

§The Complexity of Algorithms and the Lower Bounds of Problems

- **The goodness of an algorithm**

time complexity (more important)

space complexity

for a parallel algorithm :

time-processor product

for a VLSI circuit :

area-time (AT , AT^2)

- **Measure the goodness of an algorithm**

time complexity of an algorithm

worst-case

average-case

amortized

- **Measure the difficulty of a problem**

NP-complete

undecidable

- **Is the algorithm best?**

optimal (algorithm)

We can use # of comparisons to measure a sorting algorithm.

● Asymptotic notations

Def: $f(n) = O(g(n))$ "at most"

$$\exists c, \text{ and } n_0, \exists |f(n)| \leq c|g(n)| \quad \forall n \geq n_0$$

e.g. $f(n) = 3n^2 + 2$

$$g(n) = n^2$$

$$\Rightarrow n_0=2, c=4$$

$$\therefore f(n) = O(n^2)$$

e.g. $f(n) = n^3 + n = O(n^3)$

Def: $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

"at least"

"lower bound"

$$\exists c, \text{ and } n_0, \exists |f(n)| \geq c|g(n)| \quad \forall n \geq n_0$$

Def: $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$

$$\exists c_1, c_2, \text{ and } n_0, \exists c_1|g(n)| \leq |f(n)| \leq c_2|g(n)| \quad \forall n \geq n_0$$

Def: $f(n) \sim o(g(n))$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \rightarrow 0$$

e.g. $f(n) = 3n^2+n = o(3n^2)$

Problem size

	10	10^2	10^3	10^4
$\log_2 n$	3.3	6.6	10	13.3
n	10	10^2	10^3	10^4
$n \log_2 n$	0.33×10^2	0.7×10^3	10^4	1.3×10^5
n^2	10^2	10^4	10^6	10^8
2^n	1024	1.3×10^{30}	$> 10^{100}$	$> 10^{100}$
$n!$	3×10^6	$> 10^{100}$	$> 10^{100}$	$> 10^{100}$

Table 2.1 Time Complexity Functions

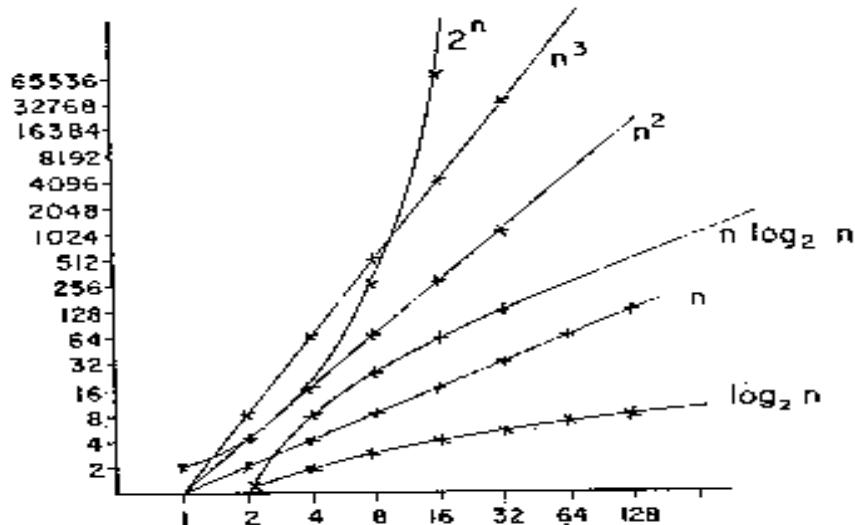


Figure: Rate of growth of common computing time functions
 $O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) <$
 $O(n^3) < O(2^n) < O(n!) < O(n^n)$
 exponential algorithm: $O(2^n)$
 polynomial algorithm

Algorithm A: $O(n^3)$

Algorithm B: $O(n)$

Should Algorithm B run faster than A?

NO!

It is true only when n is large enough!

● Analysis of algorithms

best case: easiest

worst case

average case: hardest

● straight insertion sort

input: 7,5,1,4,3

7,5,1,4,3
5,7,1,4,3
1,5,7,4,3
1,4,5,7,3
1,3,4,5,7

Algorithm 2.1 Straight Insertion Sort

Input: x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

Output: The sorted sequence of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

For $j := 2$ to n do

Begin

$i := j - 1$

$x := x_j$

 While $x < x_i$ and $i > 0$ do

 Begin

$x_{i+1} := x_i$

$i := i - 1$

 End

$x_{i+1} := x$

 End

● Inversion table

(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) : a permutation of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n) : the inversion table of (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)

d_j : the number of elements to the left of j that are greater than j

e.g. (7 5 1 4 3 2 6)

2 4 3 2 1 1 0 inversion table

e.g. (7 6 5 4 3 2 1)

6 5 4 3 2 1 0 inversion table

- M: # of data movements

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (2 + d_i)$$

$d_3=2$

best case: already sorted

$$d_i = 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n$$

$$\Rightarrow M = 2(n - 1) = O(n)$$

worst case: reversely sorted

$$d_1 = n - 1$$

$$d_2 = n - 2$$

:

$$d_i = n - i$$

:

$$d_n = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} d_i = \frac{n}{2}(n - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow M = \frac{n}{2}(n - 1) + 2(n - 1) = O(n^2)$$

average case:

x_j is being inserted into the sorted sequence $x_1 x_2 \dots$

$$x_{j-1}$$

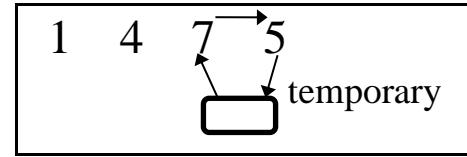
the probability that x_j is the largest: $\frac{1}{j}$

takes 2 data movements

the probability that x_j is the second largest: $\frac{1}{j}$

takes 3 data movements

:
:
:



of movements for x_j to be inserted:

$$\frac{2}{j} + \frac{3}{j} + \dots + \frac{j+1}{j} = \frac{j+3}{2}$$

$$M = \sum_{j=2}^n \frac{j+3}{2} = \frac{1}{4}(n+8)(n-1) = O(n^2)$$

Alternative view (average case)

Only consider # of exchanges.

