 1, 2, ..., n-1
```

```
We will define an array
    parent = new int[n];

If parent[i] == i, then i is a root node
Initially, each integer is in its own set
    for ( int i = 0; i < n; ++i ) {
        parent[i] = i;
    }</pre>
```

Consider the following disjoint set on the ten decimal digits:



- find(int i)
 - Find the root element of the tree that contains i
- set_union(int i, int j)
 - Find the root elements of i and j
 - Update the parent of one root element to be the other root element

We will define the function

Initially, you will note that

```
find( i ) != find( j )
```

for i != j, and therefore, we begin with each integer being in its own set

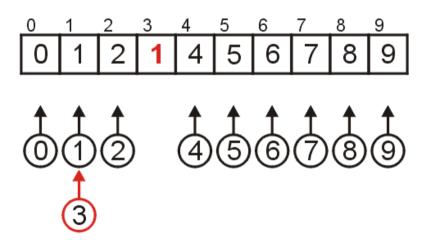
We must next look at the *union* operation

how to join two disjoint sets into a single set

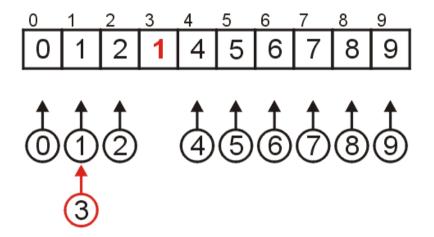
This function is also easy to define:

If we take the union of the sets containing 1 and 3 set_union(1, 3);

we perform a find on both entries and update the second

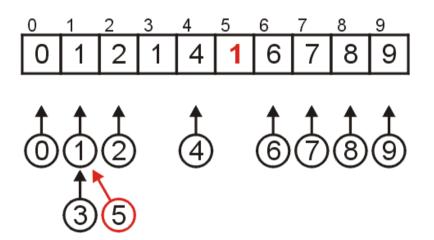


Now, find(1) and find(3) will both return the integer 1

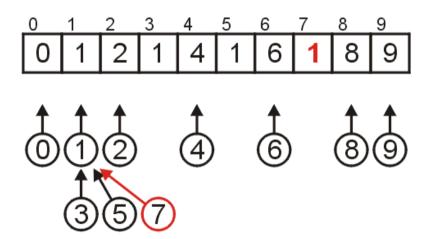


Next, take the union of the sets containing 3 and 5, set_union(3, 5);

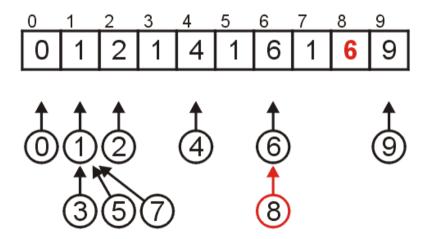
we perform a find on both entries and update the second



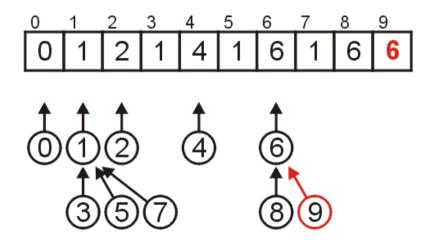
Now, if we take the union of the sets containing 5 and 7 set_union(5, 7);



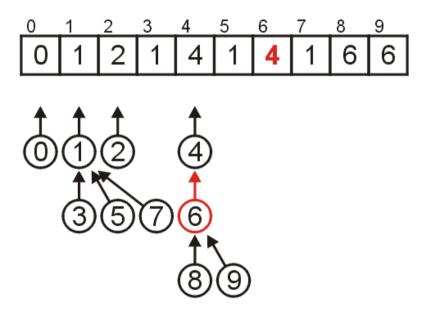
Taking the union of the sets containing 6 and 8 set_union(6, 8);



Taking the union of the sets containing 8 and 9 set_union(8, 9);

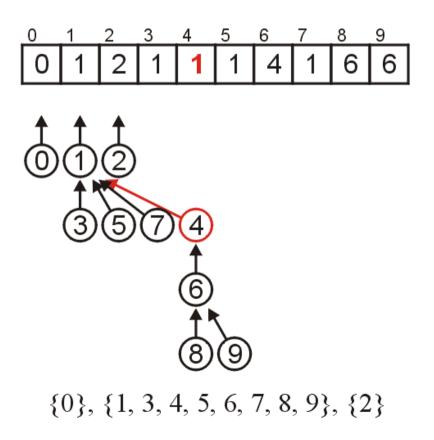


Taking the union of the sets containing 4 and 8 set_union(4, 8);



 $\{0\}, \{1, 3, 5, 7\}, \{2\}, \{4, 6, 8, 9\}$

Finally, if we take the union of the sets containing 5 and 6 set_union(5, 6);



Optimization 1

Problem:

The height of the tree may grow very large

To optimize both find and set_union, we must minimize the height of the tree

- Therefore, point the root of the shorter tree to the root of the taller tree
