Example Algorithms

CSE 2320 – Algorithms and Data Structures
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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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 - 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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 - Every time we establish a link between two computers, we tell our program about that link.
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 - 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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 - 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.

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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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- 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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 - 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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 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.
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- 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.

- The first solution to the Union-Find problem takes at least M*N instructions, where:
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 - M is the number of union operations.
 - 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:
 - 555
- 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[%d] = %d\n", i, id[i]);
```

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).

Time Analysis of Second Version

- 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?

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 - -10
 - -21
 - -32
 - **—** ...
 - M M-1
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- Then, how will the ids look after we process the m-th link?
 - id[m] = m-1, id[m-1] = m-2, id[m-2] = m-3, ...

- Worst case: we process links in this order:
 - 1 0, 2 1, 3 2, ..., M M-1.
- Then, how will the ids look after we process each link?
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- How many instructions will find take?

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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?
 - at least m instructions for the m-th link.
- 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.</p>

- Worst case: we process links in this order:
 - 1 0, 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)

- find: same as in second version.
- union: always change the id of the smaller set to that of the larger one.
 - How do we know which set is smaller?

- find: same as in second version.
- union: always change the id of the smaller set to that of the larger one.
 - How do we know which set is smaller?
 - Use a new array, that keeps track of the size of each set.

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- 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];
```

```
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++)
    { printf(" id[%d] = %d\n", i, id[i]); }
```

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- We get flatter trees. When we merge two trees, we avoid creating long chains.
- How does that improve running time?
- 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.
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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 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])
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    next object = id[next object];
  }
  return next object;
```

 When all trees are flat (2 levels), how many operations does a single find take?

- 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

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- Sequential search:
 - Compare v with every element of S.
- How long does this take?

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- Sequential search:
 - Compare v with every element of S.
- 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?

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 $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{v}$ we can safely say that \mathbf{v} is not in \mathbf{S} .
- How long does this take?
 - We need on average to compare \mathbf{v} with $|\mathbf{S}|/2$ objects, regardless of whether \mathbf{v} is in \mathbf{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 $\mathbf{v} == \mathbf{S}[\mathbf{N}/2]$, we found \mathbf{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 * N² comparisons.

Selection Sort - Time Analysis

- Total: (N-1) + (N-2) + (N-3) + ... + 1 = about 0.5 * N² 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).