Method 1

x_j is being inserted into the sorted sequence x_1

$x_2 \dots x_{j-1}$

If x_j is the k th ($1 \leq k \leq j$) largest, it takes $(k-1)$ exchanges.

e.g. 1 5 7↔4

1 5↔4 7

1 4 5 7

of exchanges required for x_j to be inserted:

$$\frac{0}{j} + \frac{1}{j} + \frac{2}{j} + \dots + \frac{j-1}{j} = \frac{j-1}{2}$$

\Rightarrow # of exchanges for sorting:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \sum_{j=2}^n \frac{j-1}{2} \\
 &= \sum_{j=2}^n \frac{j}{2} - \sum_{j=2}^n \frac{1}{2} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{(n-1)(n+2)}{2} - \frac{n-1}{2} \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} n(n-1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Method 2 (using inversion table) [Knuth 1973]

$I_n(k)$: # of permutations which have exactly k inversions

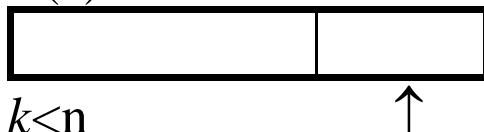
$P_n(k)$: the probability that a given permutation of n numbers has k inversions

$$P_n(k) = I_n(k)/n!$$

average # of inversions(exchanges):

$$\sum_{k=0}^m k P_n(k), \text{ where } m = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

$I_n(k)$:



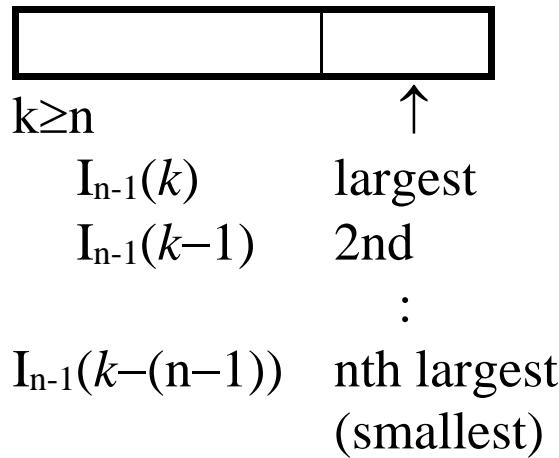
$I_{n-1}(k)$ largest

$I_{n-1}(k-1)$ 2nd

$I_{n-1}(k-2)$ 3rd

\vdots

$I_{n-1}(0)$ $(k+1)$ th
 largest



$$\begin{cases} I_n(k) = I_{n-1}(0) + I_{n-1}(1) + \dots + I_{n-1}(k), & k < n \\ I_n(k) = I_{n-1}(k-n+1) + \dots + I_{n-1}(k), & k \geq n \end{cases}$$

$$I_n(k) = \sum_{i=0}^k I_{n-1}(i), \quad k < n$$

$$I_n(k) = \sum_{i=k-n+1}^k I_{n-1}(i-1), \quad k \geq n$$

Prove

$$\sum_{k=0}^m k I_n(k) = \frac{n!}{4} n(n-1), \text{ where } m = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

Proof:

by induction

- $n=2, \quad m = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = 1$

$$I_2(1) = \frac{2!}{4} \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 1$$

● Assume that it is true for n .

We shall prove

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m'} k I_{n+1}(k) = \frac{(n+1)!}{4} n(n+1), \quad m' = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$= m + n$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{m'} k I_{n+1}(k) &= \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} k I_{n+1}(k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n k \sum_{i=0}^k I_n(i) + \sum_{k=n+1}^{m+n} k \sum_{i=k-n}^k I_n(i) \dots \dots \dots (1) \\ (\because I_{n+1}(k) &= \sum_{i=0}^k I_n(i), k < n+1 \\ I_{n+1}(k) &= \sum_{i=k-n}^k I_n(i), k \geq n+1) \end{aligned}$$

Let (s, t) denote $s \cdot I_n(t)$

$\frac{k}{\vdash}$	
0	(0,0)
1	(1,0) (1,1)
2	(2,0) (2,1) (2,2)
:	
n	(n,0) (n,1) \cdots (n,n)
$n+1$	(n+1,1) (n+1,2) \cdots (n+1,n+1)
$n+2$	(n+2,2) \cdots (n+2,n+1) (n+2,n+2)
:	
m	(m,n-m) \cdots (m,m)
:	
$m+n$	(m+n,m)

($I_n(m+1) = I_n(m+2) = \cdots = I_n(m+n) = 0$)

(1) can be rewritten as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \sum_{i=0}^m I_n(i) \sum_{k=0}^n (i+k) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{i=0}^m (i+k) I_n(i) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{i=0}^m i I_n(i) + \sum_{k=0}^n k \sum_{i=0}^m I_n(i) \\
 & \left(\sum_{i=0}^m i I_n(i) = \frac{n!}{4} n(n-1), \sum_{i=0}^m I_n(i) = n! \right) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{4} n(n-1) + \sum_{k=0}^n k n! \\
 &= \frac{n!}{4} n(n-1)(n+1) + n! \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\
 &= \frac{n!}{4} (n+1)(n(n-1)+2n) \\
 &= \frac{(n+1)!}{4} n(n+1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\sum_{k=0}^m k I_n(k) = \frac{n!}{4} n(n-1), \text{ where } m = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

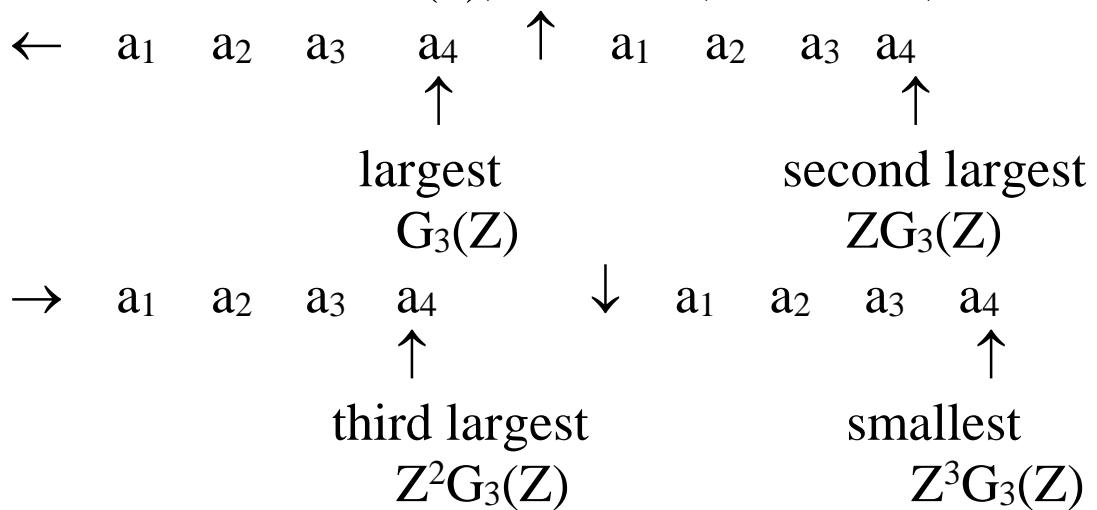
\Rightarrow average # of inversions:

$$\sum_{k=0}^m \frac{k I_n(k)}{n!} = \frac{1}{4} n(n-1)$$

Method 3 (using inversion table and generating function)[Kronsjö 1979]

I _n (k)		0	1	2	3	4	5	6
n\k	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	1	2	2	1	0	0	0	0
4	1	3	5	6	5	3	1	0