- The height of the taller will increase if and only if the trees are equal in height

Let us consider creating the worst-case disjoint set

The tallest tree with the least number of nodes

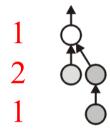
The worst case tree of height h must result from taking union of two worst case trees of height h-1

Thus, building on this, we take the union of two sets with one element

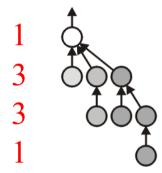
- We will keep track of the number of nodes at each depth



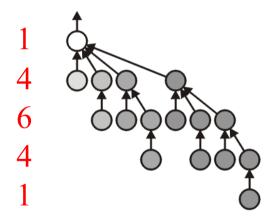
Next, we take the union of two sets, that is, we join two worst-case sets of height 1:



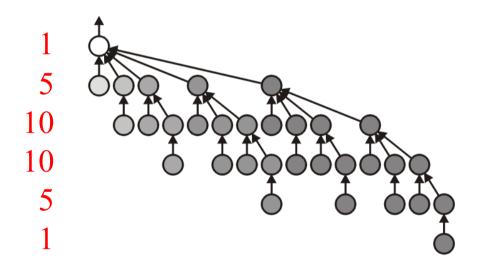
And continue, taking the union of two worst-case trees of height 2:



Taking the union of two worst-case trees of height 3:

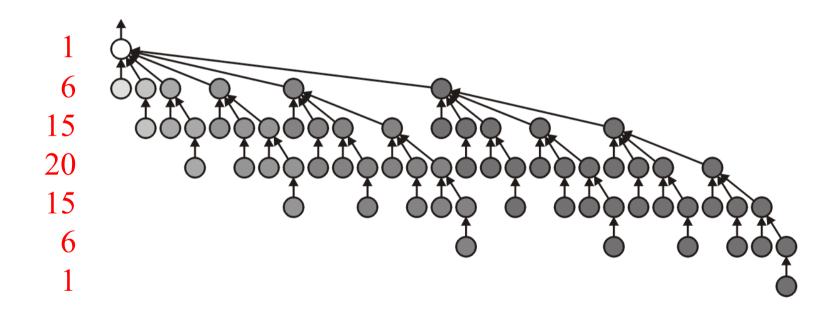


And of four:



And finally, take the union of two worst-case trees of height 5:

- These are binomial trees



From the construction, it should be clear that this would define Pascal's triangle

Pascal's triangle

- The binomial coefficients

$$\binom{n}{m} = \begin{cases}
1 & m = 0 \text{ or } m = n \\
\binom{n-1}{m} + \binom{n-1}{m-1} & 0 < m < n \\
1 & 1 & 6
\end{cases}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{m!(n-m)!} & 1 & 3 & 10$$

$$1 & 2 & 6 & 20$$

$$1 & 3 & 10$$

$$1 & 4 & 15$$

$$1 & 5 & 6$$

$$1 & 6 & 1$$

$$1 & 6 & 1$$

$$1 & 6 & 1$$

$$1 & 6 & 1$$

$$1 & 1 & 1$$

Thus, suppose we have a worst-case tree of height *h*

- The number of nodes is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{h} \binom{h}{k} = 2^h = n$$

The sum of node depth is

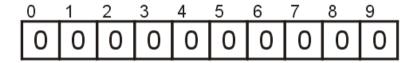
$$\sum_{k=0}^{h} k \binom{h}{k} = h2^{h-1}$$

Therefore, the average depth is $h2^{h-1} = h = \frac{1g(n)}{n}$

The height and average depth of the worst case are
$$O(\ln(n))$$

Best-Case Scenario

In the best case, all elements point to the same entry with a resulting height of $\Theta(1)$:





Average-Case Scenario

What is the average case?

Could it be any better than $O(\ln(n))$?

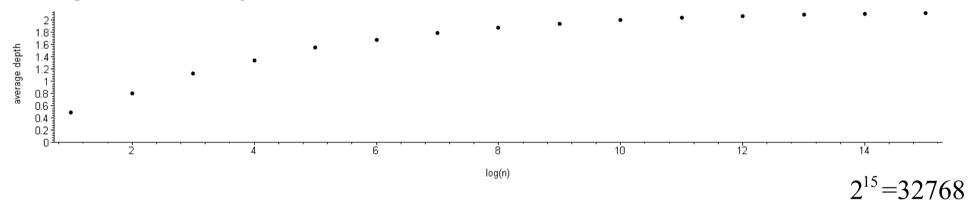
– is there something better?

