

Knuth's 0-1-Principle and Beyond

Janis Voigtländer

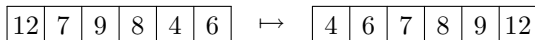
Technische Universität Dresden

April 23rd, 2009

The Sorting Problem

Task: Given a list and an order on the type of elements of this list, produce a sorted list (with same content)!

Example:



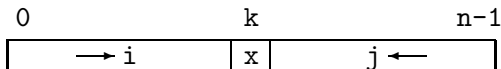
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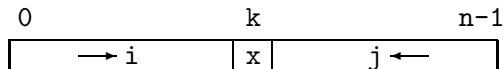
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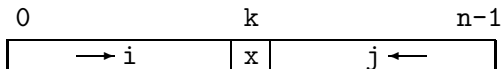
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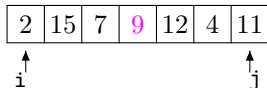
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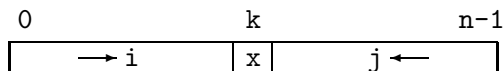
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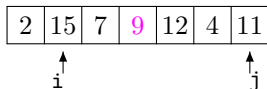
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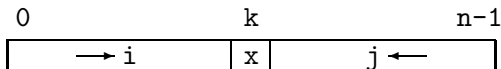
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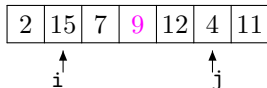
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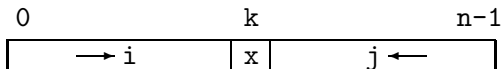
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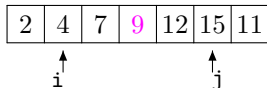
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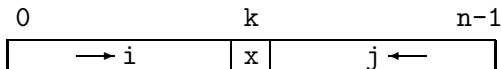
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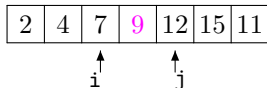
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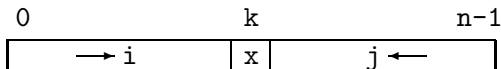
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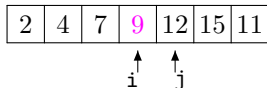
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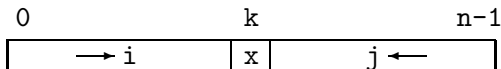
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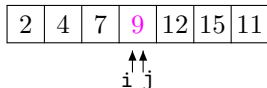
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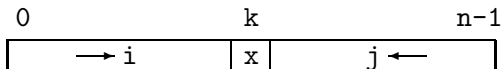
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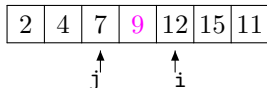
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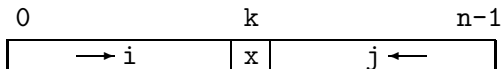
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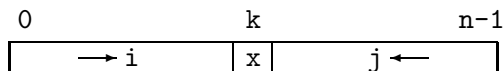
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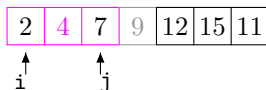
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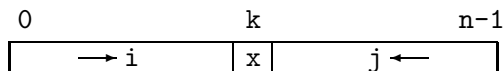
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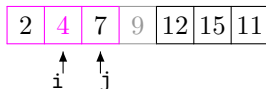
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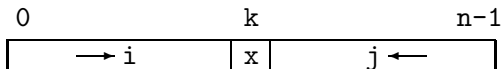
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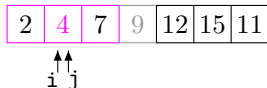
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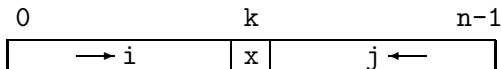
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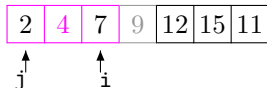
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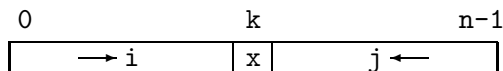
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 - ▶ complexity is $O(n \cdot \log(n)^2)$
 - ▶ particularly suitable for hardware and parallel implementations
 - ▶ correctness is not obvious

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`sort` :: ((α , α) \rightarrow (α , α)) \rightarrow [α] \rightarrow [α]

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`f` (x, y) = if x > y then (y, x) else (x, y)

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If for every `xs :: [Bool]`, `sort g xs` gives the correct result, then for every `xs :: [Int]`, `sort f xs` gives the correct result.

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If $\forall xs :: [\text{Bool}], ys = \text{sort } g \text{ } xs. P(xs, ys) \wedge Q(ys)$,
then $\forall xs :: [\text{Int}], ys = \text{sort } f \text{ } xs. P(xs, ys) \wedge Q(ys)$,
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$Q(ys) := ys$ is sorted

Using the Free Theorems Generator

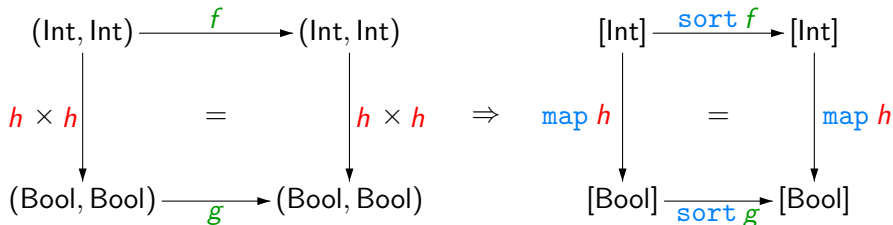
Input: `sort :: ((a,a)->(a,a))->[a]->[a]`