Assume we have $I_3(k)$, $0 \leq k \leq 3$, and $a_4 > a_i$, $1 \leq i \leq 3$



	I ₄ (0)	I ₄ (1)	I ₄ (2)	I ₄ (3)	I ₄ (4)	I ₄ (5)	I ₄ (6)
←	I ₃ (0)	I ₃ (1)	I ₃ (2)	I ₃ (3)			
↑		I ₃ (0)	I ₃ (1)	I ₃ (2)	I ₃ (3)		
→			I ₃ (0)	I ₃ (1)	I ₃ (2)	I ₃ (3)	
↓				I ₃ (0)	I ₃ (1)	I ₃ (2)	I ₃ (3)

generating function for $I_n(k)$

$$G_n(Z) = \sum_{k=0}^m I_n(k)Z^k$$

for $n = 4$

$$\begin{aligned} G_4(Z) &= 1 + 3Z + 5Z^2 + 6Z^3 + 5Z^4 + 3Z^5 + Z^6 \\ &= (1 + Z + Z^2 + Z^3)G_3(Z) \end{aligned}$$

in general,

$$G_n(Z) = (1 + Z + Z^2 + \dots + Z^{n-1})G_{n-1}(Z)$$

generating function for $P_n(k)$:

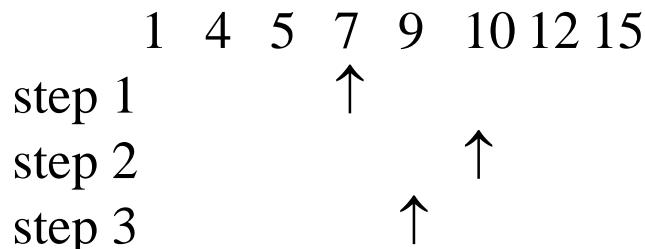
$$\begin{aligned} g_n(Z) &= \sum_{k=0}^m P_n(k)Z^k = \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{I_n(k)}{n!} Z^k \\ &= \frac{1}{n!} G_n(Z) \\ &= \frac{1+Z+Z^2+\dots+Z^{n-1}}{n} \cdot \frac{1+Z+Z^2+Z^{n-2}}{n-1} \cdots \frac{1+Z}{2} \cdot 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^m kP_n(k) &= g_n'(1) \\ &= \frac{1+2+\dots+(n-1)}{n} + \frac{1+2+\dots+(n-2)}{n-1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2} + 0 \\ &= \frac{n-1}{2} + \frac{n-2}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2} + 0 \\ &= \frac{1}{4}n(n-1) \end{aligned}$$

● Binary search

e.g.

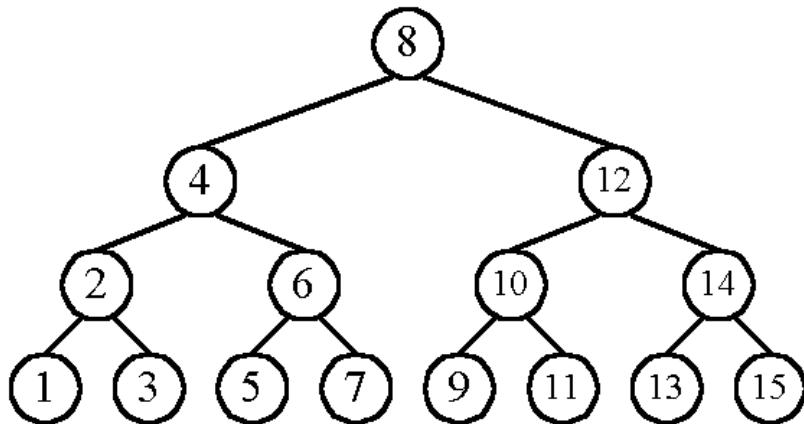
sorted sequence: (search 9)



best case: 1 step = $O(1)$

worst case: $(\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1)$ steps = $O(\log n)$

average case: $O(\log n)$



n cases for successful search

$n+1$ cases for unsuccessful search

the average # of comparisons done in the binary tree:

$$A(n) = \frac{1}{2n+1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^k i 2^{i-1} + k(n+1) \right), \text{ where } k = \lfloor \log n \rfloor + 1$$

successful unsuccessful

Assume $n=2^k$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i 2^{i-1} = 2^k (k - 1) + 1$$

proved by induction
on k

$$\begin{aligned} A(n) &= \frac{1}{2n+1} ((k-1)2^k + 1 + k(2^k + 1)) \\ &\approx k \quad \text{as } n \text{ is very large} \\ &= \log n \\ &= O(\log n) \end{aligned}$$

● Straight selection sort

e.g.

7	5	1	4	3
1	5	7	4	3
1	3	7	4	5
1	3	4	7	5
1	3	4	5	7

Only consider # of changes in the flag which is used for selecting the smallest number in each iteration.

best case: $O(1)$

worst case: $O(n^2)$

average case: $O(n \log n)$

● Quick sort

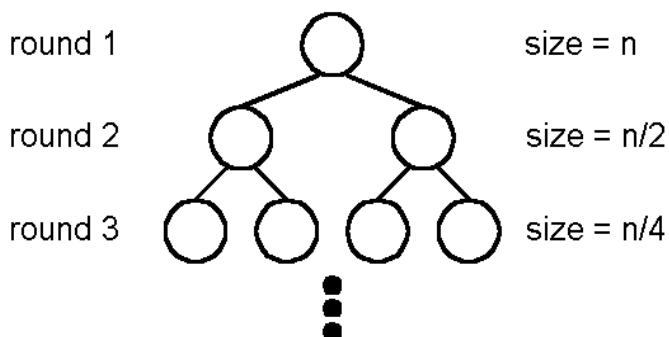
e.g.

11	5	24	2	31	7	8	26	10	15
		↑							↑
11	5	10	2	31	7	8	26	24	15
				↑		↑			
11	5	10	2	8	7	31	26	24	15
△					△				
7	5	10	2	8	11	31	26	24	15
←		<11		→		←	>11	→	

Recursively apply the same procedure.

best case: $O(n \log n)$

A list is split into two sublists with almost equal size.



$\log n$ rounds are needed.