Experiment: given $n = 2^m$ integers, randomly take set union until all integers are in a single set

- For each n, do this multiple times and found the mean height

Average-Case Scenario

The resulting graph shows the average height of a randomly generated disjoint set data structure with 2^m elements



This suggests that the average height of such a tree is $o(\ln(n))$

Optimization 2: Path Compression

Another optimization is that, whenever find is called, update the object to point to the root

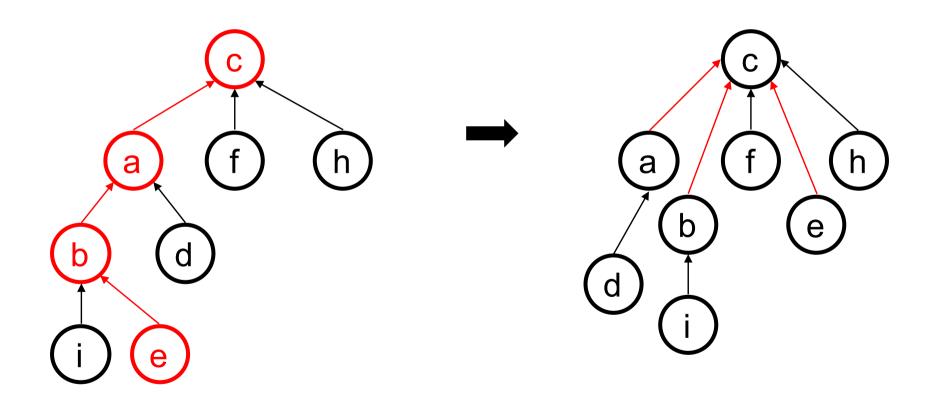
```
size_t Disjoint_set::find( size_t n ) {
    if ( parent[n] == n ) {
        return n;
    } else {
        parent[n] = find( parent[n] );
        return parent[n];
    }
}
```

The next call to find (n) is $\Theta(1)$

The cost is O(h) memory

Optimization 2: Path Compression

find(e)



Time complexity

With both optimization methods, could it be any better than $O(\ln(n))$?

– is there something better?

The amortized time complexity is $O(\alpha(n))$ where $\alpha(n)$ is the inverse of the function A(n, n) where A(m, n) is the Ackermann function:

$$A(m,n) = \begin{cases} n+1 & \text{if } m = 0 \\ A(m-1,1) & \text{if } m > 0 \text{ and } n = 0 \\ A(m-1,A(m,n-1)) & \text{if } m > 0 \text{ and } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

The first values are:

$$A(0, 0) = 1$$
, $A(1, 1) = 3$, $A(2, 2) = 7$, $A(3, 3) = 61$

Time complexity

 $A(4, 4) = 2^{A(3, 4)} - 3$ where A(3,4) is the 19729-decimal-digit number



Thus, A(4, 4) + 3, in binary, is 1 followed by this many zeros....

Time complexity

Therefore, we (as engineers) can, in clear conscience, state that the time complexity is $\Theta(1)$

– There are no physical circumstances where $\alpha(n)$ could by anything more than 4

One common application is in image processing

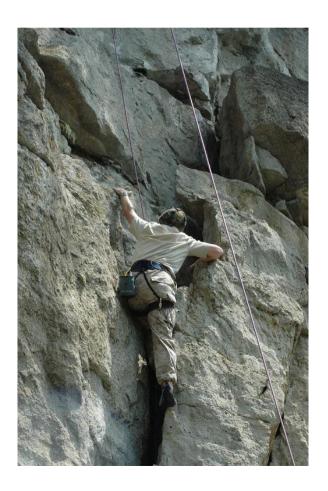
Suppose you are attempting to recognize similar features within an image

Within a photograph, the same object may be separated by an obstruction; e.g., a road may be split by

- a telephone pole in an image
- an overpass on an aerial photograph

Consider the following image

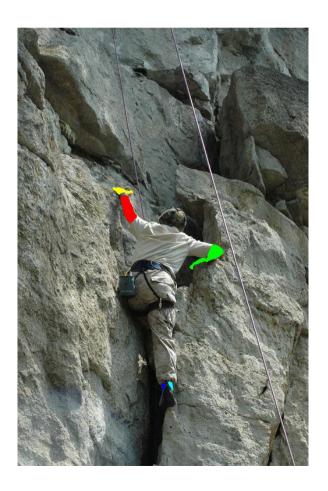
Suppose we have a program which recognizes skin tones



A first algorithm may make an initial pass and recognize five different regions which are recognized as exposed skin

the left arm and hand are separated by a watch

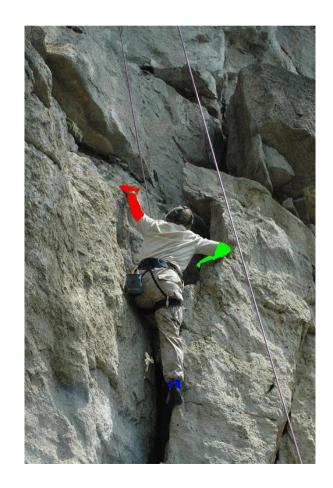
Each region would be represented by a separate disjoint set



Next, a second algorithm may take sets which are close in proximity and attempt to determine if they are from the same person

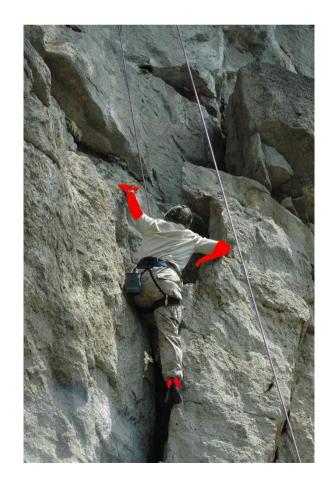
In this case, the algorithm takes the union of:

- the red and yellow regions, and
- the dark and light blue regions



Finally, a third algorithm may take more distant sets and, depending on skin tone and other properties, may determine that they come from the same individual

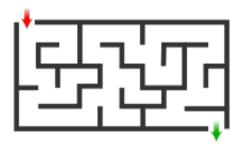
In this example, the third pass may, if successful, take the union of the red, blue, and green regions



A fun application is in the generation of mazes

Impress your (non-engineering) friends

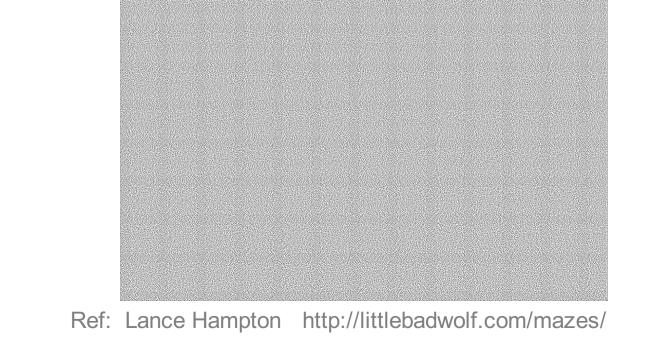
- They'll never guess how easy this is...



