Example Algorithms

CSE 2320 – Algorithms and Data Structures Vassilis Athitsos University of Texas at Arlington

Examples of Algorithms

- Union-Find.
- Binary Search.
- Selection Sort.
- What each of these algorithms does is the next topic we will cover.

Connectivity: An Example

• Suppose that we have a large number of computers, with no connectivity.

– No computer is connected to any other computer.

- We start establishing direct computer-tocomputer links.
- We define connectivity (A, B) as follows:
	- If A and B are directly linked, they are connected.
	- If A and B are connected, and B and C are connected, then A and C are connected.
- Connectivity is *transitive*.

- We want a program that behaves as follows:
	- Each computer is represented as a number.
	- We start our program.
	- Every time we establish a link between two computers, we tell our program about that link.
		- How do we tell the computer? What do we need to provide?

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	- We start our program.
	- Every time we establish a link between two computers, we tell our program about that link.
		- How do we tell the computer? What do we need to provide?
		- Answer: we need to provide two integers, specifying the two computers that are getting linked.

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	- Every time we establish a link between two computers, we tell our program about that link.
	- We want the program to tell us if the new link has changed connectivity or not.
		- What does it mean that "connectivity changed"?

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	- We start our program.
	- Every time we establish a link between two computers, we tell our program about that link.
	- We want the program to tell us if the new link has changed connectivity or not.
		- What does it mean that "connectivity changed"?
		- It means that there exist at least two computers X and Y that were not connected before the new link was in place, but are connected now.

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		- Can you come up with an example where the new link does not change connectivity?

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	- We want the program to tell us if the new link has changed connectivity or not.
		- Can you come up with an example where the new link does not change connectivity?
		- Suppose we have computers 1, 2, 3, 4. Suppose 1 and 2 are connected, and 2 and 3 are connected. Then, directly linking 1 to 3 does not add connectivity. $\frac{9}{2}$

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	- How do we do that?

A Useful Connectivity Property

- Suppose we have N computers.
- At each point (as we establish links), these N computers will be divided into separate networks.
	- All computers within a network are connected.
	- If computers A and B belong to different networks, they are not connected.
- Each of these networks is called a **connected component.**

Initial Connectivity

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Initial Connectivity

- Suppose we have N computers.
- Before we have established any links, how many connected components do we have?
	- N components: each computer is its own connected component.

Labeling Connected Components

- Suppose we have N computers.
- Suppose we have already established some links, and we have K connected components.
- How can we keep track, for each computer, what connected component it belongs to?

Labeling Connected Components

- Suppose we have N computers.
- Suppose we have already established some links, and we have K connected components.
- How can we keep track, for each computer, what connected component it belongs to?
	- Answer: maintain an array **id** of N integers.
	- **id[p]** will be the ID of the connected component of computer p (where p is an integer).
	- For convenience, we can establish the convention that the ID of a connected component X is just some integer **p** such that computer **p** belongs to X.

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	- We start our program.
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	- We want the program to tell us if the new link has changed connectivity or not.
	- How do we do that?

- It is rather straightforward to come up with a brute force method:
- Every time we establish a link between **p** and **q**:
	- The new link means **p** and **q** are connected.
	- If they were already connected, we do not need to do anything.
	- How can we check if they were already connected?

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		- Answer: **id[p] == id[q]**