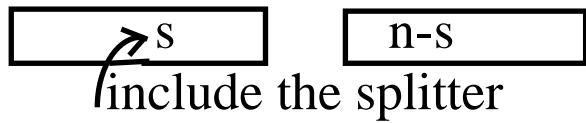
In each round, n comparisons (ignoring the element used to split) are required.

worst case: $O(n^2)$

In each round, the number used to split is either the smallest or the largest.

$$n + (n - 1) + \dots + 1 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = O(n^2)$$

average case: $O(n \log n)$



$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \underset{1 \leq s \leq n}{\text{Avg}}(T(s) + T(n-s)) + cn \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^n (T(s) + T(n-s)) + cn \\ &= \frac{1}{n} (T(1) + T(n-1) + T(2) + T(n-2) + \dots + T(n) + T(0)) + cn, T(0)=0 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} (2T(1) + 2T(2) + \dots + 2T(n-1) + T(n)) + cn \end{aligned}$$

$$(n-1)T(n) = 2T(1) + 2T(2) + \dots + 2T(n-1) + cn^2 \dots \dots (1)$$

$$(n-2)T(n-1) = 2T(1) + 2T(2) + \dots + 2T(n-2) + c(n-1)^2 \dots (2)$$

$$(1) - (2)$$

$$(n-1)T(n) - (n-2)T(n-1) = 2T(n-1) + c(2n-1)$$

$$(n-1)T(n) - nT(n-1) = c(2n-1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{T(n)}{n} &= \frac{T(n-1)}{n-1} + c\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n-1}\right) \\ &= c\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n-1}\right) + c\left(\frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{1}{n-2}\right) + \dots + c\left(\frac{1}{2} + 1\right) + T(1), T(1)=0 \\ &= c\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n-1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2}\right) + c\left(\frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{1}{n-2} + \dots + 1\right) \end{aligned}$$

Harmonic number[Knuth 1986]

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_n &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \\
 &= \ln n + \gamma + \frac{1}{2n} - \frac{1}{12n^2} + \frac{1}{120n^4} - \varepsilon, \text{ where } 0 < \varepsilon < \frac{1}{252n^6} \\
 \gamma &= 0.5772156649\cdots
 \end{aligned}$$

$$H_n = O(\log n)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{T(n)}{n} &= c(H_n - 1) + cH_{n-1} \\
 &= c(2H_n - \frac{1}{n} - 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Rightarrow T(n) &= 2c n H_n - c(n+1) \\
 &= O(n \log n)
 \end{aligned}$$

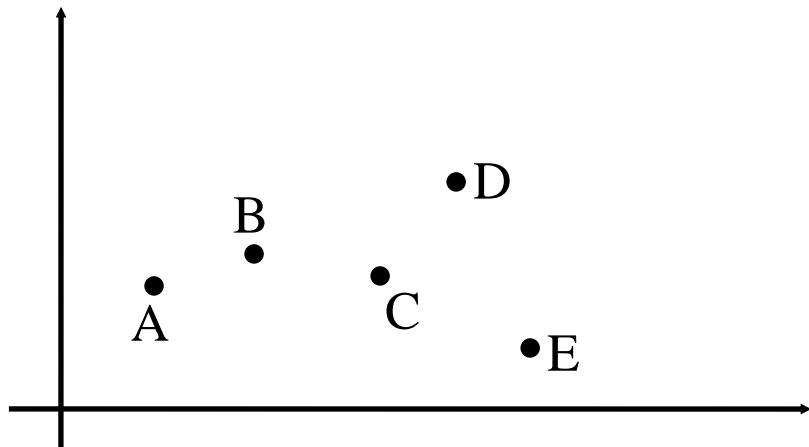
● 2-D rank finding

Def: $A = (a_1, a_2), B = (b_1, b_2)$

A dominates B iff $a_1 > b_1$ and $a_2 > b_2$.

Def: Given a set S of n points, the rank of a point x is the number of points dominated by x .

e.g.

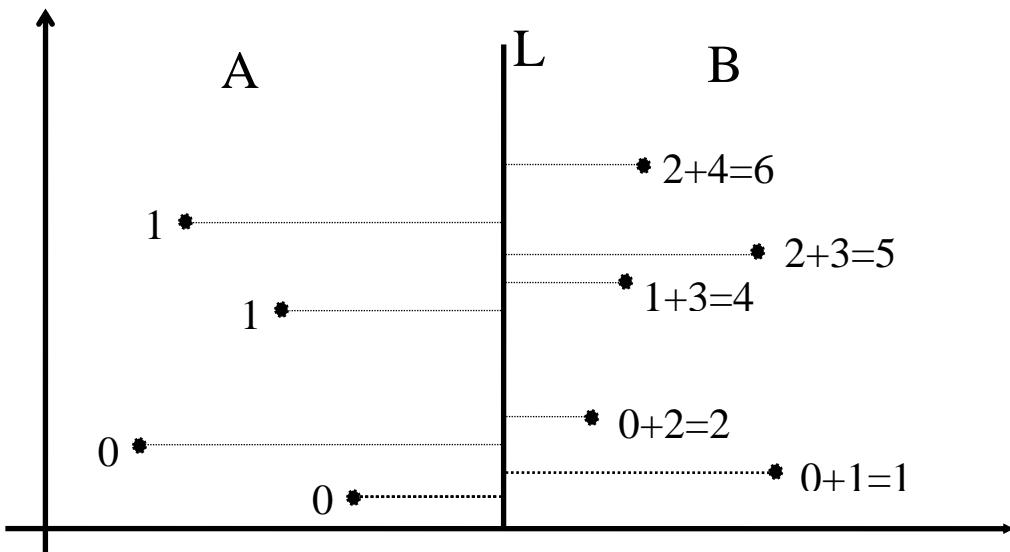


$$\begin{array}{lll}
 \text{rank}(A) = 0 & \text{rank}(B) = 1 & \text{rank}(C) = 1 \\
 \text{rank}(D) = 3 & \text{rank}(E) = 0
 \end{array}$$

straightforward algorithm:

compare all pairs of points: $O(n^2)$

more efficient algorithm



step 1: Split the points along the median line L into A and B.

step 2: Find ranks of points in A and ranks of points in B, recursively.

step 3: Sort points in A and B according to their y-values. Update the ranks of points in B.

time complexity:

step 1: $O(n)$ (finding median)

step 3: $O(n \log n)$ (sorting)

total time complexity

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &\leq 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + c_1 n \log n + c_2 n \\
 &\leq 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + c n \log n \\
 &\leq 4T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + c n \log \frac{n}{2} + c n \log n
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq nT(1) + c(n \log n + n \log \frac{n}{2} + n \log \frac{n}{4} + \dots + n \log 2) \\
&= nT(1) + \frac{cn \log n (\log n + \log 2)}{2} \\
&= O(n \log^2 n)
\end{aligned}$$

● Lower bound

Def: A lower bound of a problem is the least time complexity required for any algorithm which can be used to solve this problem.

☆ worst case lower bound

average case lower bound

The lower bound for a problem is not unique.

e.g. $\Omega(1)$, $\Omega(n)$, $\Omega(n \log n)$ are all lower bounds for sorting.

($\Omega(1)$, $\Omega(n)$ are trivial)

(1) At present, if the highest lower bound of a problem is $\Omega(n \log n)$ and the time complexity of the best algorithm is $O(n^2)$.

(i) We may try to find a higher lower bound.

(ii) We may try to find a better algorithm.

(iii) Both of the lower bound and the algorithm may be improved.