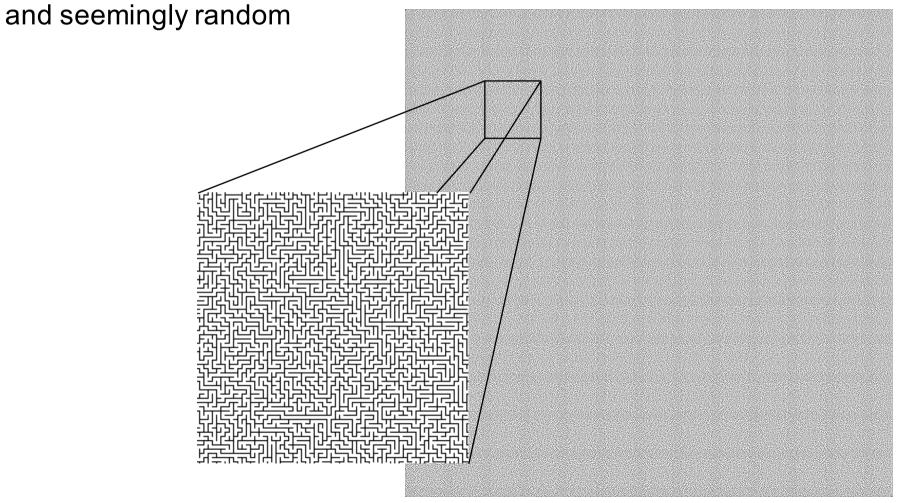
Here we have a maze which spans

a 500 × 500 grid of squares where:

- There is one unique solution
- Each point can be reached by one unique path from the start



Zooming in on the maze, you will note that it is rather complex

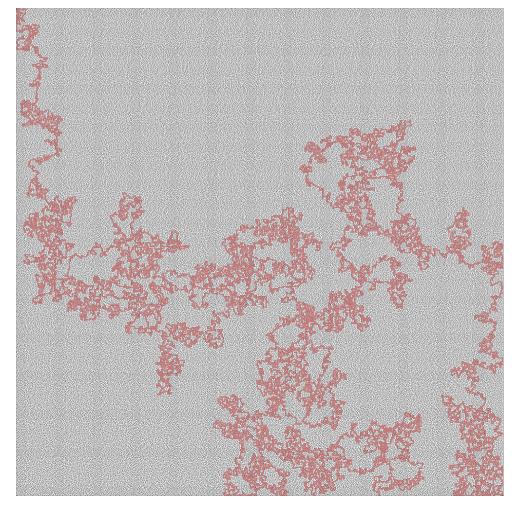


Ref: Lance Hampton http://littlebadwolf.com/mazes/

Finding the solution is a problem for a different lecture

Backtracking algorithms

We will look at creating the maze using disjoint sets

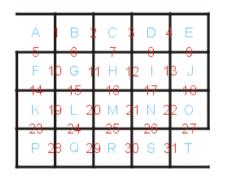


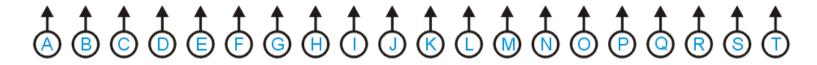
Ref: Lance Hampton http://littlebadwolf.com/mazes/

What we will do is the following:

- Start with the entire grid subdivided into squares
- Represent each square as a separate disjoint set
- Repeat the following algorithm:
 - Randomly choose a wall
 - If that wall connects two disjoint sets of cells, then remove the wall and union the two sets
- To ensure that you do not randomly remove the same wall twice, we can have an array of unchecked walls

Let us begin with an entrance, an exit, and a disjoint set of 20 squares and 31 interior walls

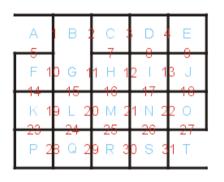


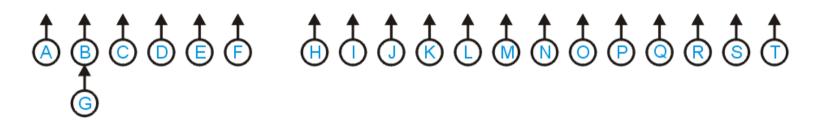


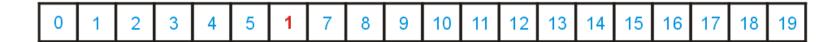


First, we select 6 which joins cells B and G

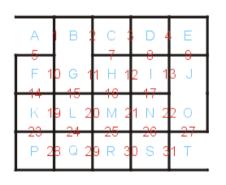
Both have height 0

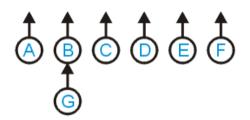


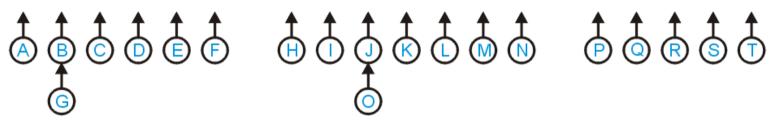


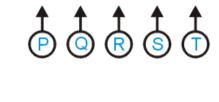


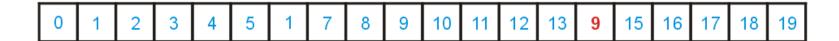
Next we select wall 18 which joins regions J and O