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- Every time we establish a link between **p** and **q**:
	- The new link means **p** and **q** are connected.
	- If they were not already connected, then the connected components of **p** and **q** need to be merged.
	- We can go through each computer **i** in the network, and if **id[i] == id[p]**, we set **id[i] = id[q]**.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define N 10000
main()
   { int i, p, q, t, id[N];
    for (i = 0; i < N; i++) id[i] = i; while (scanf("%d %d\n", &p, &q) == 2)
       { 
         if (id[p] == id[q]) continue;
        for (t = id[p], i = 0; i < N; i++)if (id[i] == t) id[i] = id[q]; printf(" %d %d\n", p, q);
 }
```
}

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	- N is the number of objects.
	- M is the number of union operations.
- What is the best case, that will lead to faster execution?

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	- N is the number of objects.
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- What is the best case, that will lead to faster execution?
	- Best case: all links are identical, we only need to do one union. Then, we need at least N instructions.

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	- N is the number of objects.
	- M is the number of union operations.
- What is the worst case, that will lead to the slowest execution?
	- Worst case: each link requires a new union operation. Then, we need at least N*L instructions, where L is the number of links.

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	- L is the number of links.
- Source of variance: M. In the best case, M = $?$???. In the worst case, $M = ?$??.

- The first solution to the Union-Find problem takes at least M*N instructions, where:
	- N is the number of objects.
	- M is the number of union operations.
	- L is the number of links.
- Source of variance: M. In the best case, $M = 1$. In the worst case, $M = L$.

The Find and Union Operations

- **find**: given an object **p**, find out what set it belongs to.
- **union**: given two objects **p** and **q**, unite their two sets.
- Time complexity of **find** in our first solution: – ???
- Time complexity of **union** in our first solution: – ???

The Find and Union Operations

- **find**: given an object **p**, find out what set it belongs to.
- **union**: given two objects **p** and **q**, unite their two sets.
- Time complexity of **find** in our first solution:
	- Just checking **id[p]**.
	- One instruction in C, a **constant** number of instructions on the CPU.
- Time complexity of **union** in our first solution:
	- At least N instructions, if **p** and **q** belong to different sets.

Rewriting First Solution With Functions - Part 1

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define N 10 /* Made N smaller, so we can print all ids */
```

```
/* returns the set id of the object. */
int find(int object, int id[])
{
   return id[object];
}
```

```
/* unites the two sets specified by set_id1 and set_id2*/
void set_union(int set_id1, int set_id2, int id[], int size)
{
   int i;
   for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
    if (id[i] == set id1) id[i] = set id2;
```
Rewriting First Solution With Functions - Part 2

```
main()
{ int p, q, i, id[N], p_id, q_id;
  for (i = 0; i < N; i++) id[i] = i; while (scanf("%d %d", &p, &q) == 2)
   { 
   p id = find(p, id); q id = find(q, id);
   if (p id == q id) {
      printf(" %d and %d were on the same set\n", p, q);
      continue;
    }
   set union(p id, q id, id, N);
    printf(" %d %d link led to set union\n", p, q);
   for (i = 0; i < N; i++)printf(" id[\deta = \frac{d}{n}, i, id[i]);
    }
 }
} 31
```
Why Rewrite?

- The rewritten code makes the **find** and **union** operations explicit.
- We can replace **find** and **union** as we wish, and we can keep the main function unchanged.
- Note: **union** is called **set_union** in the code, because **union** is a reserved keywords in C.
- Next: try different versions of **find** and **union**, to make the code more efficient.

Next Version

- **id[p]** will not point to the set id of p.
	- It will point to just another element of the same set.
	- Thus, **id[p]** initiates a sequence of elements:
	- **id[p] = p2, id[p2] = p3, …, id[pn] = pn**
- This sequence of elements ends when we find an element **pn** such that **id[pn] = pn**.
- We will call this **pn** the id of the set.
- This sequence is not allowed to contain cycles.
- We re-implement **find** and **union** to follow these rules.

Second Version

```
int find(int object, int id[])
{ int next_object;
   next_object = id[object];
   while (next_object != id[next_object])
     next_object = id[next_object];
   return next_object;
}
/* unites the two sets specified by set_id1 and set_id2 */
void set_union(int set_id1, int set_id2, int id[], int size)
{
   id[set_id1] = set_id2;
}
```
id Array Defines Trees of Pointers

- By drawing out what points to what in the **id** array, we obtain trees.
	- Each connected component corresponds to a tree.
	- Each object **p** corresponds to a node whose parent is **id[p]**.
	- Exception: if **id[p] == p**, then p is the **root** of a tree.
- In first version of Union-Find, a connected component of two or more objects corresponded to a tree with two levels.
- Now, a connected component of **n** objects (**n** >= 2) can have anywhere from 2 to **n** levels.
- See textbook figures 1.4, 1.5 (pages 13-14).

- How much time does **union** take?
- How much time does **find** take?

- How much time does **union** take?
	- a constant number of operations (which is the best result we could hope for).
- How much time does **find** take?
	- **find(p)** needs to find the root of the tree that **p** belongs to. This needs at least as many instructions as the distance from **p** to the root of the tree.

• Worst case?

- Worst case: we process M links in this order:
	- -10
	- -21
	- -32
	- \cdots
	- $-$ M M-1
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 $-$ id[m] = m-1, id[m-1] = m-2, id[m-2] = m-3, ...

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 -10 , 2 1, 3 2, ..., M M-1.

