Concrete Models and Tight Upper and Lower Bounds

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Why do we care about lower bounds?

Concrete Models and Tight Upper and Lower Bounds

What is "concrete models?"

Models of Computation

Random Access Machines (RAM)



most software today

Metrics: time, space

Circuits/Circuitry



hardware, cryptography size, depth

focus on the cost of a specific type of operation

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 e.g., number of comparisons to sort an array? (recall last lecture)

 Number of probes into a graph needed to determine if the graph is connected?

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Recall last lecture:

• we used **# comparisons** as the cost metric

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- all ***asymptotic*** analysis also holds for the RAM model

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Recall last lecture:

- we used **# comparisons** as the cost metric
- all ***asymptotic*** analysis also holds for the RAM model
- **fun fact:** possible to compute median in a linear-sized circuit, but much more challenging [Lin-Shi, SODA'22]

focus on the cost of a specific type of operation

- don't care whether the algorithm is actually implemented as a RAM program or circuit
- don't care about other costs (e.g., space, cost of moving data round, etc)

Why do we care about costs in concrete models?

- Understand the limit of a class of algorithms
 e.g., comparison-based sorting
- Understand information theoretic limits
 - e.g., number of probes into a graph to decide connectivity
- Focus on heavy-weight operations
 e.g., in crypto, public-key ops > secret-key ops

Formal Model for Capturing Cost

- •An upper bound of f(n) means the algorithm takes at most f(n) operations on **any input** of size n
- •A lower bound of g(n) means for any algorithm there **exists an input** for which the algorithm takes at least g(n) operations on that input

Sorting in the Comparison Model

- In the comparison model, we have n items in some initial order An algorithm may compare two items (asking is $a_i > a_j$?) at a cost of 1
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• Sorting: given an array a = $[a_1, ..., a_n]$, output a permutation π so that $[a_{\pi(1)}, ..., a_{\pi(n)}]$ in which the elements are in increasing order

 $\sim\sim$

Example for sorting
Array = [4, 6, 3, 1, 2]
What is
$$\pi$$
?
 $Wan+ a_{\pi(i)}, a_{\pi(a)} = a_{\pi(n)}$
 $to be sorted$
 $T_1: 4, 5, 3, 1, 2$
What is π ?

• Sorting: given an array a = $[a_1, ..., a_n]$, output a permutation π so that $[a_{\pi(1)}, ..., a_{\pi(n)}]$ in which the elements are in increasing order

 Theorem: Any deterministic comparison-based sorting algorithm must perform at least lg₂(n!) comparisons to sort n elements in the worst case

$$(g_{2}(n!) = lg(n.(n-1)(n-2) - 1) = lgntlg(n-1) - + lgl = (f)(nlgn)$$

- Theorem: Any deterministic comparison-based sorting algorithm must perform at least $lg_2(n!)$ comparisons to sort n elements in the worst case
- I.e., for any sorting algorithm A and $n \ge 2$, there is an input I of size n so that A makes $\ge lg(n!) = \Omega(n \log n)$ comparisons to sort I.

- Without loss of generality, we may assume that the input contains numbers in [1, n], and all numbers are distinct
 - How many possible inputs are there?



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Proving the Sorting Lower Bound

Think of an algorithm as a decision tree

```
procedure InsertionSort(A: list of items)
   n = length(A)
   for i = 2 to n do
       i = i
       while j > 1 and A[j-1] > A[j] do
           swap(A[j], A[j-1])
           j = j - 1
       end while
   end for
end procedure
```

Example:
$$A = [3, 2, 1]$$

 $a_1 = 3, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 1$ initial $a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < a_1$
 $a_1 = 3, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 1$ initial $a_2 < a_3 < a_1 < a_3 < a_2 < a_3 < a_1$
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Example:
$$A = [1, 2, 3]$$

a1 = 1, a2 = 2, a3 = 3





- max depth of decision tree $3 \log_2(n!)$
- Information-theoretic: need lg(n!) bits of information about the input before we can correctly decide on the output
- $\lg(n!) = \lg(n) + \lg(n-1) + \lg(n-2) + ... + \lg(1) < n \lg n$

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•
$$n! \in \left[\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n, n^n\right]$$
, so $n \lg n - n \lg e < \lg(n!) < n \lg n$
 $n \lg n - 1.443n < \lg(n!) < n \lg n$

•
$$\lg(n!) = (n \lg n) (1 - o(1))$$

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Why don't we often use binary insertion sort in practice?

- Suppose for simplicity n is a power of 2
- Binary insertion sort: using binary search to insert each new element,

• Mergesort: merging two sorted lists of n/2 elements requires at most n-1 comparisons $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + (n-1) \qquad O(n \log n)$

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What's the cost?
Sorting Upper Bounds

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Implication our the lower bound:

any comparison-based sorting algorithm must take Ω (n log n) time on a RAM

- no matter whether actual algorithm is implemented as a RAM program or circuit
- a useful guide and sanity check when we design algorithm

Implication our the lower bound:

any comparison-based sorting algorithm must take Ω (n log n) time on a RAM

Non-comparison-based algorithms can take o(n log

n) time

e.g., bucket sort

Deterministic sorting in O(nlog log n) time and linear space

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any **comparison-based** sorting algorithm must take Ω (n log n) time on a RAM

Cool fact about comparison-based sort (0-1 principle)

- any comparison-based sorting algorithm that can sort 0s and 1s can sort arbitrary numbers!
- Proof: see Knuth's textbook

An O(n)-time comparison based sorting algorithm

Go down the list and check if each element is bigger than the previous. If not, eliminate the element.