(2) If the present lower bound is $\Omega(n \log n)$ and there is an algorithm with time complexity $O(n \log n)$, then the algorithm is optimal.

● The worst case lower bound of sorting

6 permutations for 3 data elements

a_1	a_2	a_3
1	2	3
1	3	2
2	1	3
2	3	1
3	1	2
3	2	1

straight insertion sort:

input data: (2, 3, 1)

(1) $a_1:a_2$

(2) $a_2:a_3$, $a_2 \leftrightarrow a_3$

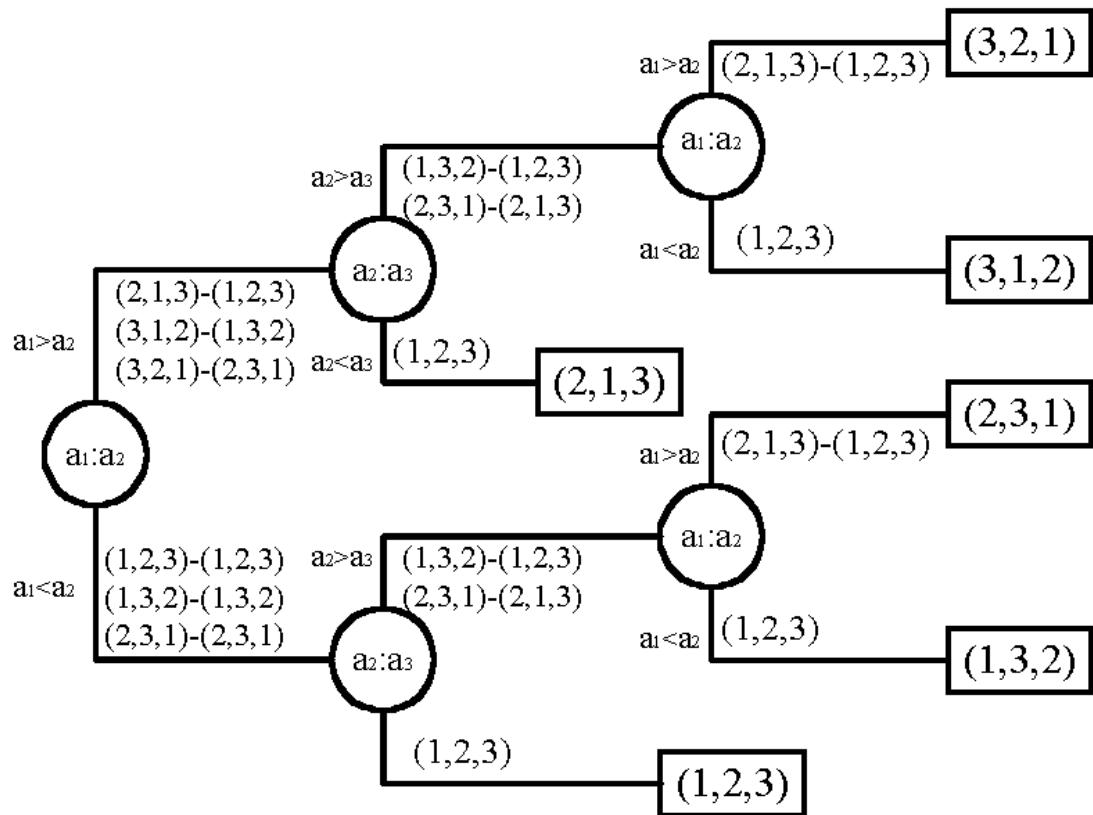
(3) $a_1:a_2$, $a_1 \leftrightarrow a_2$

input data: (2, 1, 3)

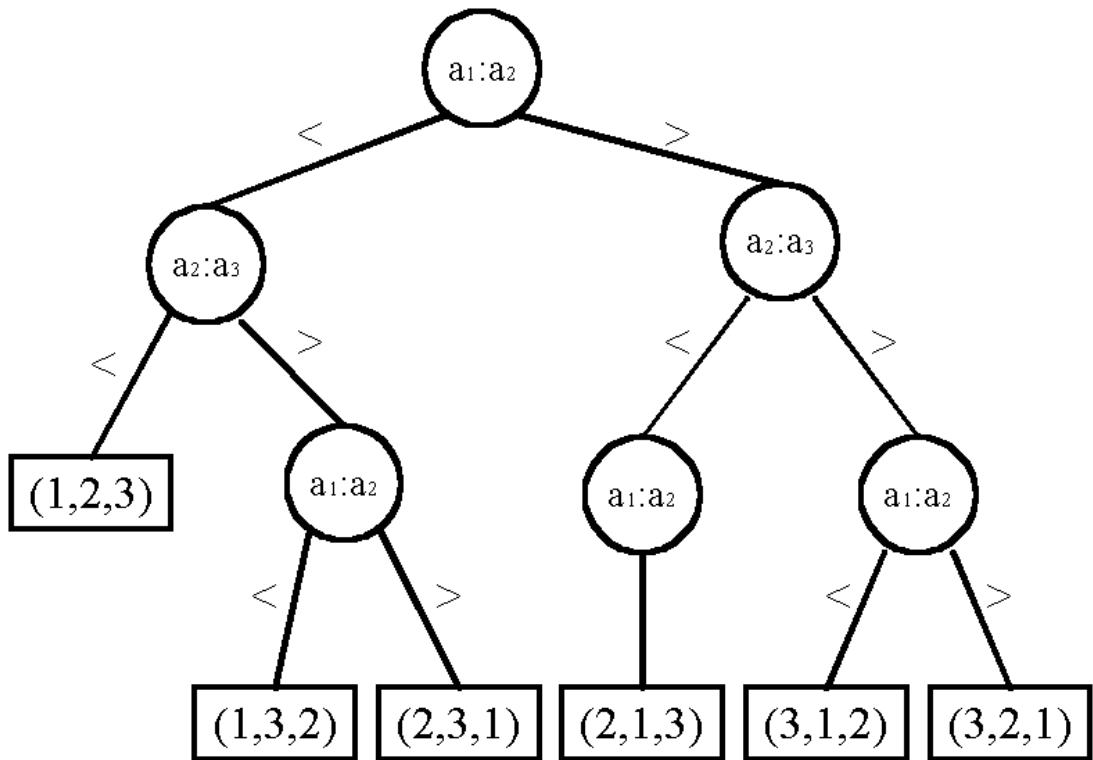
(1) $a_1:a_2$, $a_1 \leftrightarrow a_2$

(2) $a_2:a_3$

decision tree for straight insertion sort:



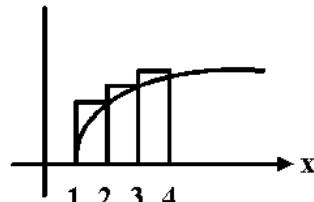
decision tree for bubble sort:



- To find the lower bound, we have to find the smallest depth of a binary tree.
- $n!$ distinct permutations
 $n!$ leaf nodes in the binary decision tree.
- balanced tree has the smallest depth:
 $\lceil \log(n!) \rceil = \Omega(n \log n)$
lower bound for sorting: $\Omega(n \log n)$

Method 1:

$$\begin{aligned}
\log(n!) &= \log(n(n-1)\cdots 1) \\
&= \log 2 + \log 3 + \cdots + \log n \\
&> \int_1^n \log x dx \\
&= \log e \int_1^n \ln x dx \\
&= \log e [x \ln x - x]_1^n \\
&= \log e (n \ln n - n + 1) \\
&= n \log n - n \log e + 1.44 \\
&\geq n \log n - 1.44n \\
&= \Omega(n \log n)
\end{aligned}$$



Method 2:

Stirling approximation:

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

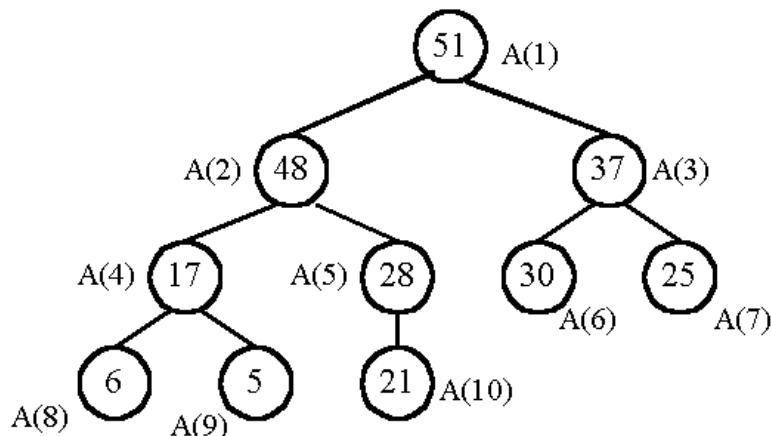
$$\begin{aligned}
\log n! &\approx \log \sqrt{2\pi n} + \frac{1}{2} \log n + n \log \frac{n}{e} \\
&\approx n \log n \\
&\approx \Omega(n \log n)
\end{aligned}$$

n	$n!$	S_n
1	1	0.922
2	2	1.919
3	6	5.825
4	24	23.447
5	120	118.02
6	720	707.39
10	3,628,800	3,598,600
20	2.433×10^{18}	2.423×10^{18}
100	9.333×10^{157}	9.328×10^{157}

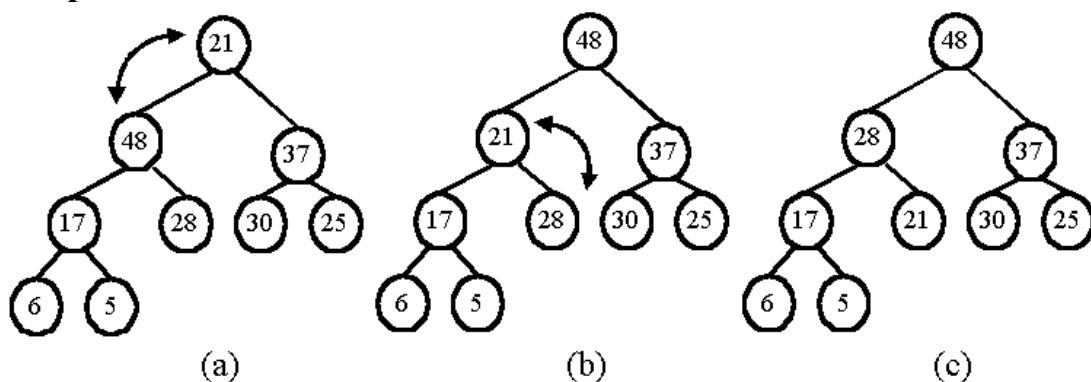
● Heapsort—An optimal sorting algorithm

a heap:

parent \geq son



output the maximum and restore:

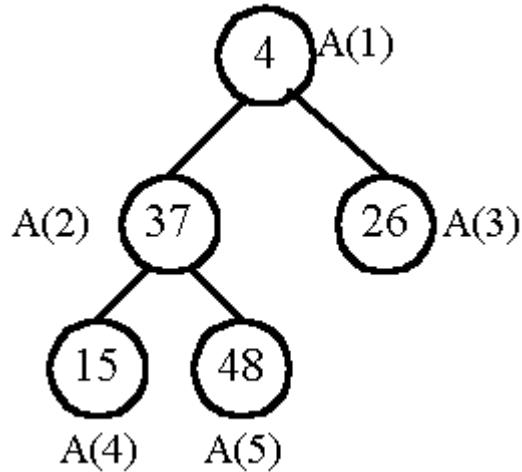


Heapsort:
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \leftarrow \text{construction} \\ \end{array} \right.$

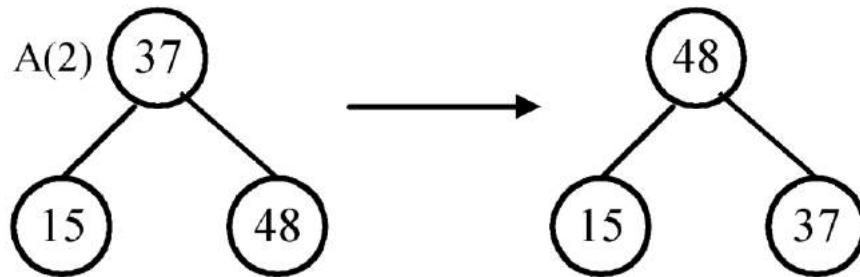
↑output

Step 1: construction:

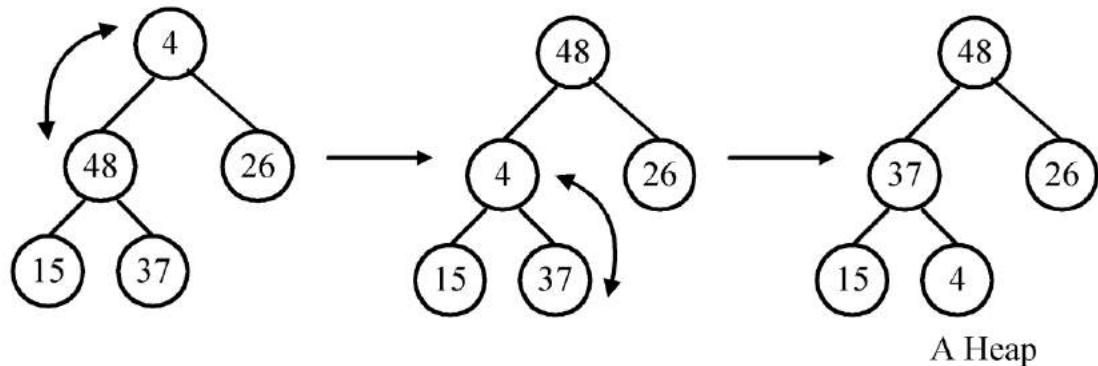
input data: 4, 37, 26, 15, 48



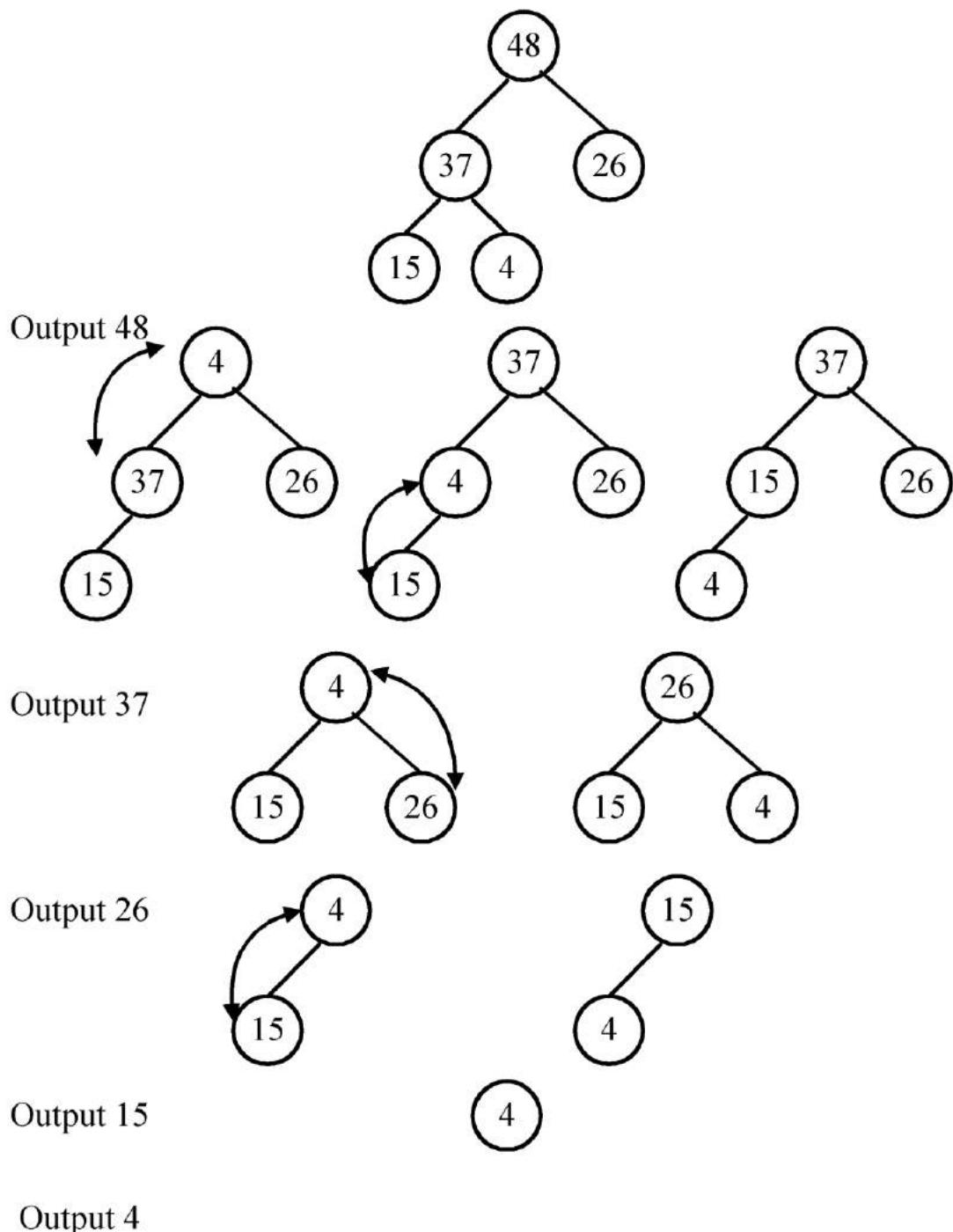
restore the subtree rooted at A(2):



restore the tree rooted at A(1):



Step 2: output:



implementation

using a linear array

not a binary tree.

The sons of $A(h)$ are $A(2h)$ and $A(2h+1)$.

time complexity: $O(n \log n)$

Step 1: construction

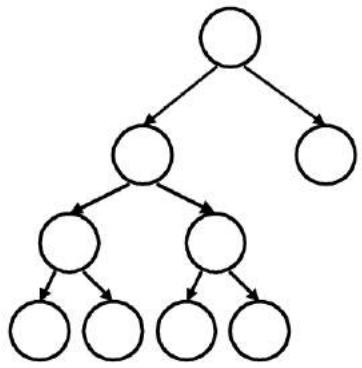
$d = \lfloor \log n \rfloor$: depth
 # of comparisons is at most:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \sum_{L=0}^{d-1} 2(d-L)2^L \\
 &= 2d \sum_{L=0}^{d-1} 2^L - 4 \sum_{L=0}^{d-1} L2^{L-1} \\
 & \quad \left(\sum_{L=0}^k L2^{L-1} = 2^k(k-1)+1 \right) \\
 &= 2d(2^d-1) - 4(2^{d-1}(d-1-1)+1) \\
 & \quad \vdots \\
 &= cn - 2\lfloor \log n \rfloor - 4, \quad 2 \leq c \leq 4
 \end{aligned}$$

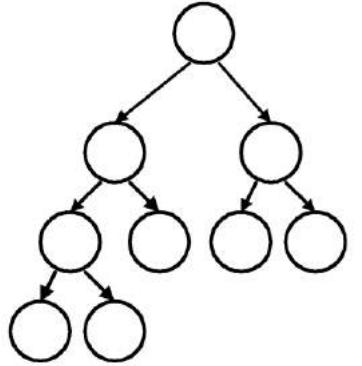
Step 2: output

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lfloor \log i \rfloor \\
 &= \vdots \\
 &= 2n\lfloor \log n \rfloor - 4cn + 4, \quad 2 \leq c \leq 4 \\
 &= O(n \log n)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Average case lower bound of sorting
 - Binary decision tree
 - The average time complexity of a sorting algorithm:
the external path length of the binary tree
 $n!$
 - The external path length is minimized if the tree is balanced
 (all leaf nodes on level d or level $d-1$)



unbalanced
external path length
 $= 4 \cdot 3 + 1 = 13$



balanced
external path length
 $= 2 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 2 = 12$

- compute the min external path length

(1) depth of balanced binary tree with c leaf nodes:
 $d = \lceil \log c \rceil$

Leaf nodes can appear only on level d or $d-1$.