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- How many instructions will **find** take?
	- at least m instructions for the m-th link.
- Total?

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	- $-$ id[m] = m-1, id[m-1] = m-2, id[m-2] = m-3, ...
- How many instructions will **find** take?
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- Total? $1 + 2 + 3 + ... + M = 0.5 * M * (M+1)$. So, at least 0.5 * M² instructions. **Quadratic in M.**
- Compare to first version: M*N. Which is better?

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– The new version, if M < N.

- Worst case: we process links in this order:
	- -10 , 2 1, 3 2, ..., M M-1.
- Then, how will the ids look after we process each link? $-$ id[m] = m-1, id[m-1] = m-2, id[m-2] = m-3, ...
- What if $M > N$?
- Then the number of instructions is: 1+2+3+…+N+N+…+N.
- Still better than first version (where we need M*N instructions). Compare: **1+2+3+…+N+N+…+N** (second version) **N+N+N+…+N+N+…+N** (first version)

Second Vs. First Version

- The second version is faster, but not by much.
	- About two times faster.
	- A constant factor of two will not be considered a big deal in this class.
	- Preview of chapter 2: constant factors like this will mostly be ignored.

Third Version

- **find**: same as in second version.
- **union**: always change the id of the smaller set to that of the larger one.

```
void set_union(int set_id1, int set_id2, int id[], int sz[])
{ if (sz[set_id1] < sz[set_id2]) 
   { 
    id[set_id1] = set_id2; 
    sz[set_id2] += sz[set_id1]; 
  }
  else 
   {
   id[set_id2] = set_id1; sz[set_id1] += sz[set_id2];
   }
} 47
```
Third Version

```
main()
{ int p, q, i, id[N], sz[n], p_id, q_id;
  for (i = 0; i < N; i++) { id[i] = i; sz[i] = 1; }
   while (scanf("%d %d", &p, &q) == 2)
   { p_id = find(p, id); q_id = find(q, id);
    if (p id == q id) {
       printf(" %d and %d were on the same set\n", p, q);
       continue;
     }
    set union(p id, q id, id, sz);
     printf(" %d %d link led to set union\n", p, q);
    for (i = 0; i < N; i++)\{ \text{printf("} \text{id}[\text{\%d}] = \text{\%d}\{n", i, id[i] \}; \} }
```
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- For a connected component of **n** objects, **find** will need at most log n operations.

– Remember, log is always base 2.

• Thus, now we need how many steps in total, for all the **find** operations in the program?

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- We get flatter trees. When we merge two trees, we avoid creating long chains.
- How does that improve running time?
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– Remember, log is always base 2.

• Thus, now we need at most M $*$ log N steps in total.