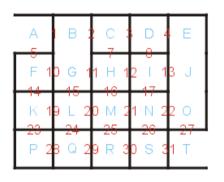


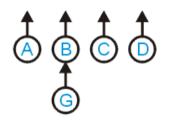


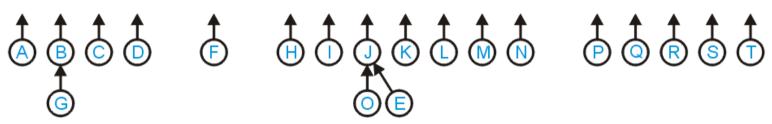


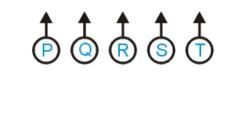
Next we select wall 9 which joins the disjoint sets E and J

The disjoint set containing E has height 0, and therefore it is attached to J





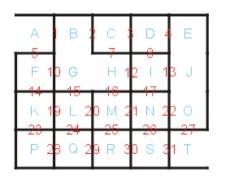


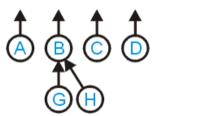


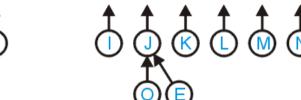


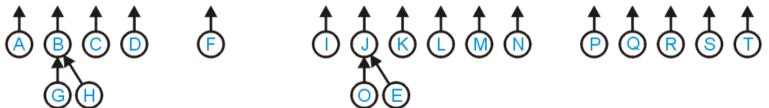
Next we select wall 11 which joins the sets identified by B and H

H has height 0 and therefore we attach it to B





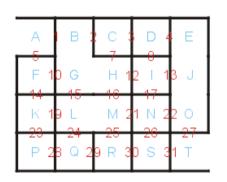


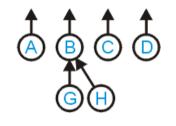


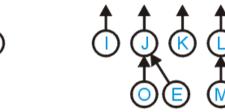


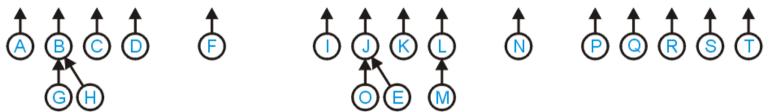
Next we select wall 20 which joins disjoint sets L and M

Both are height 0





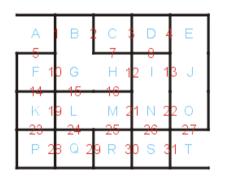


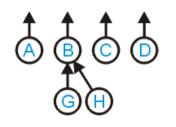


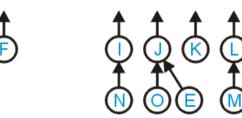


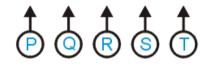
Next we select wall 17 which joins disjoint sets I and N

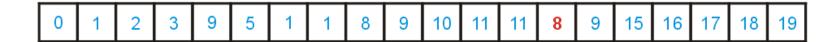
Both are height 0





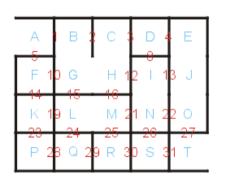


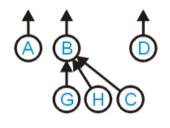


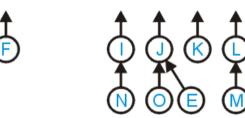


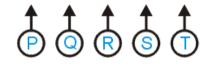
Next we select wall 7 which joins the disjoint set C and the disjoint set identified by B

C has height 0 and thus we attach it to B





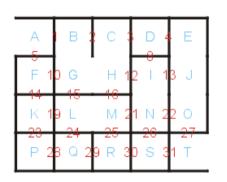


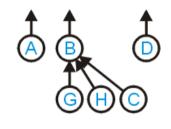




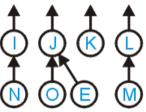
Can we select wall 2 and remove it?