(2) x_1 leaf nodes on level $d-1$

x_2 leaf nodes on level d

$$x_1 + x_2 = c$$

$$x_1 + \frac{x_2}{2} = 2^{d-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = 2^d - c$$

$$x_2 = 2(c - 2^{d-1})$$

(3) external path length:

$$M = x_1(d-1) + x_2 d$$

$$= (2^d - 1)(d-1) + 2(c - 2^{d-1})d$$

$$= c(d-1) + 2(c - 2^{d-1}), \quad d-1 = \lfloor \log c \rfloor$$

$$= c \lfloor \log c \rfloor + 2(c - 2^{\lfloor \log c \rfloor})$$

$$(4)c = n!$$

$$M = n! \lfloor \log n! \rfloor + 2(n! - 2^{\lfloor \log n! \rfloor})$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{M}{n!} &= \lfloor \log n! \rfloor + 2 \frac{n! - 2^{\lfloor \log n! \rfloor}}{n!} \\ &= \lfloor \log n! \rfloor + c, \quad 0 \leq c \leq 1 \\ &= \Omega(n \log n)\end{aligned}$$

Average case lower bound of sorting: $\Omega(n \log n)$

(1) Quicksort is optimal in the average case.

(O($n \log n$) in average)

(2)(i) worst case time complexity of heapsort is

$$O(n \log n)$$

(ii) average case lower bound: $\Omega(n \log n)$

\Rightarrow average case time complexity of heapsort is
 $O(n \log n)$

Heapsort is optimal in the average case.

- Improving a lower bound through oracles
 problem P: merge two sorted sequences A and B
 with lengths m and n.

(1) **Binary decision tree:**

There are $\binom{m+n}{n}$ ways

$\binom{m+n}{n}$ leaf nodes in the binary tree.

The lower bound for merging:

$$\lceil \log \binom{m+n}{n} \rceil \leq m + n - 1$$

(conventional merging)

- When $m = n$

$$\log \binom{m+n}{n} = \log \frac{(2m)!}{(m!)^2} = \log((2m)!) - 2\log m!$$

Using Stirling approximation

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

$$\log \binom{m+n}{n} \approx 2m - \frac{1}{2} \log m + O(1)$$

- Optimal algorithm: $2m - 1$ comparisons

$$\log \binom{m+n}{n} < 2m - 1$$

(2) oracle:

The oracle tries its best to cause the algorithm to work as hard as it might. (to give a very hard data set)

sorted sequences:

$$A: a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_m$$

$$B: b_1 < b_2 < \dots < b_m$$

the very hard case:

$$a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < \dots < a_m < b_m$$

We must compare:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &: b_1 \\ b_1 &: a_2 \\ a_2 &: b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ b_{m-1} &: a_{m-1} \\ a_m &: b_m \end{aligned}$$

Otherwise, we may get a wrong result for some input data.

e.g. If b_1 and a_2 are not compared, we can not distinguish

$$a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < \dots < a_m < b_m \text{ and}$$

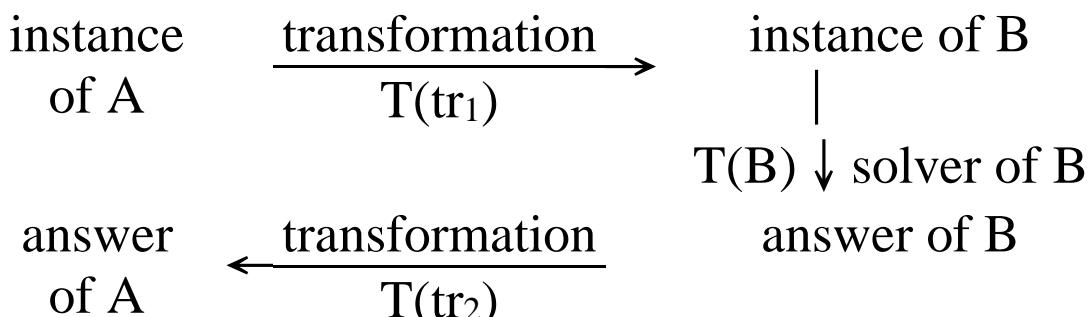
$$a_1 < a_2 < b_1 < b_2 < \dots < a_m < b_m$$

Thus, at least $2m-1$ comparisons are required.

The conventional merging algorithm is optimal for $m = n$.

- Finding lower bound by problem transformation.
Problem A reduces to problem B ($A \propto B$)
iff A can be solved by using any algorithm which solves B.

If $A \propto B$, B is more difficult.

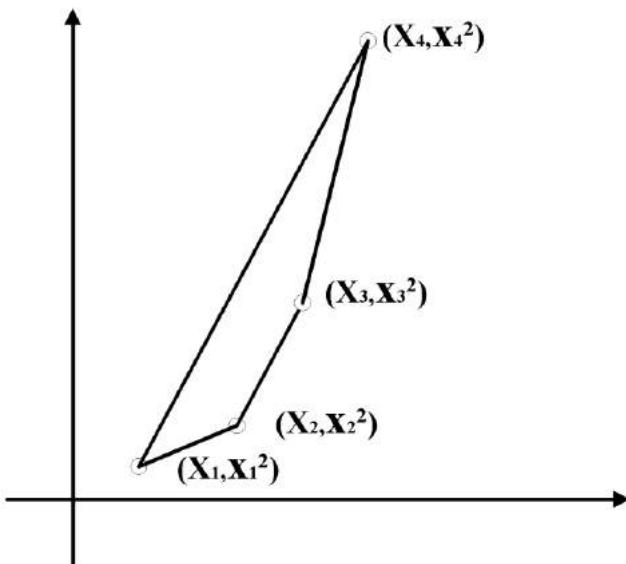


Note: $T(tr_1) + T(tr_2) < T(B)$

$$T(A) \leq T(tr_1) + T(tr_2) + T(B) \sim O(T(B))$$

- The lower bound of the convex hull problem
sorting \propto convex hull

A B
an instance of A: (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)
 \downarrow transformation
 an instance of B: $\{(x_1, x_1^2), (x_2, x_2^2), \dots, (x_n, x_n^2)\}$
 assume: $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$



If the convex hull problem can be solved, we can also solve the sorting problem.

The lower bound of sorting: $\Omega(n \log n)$
 ⇒ The lower bound of the convex hull problem:
 $\Omega(n \log n)$

- The lower bound of the Euclidean minimal spanning tree (MST) problem
sorting \propto Euclidean MST

A B

an instance of A: (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)

↓ transformation

an instance of B: $\{(x_1, 0), (x_2, 0), \dots, (x_n, 0)\}$

$x_1 < x_2 < x_3 < \dots < x_n$

\Leftrightarrow there is an edge between $(x_i, 0)$ and $(x_{i+1}, 0)$ in
the MST, where $1 \leq i \leq n-1$

If the Euclidean MST problem can be solved, we
can also solve the sorting problem.

The lower bound of sorting: $\Omega(n \log n)$

\Rightarrow The lower bound of the Euclidean MST
problem: $\Omega(n \log n)$