• As we go through a tree during a **find** operation, flatten the tree at the same time.

```
int find(int object, int id[])
{
   int next_object;
   next_object = id[object];
   while (next_object != id[next_object])
   {
     id[next_object] = id[id[next_object]];
     next_object = id[next_object];
   }
   return next_object;
}
```
• After repeated **find** operations, trees get flatter and flatter, and closer to the best case (two levels).

```
int find(int object, int id[])
{
   int next_object;
   next_object = id[object];
   while (next_object != id[next_object])
   {
     id[next_object] = id[id[next_object]];
     next_object = id[next_object];
   }
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```
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- When all trees are flat (2 levels), how many operations does a single **find** take?
- It just needs to check **id[p]**. The number of operations does not depend on the size of the connected component, or the total number of objects.
- When the number of operations does not depend on any variables, we say that the number of operations is **constant**.
- A constant number of operations is algorithmically the best case we can ever hope for.

Next Problem: Membership Search

- We have a set **S** of **N** objects.
- Given an object **v**, we want to determine if **v** is an element of **S**.
- For simplicity, now we will only handle the case where objects are integers.
	- It will become apparent later in the course that the solution actually works for much more general types of objects.
- Can anyone think of a simple solution for this problem?

Sequential Search

- We have a set **S** of **N** objects.
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- Sequential search:

– Compare **v** with every element of **S**.

• How long does this take?

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- Sequential search:

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- How long does this take?
	- If **v** is in **S**, we need on average to compare **v** with |**S**|/2 objects.
	- If **v** is not in **S**, we need compare **v** with all |**S**| objects.

Sequential Search - Version 2

- Assume that **S** is sorted in ascending order (this is an assumption that we did not make before).
- Sequential search, version 2:
	- Compare **v** with every element of **S**, till we find the first element **s** such that **s** >= **v.**
	- Then, if **s** != **v** we can safely say that **v** is not in **S**.
- How long does this take?

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- Assume that **S** is sorted in ascending order (this is an assumption that we did not make before).
- Sequential search, version 2:
	- Compare **v** with every element of **S**, till we find the first element **s** such that **s** >= **v.**
	- Then, if **s** != **v** we can safely say that **v** is not in **S**.
- How long does this take?
	- We need on average to compare **v** with |**S**|/2 objects, regardless of whether **v** is in **S** or not.
- A little bit better than when **S** was not sorted, but only by a factor of 2, only when **v** is not in **S**.

Binary Search

- Again, assume that **S** is sorted in ascending order.
- At first, if **v** is in **S**, **v** can appear in any position, from 0 to **N**-1 (where **N** is the size of **S**).
- Let's call **left** the leftmost position where **v** may be, and **right** the rightmost position where **v** may be.
- Initially:
	- $-$ **left** = 0
	- $-$ **right = N 1**
- Now, suppose we compare **v** with **S[N/2].**
	- Note: if **N/2** is not an integer, round it down.
	- What can we say about **left** and **right**?

Binary Search

- Initially:
	- $-$ **left** = 0
	- $-$ right = $N 1$
- Now, suppose we compare **v** with **S**[**N**/2**]**. – What can we say about **left** and **right**?
- If $v = S[N/2]$, we found v , so we are done.
- If $v < S[N/2]$, then right = $N/2 1$.
- If $v > S[N/2]$, then **left = N/2 + 1**.
- Importance: We have reduced our search range in half, with a single comparison.

Binary Search - Code

```
/* Determines if v is an element of S. 
    If yes, it returns the position of v in a.
    If not, it returns -1.
   N is the size of S.
*/
int search(int S[], int N, int v)
{ 
  int left, right;
  left = 0; right = N-1; while (right >= left)
   { int m = (left+right)/2;
     if (v == S[m]) return m;
    if (v < S[m]) right = m-1; else left = m+1;
   }
   return -1;
```
Time Analysis of Binary Search

- How many elements do we need to compare **v** with, if **S** contains **N** objects?
- At most $log(N)$.
- This is what we call **logarithmic time complexity**.
- While **constant time** is the best we can hope, we are usually very happy with logarithmic time.

Next Problem - Sorting

- Suppose that we have an array of items (numbers, strings, etc.), that we want to sort.
- Why would we want to sort?

Next Problem - Sorting

- Suppose that we have an array of items (numbers, strings, etc.), that we want to sort.
- Why would we want to sort?
	- To use in binary search.
	- To compute rankings, statistics (top-10, top-100, median).
- Sorting is one of the most common operations in software.
- In this course we will do several different sorting algorithms, with different properties.
- Today we will look at one of the simplest: Selection Sort.

Selection Sort

- First step: find the smallest element, and exchange it with element at position 0.
- Second step: find the second smallest element, and exchange it with element at position 1.
- n-th step: find the n-th smallest element, and exchange it with element at position n-1.
- If we do this |S| times, then S will be sorted.

Selection Sort - Code

• For simplicity, we only handle the case where the items are integers.

/* sort array S in ascending order. N is the number of elements in S. */ void selection(int S[], int N) { int i, j, temp; for (i = 0; i < N; i++) { int min = i; for $(j = i+1; j < N; j++)$ **if (S[j] < S[min]) min = j; temp = S[min]; S[min] = S[i]; S[i] = temp; }**

Selection Sort - Time Analysis

- First step: find the smallest element, and exchange it with element at position 0.
	- We need N-1 comparisons.
- Second step: find the second smallest element, and exchange it with element at position 1.
	- We need N-2 comparisons.
- n-th step: find the n-th smallest element, and exchange it with element at position n-1.

– We need N-n comparisons.

• Total: $(N-1) + (N-2) + (N-3) + ... + 1 =$ about 0.5 $*$ N^2 comparisons.

Selection Sort - Time Analysis

- Total: $(N-1) + (N-2) + (N-3) + ... + 1 = about 0.5 * N^2$ comparisons.
- **Quadratic time complexity**.
- Commonly used sorting algorithms are a bit more complicated, but have $N * log(N)$ time complexity, which is much better (as N gets large).