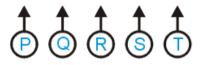
No, because it does not connect two disjoint sets of cells

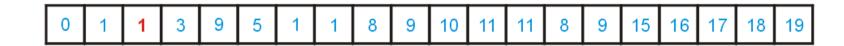








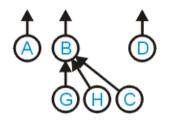


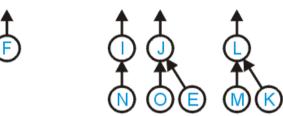


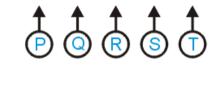
Next we select wall 19 which joins the disjoint set K to the disjoint set identified by L

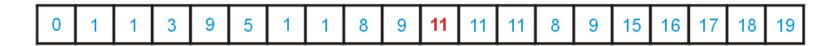
Because K has height 0, we attach it to L





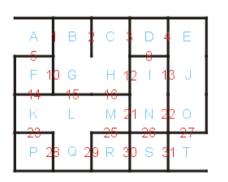


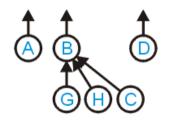


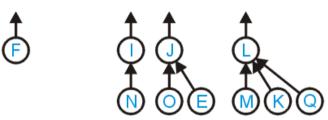


Next we select wall 23 and join the disjoint set Q with the set identified by L

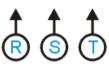
Again, Q has height 0 so we attach it to L

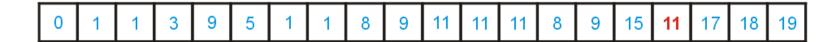






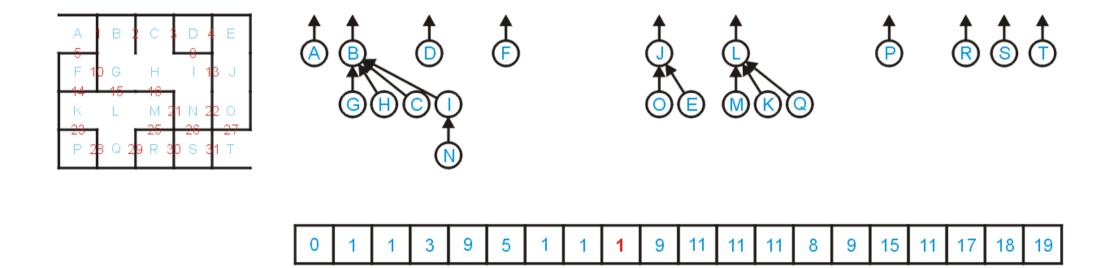






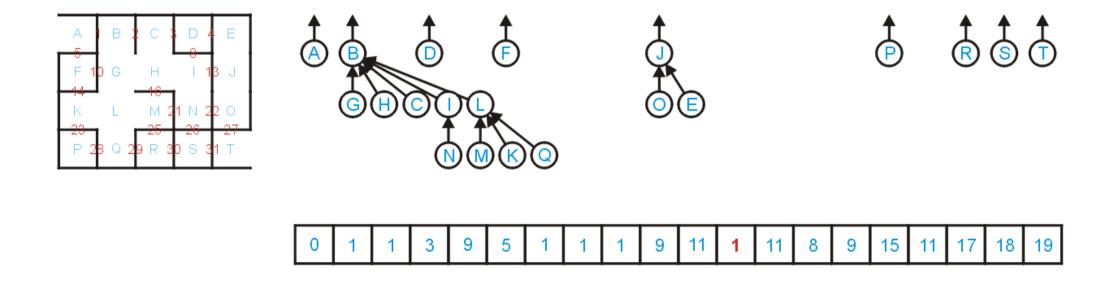
Next we select wall 12 which joints the disjoint sets identified by B and I

 They both have the same height, but B has more nodes, so we add I to the node B



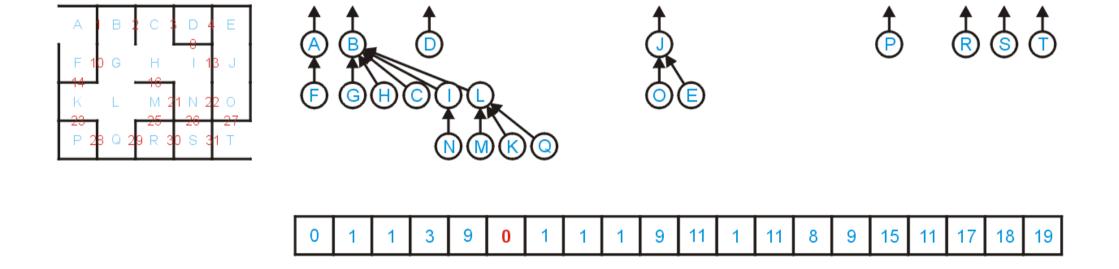
Selecting wall 15 joints the sets identified by B and L

 The tree B has height 2 while L has height 1 and therefore we attach L to B

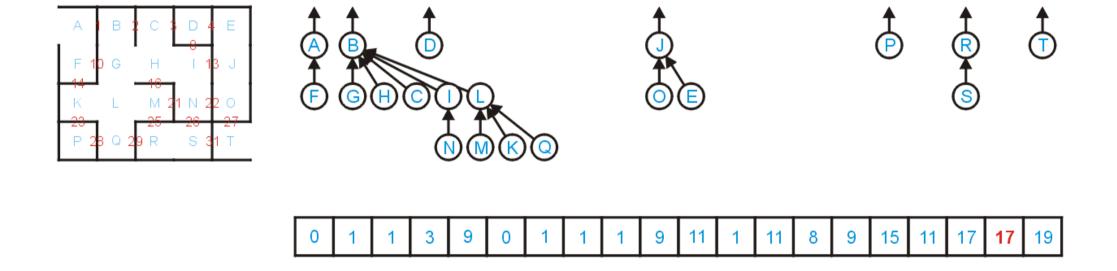