The result must be sorted

Elimination-based sorting



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- Proof: scan from left to right, keep track of the largest element so far
- For lower bounds, what does our earlier information-theoretic argument give?
 Only \$2(log n), which is too weak
- Also, we have to look at all elements, otherwise we may have not looked at the largest, but that can be done with n/2 comparisons, also not tight

 Claim: n-1 comparisons are needed in the worst-case to find the maximum of n elements

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Adversarial argument

If output produced without having made enough comparisons, can construct **an adversarial input consistent with all the answers so far**, that **fools the algorithm to output incorrectly**

A->B:ACB

- Claim: n-1 comparisons are needed in the worst-case to find the maximum of n elements
- Proof: suppose A is an algorithm which finds the maximum of n distinct elements using fewer than n-1 comparisons
- Construct a graph G in which we join two elements by an edge if they are compared by A
 2 + M

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- G has at least 2 connected components C_1 and C_2
- Suppose A outputs element u as the maximum, and $u \in C_1$
- Add a large positive number to each element in C₂
- Does not change any of the comparisons made by A, so will still output u
- But now u is not the maximum, so A is incorrect

- Recap: upper and lower bounds match at n-1
- Argument different from information-theoretic bound for sorting, use the adversarial argument



 How many comparisons are necessary (lower bound) and sufficient (upper bound) to find the first and second largest of n distinct elements?

First and Second Largest of n Elements

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• Proof: need to at least find the maximum

What about Upper Bounds?

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- Proof: find the largest using n-1 comparisons, then find the largest of the remainder using n-2 comparisons, so 2n-3 total
- Upper bound is 2n-3, and lower bound n-1, both are $\Theta(n)$ but can we get tight bounds?

Second Largest of n Elements Upper Bound

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- How do we find the second maximum?
 - Must have been directly compared to the maximum and lost, so lg(n)-1 additional comparisons suffice. Kislitsyn (1964) shows this is optimal

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- Consider a shelf containing n unordered books to be arranged alphabetically. How many swaps do we need to order them?
- In the exchange model, you have n items and the only operation allowed on the items is to swap a pair of them at a cost of 1 step
 - All other work is free, e.g., the items can be examined and compared

• Claim: n-1 exchanges is sufficient

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- Proof:
- 1st step: swap the smallest item with the item in the first location
- 2nd step: swap the second smallest item with the item in the second location
- k-th step: swap the k-th smallest item with item in the k-th location
 If no swap is necessary, just skip a given step
- No swap ever undoes our previous work
- At the end, the last item must already be in the correct location

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Graph is a set of cycles Indegree and Outdegree of each node is 1



Figure 1: Graph for input [f c d e b a g]

• What is the effect of exchanging any two elements in the same cycle?





• What is the effect of exchanging any two elements in the same cycle?



Swap i1 and i2

• What is the effect of exchanging any two elements in the same cycle?

Break into 2 cycles


• What is the effect of exchanging any two elements in different cycles?



Swap i1 and i2

• What is the effect of exchanging any two elements in different cycles? Merged into one cycle special case : self-1.30 ไว 12

- Exchanging any two elements in the same cycle?
 - Get two disjoint cycles
- Exchanging any two elements in different cycles?
 - Merges two cycles into one cycle
- Corner cases also result in self loop and create two disjoint cycles

- •How many cycles are in the final sorted array?
 - n cycles
- •Suppose we begin with an array [n, 1, 2, ..., n-1] with one big cycle
- Each step increases the # cycles by at most 1, so need n-1 steps

Query Models and Evasiveness

- Let G be the adjacency matrix of an n-node graph
 - G[i,j] = 1 if there is an edge between i and j, else G[i,j] = 0
- In 1 step, we can query any element of G. All other computation is free
- How many queries do we need to tell if G is connected?

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- Claim: n(n-1)/2 queries suffice
- What about lower bounds?

Connectivity is an Evasive Graph Property

• Theorem: n(n-1)/2 queries are necessary to determine connectivity

Proof strategy: design an "evader" adversary

Algorithm A playing a game with an evader E

Each time, A asks about (i, j), E reveals whether there's an edge At some point, A outputs a decision

E wants to force A to query the entire graph to rule out any ambiguity

Example

Intuition: evader's goal

- Maintain ambiguity among all graphs consistent with the revealed part, some are connected and some are not
- Make sure it's not possible for A to decide without querying some unqueried edge



Revealed edges form two connected components A and B. A contains a1 and a2, B contains b1 and b2. (a1, b1), (a2, b2) not queried. Now, query (a1, b1). What should E answer?



Let T1, T2, ... Tk be the current connected components among the edges revealed to exist.

Query (v, u).

 Suppose v ∈ T1 and u ∈ T2. Answer YES only if every other edge between T1 and T2 have been queried. Otherwise answer NO.



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Query (v, u).

- Suppose v ∈ T1 and u ∈ T2. Answer YES only if every other edge between T1 and T2 have been queried. Otherwise answer NO.
- what if (v, u) in same connected component? This will not happen.

- 1. All pairs inside a connected component have been queried
- 2. Between any two connected components T_i and T_j , some pair has not been queried.

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Proof: by induction

- Base case: it's true initially
- Induction hypothesis: suppose true now, true after next query

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Theorem: A must query all pairs when interacting with this evader

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- 2. Between any two connected components T_i and T_j , some pair has not been queried.

Theorem: A must query all pairs when interacting with this evader Proof: at the end of the algorithm, there cannot be more than 1 connected components left, since otherwise, by invariant 2, correctness is not guaranteed. The theorem follows due to invariant 1.

Happy Spring Festival!