Next we select wall 5 which joins disjoint sets A and F

Both are height 0

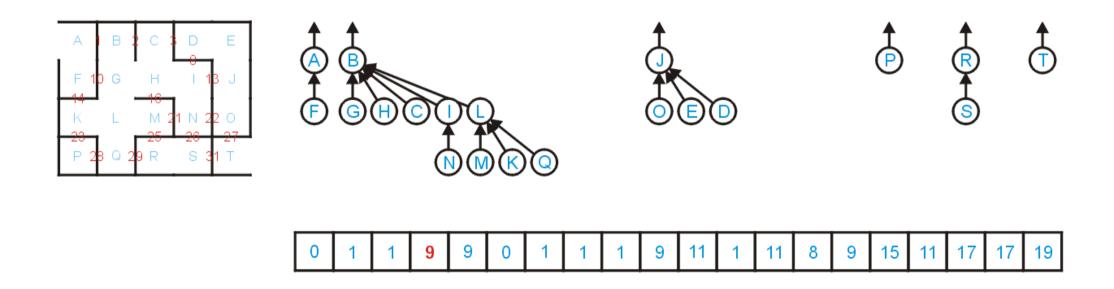


Selecting wall 30 also joins two disjoint sets R and S



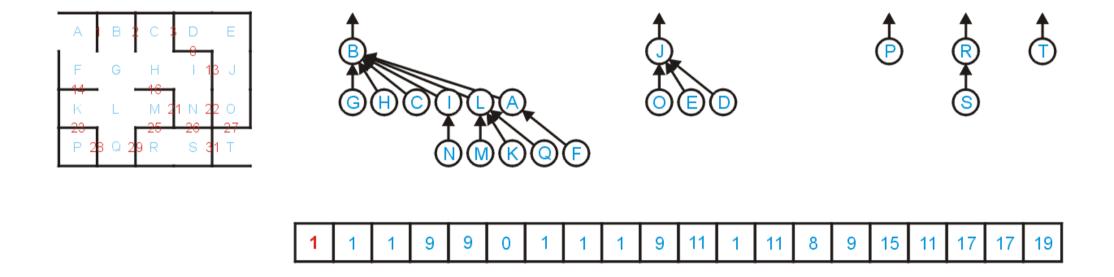
Selecting wall 4 joints the disjoint set D and the disjoint set identified by J

D has height 0, J has height 1, and thus we add D to J



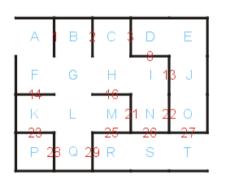
Next we select wall 10 which joins the sets identified by A and B

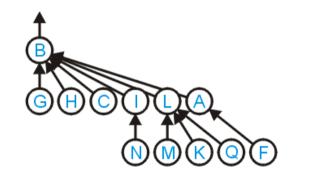
- A has height 1 while B has height 2, so we attach A to B

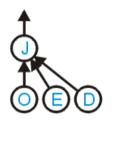


Selecting wall 31, we union the sets identified by R and T

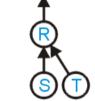
T has height 0 so we attach it to I

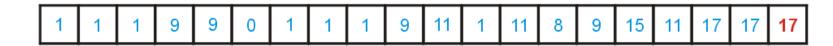






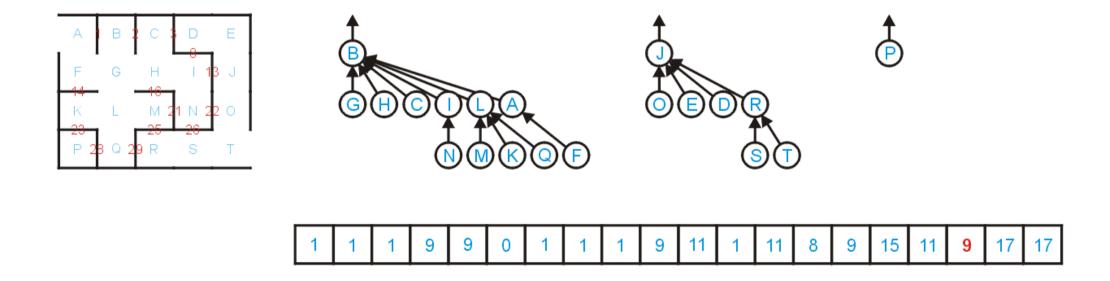






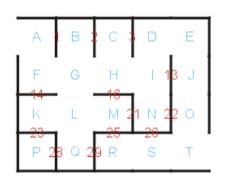
Selecting wall 27 joins the disjoint sets identified by J and R

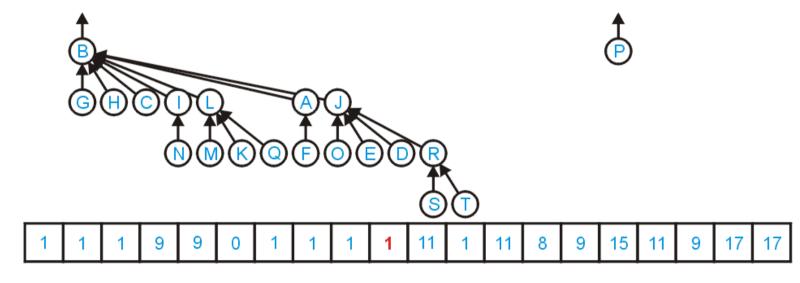
- They both have height 1, but J has more elements, so we add R to J



Selecting wall 8 joins sets identified by B and J

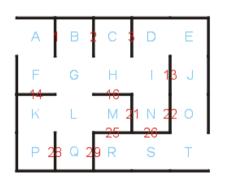
 They both have height 2 so we note that J has fewer nodes than B, so we add J to B

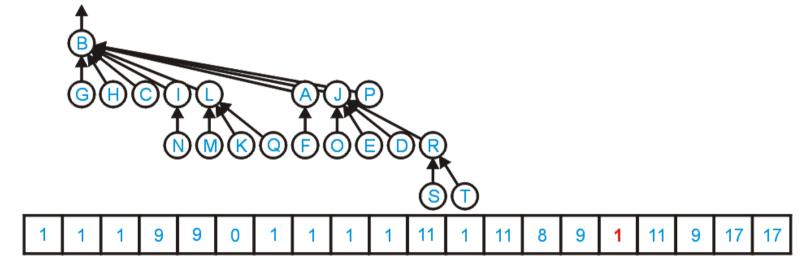




Finally we select wall 23 which joins the disjoint set P and the disjoint set identified by B

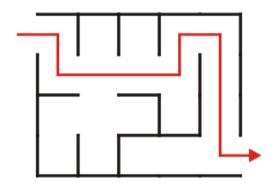
- P has height 0, so we attach it to B



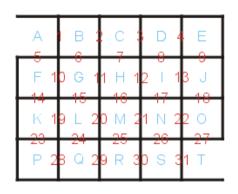


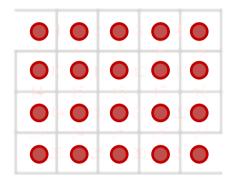
Thus we have a (rather trivial) maze where:

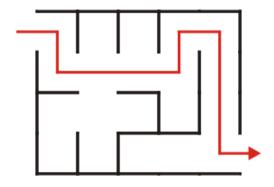
- there is one unique solution, and
- you can reach any square by a unique path from the starting point

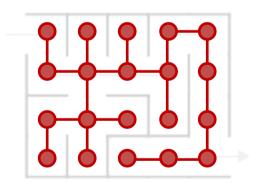


How can we prove these two properties?









The actual maze generation code is quite short:

```
Disjoint sets rooms( m*n );
int number of walls = 2*m*n - m - n;
bool is wall[number of walls];
Permutation untested walls ( number of walls );
for ( int i = 0; i < number of walls; ++i ) {
    is wall[i] = true;
}
while ( rooms.disjoint sets() > 1 ) {
    int wall = untested walls.next();
   int room[2];
   find adjacent rooms( room, wall, n );
    if ( rooms.find( room[0] ) != rooms.find( room[1] ) ) {
        is wall[wall] = false;
        rooms.set union( room[0], room[1] );
```

Summary

Disjoint sets

- Definition
- An efficient data structure based on general trees
- Optimizations which result in $\Theta(1)$ time complexity
- Application