Output: `forall t1,t2 in TYPES, h::t1->t2.
forall f::(t1,t1)->(t1,t1).
forall g::(t2,t2)->(t2,t2).
 (forall (x,y) in lift_{(,)}(h,h).
 (f x,g y) in lift_{(,)}(h,h))
=> (forall xs::[t1].
 map h (sort f xs) = sort g (map h xs))`

```
lift_{(,)}(h,h)
= {(x1,x2),(y1,y2)} | (h x1 = y1)
                        && (h x2 = y2)}
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More Specific (and Intuitive)

For every $\text{sort} :: ((\alpha, \alpha) \rightarrow (\alpha, \alpha)) \rightarrow [\alpha] \rightarrow [\alpha]$,
 $f :: (\text{Int}, \text{Int}) \rightarrow (\text{Int}, \text{Int})$, $g :: (\text{Bool}, \text{Bool}) \rightarrow (\text{Bool}, \text{Bool})$, and
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$$\begin{array}{ccc} (\text{Int}, \text{Int}) & \xrightarrow{f} & (\text{Int}, \text{Int}) \\ \downarrow h \times h & & \downarrow h \times h \\ (\text{Bool}, \text{Bool}) & \xrightarrow{g} & (\text{Bool}, \text{Bool}) \end{array} = \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc} [\text{Int}] & \xrightarrow{\text{sort } f} & [\text{Int}] \\ \downarrow \text{map } h & & \downarrow \text{map } h \\ [\text{Bool}] & \xrightarrow{\text{sort } g} & [\text{Bool}] \end{array}$$

If f and g are as defined before, then the precondition is fulfilled for any h of the form $h \ x = n < x$ for some $n :: \text{Int}$.

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Recall: $P(xs, ys) := xs$ and ys contain the same elements in the same multiplicity

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Knuth's 0-1-Principle

Informally: If a comparison-swap algorithm sorts Booleans correctly, it sorts integers correctly as well.

Formally: Use Haskell. Let

```
sort :: (( $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ )  $\rightarrow$  ( $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ ))  $\rightarrow$  [ $\alpha$ ]  $\rightarrow$  [ $\alpha$ ]
```

```
f :: (Int, Int)  $\rightarrow$  (Int, Int)
```

```
f (x, y) = if x > y then (y, x) else (x, y)
```

```
g :: (Bool, Bool)  $\rightarrow$  (Bool, Bool)
```

```
g (x, y) = (x && y, x || y)
```

If for every $xs :: [\text{Bool}]$, `sort g xs` gives the correct result, then for every $xs :: [\text{Int}]$, `sort f xs` gives the correct result.

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- ▶ Free theorems allow for a particularly elegant proof of this principle. (This was not my idea: [Day et al. 1999]!)
- ▶ Can we do something similar for other algorithm classes?
- ▶ Good candidates: algorithms parametrised over some operation, like $cswap :: (\alpha, \alpha) \rightarrow (\alpha, \alpha)$ in the case of sorting.

Parallel Prefix Computation

Given: inputs x_1, \dots, x_n and an associative operation \oplus

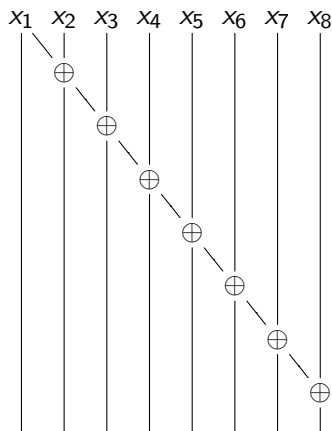
Task: compute the values $x_1, x_1 \oplus x_2, \dots, x_1 \oplus x_2 \oplus \dots \oplus x_n$

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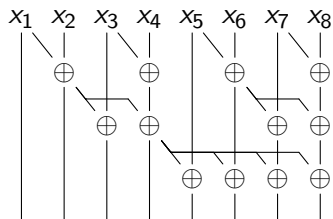
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Solution:



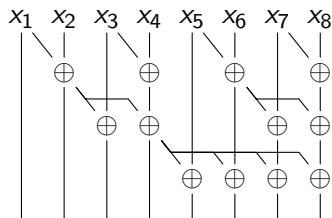
Parallel Prefix Computation

Alternative:

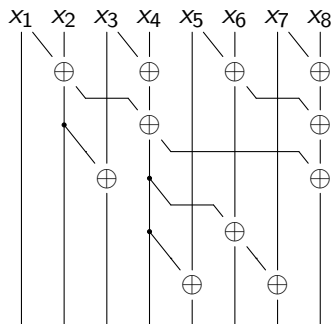


Parallel Prefix Computation

Alternative:



Or:



Or: ...

In Haskell

Functions of type:

`scanl1` :: $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow [\alpha] \rightarrow [\alpha]$

In Haskell

Functions of type:

```
scanl1 :: ( $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ )  $\rightarrow$  [ $\alpha$ ]  $\rightarrow$  [ $\alpha$ ]
```

For example, à la [Sklansky 1960]:

```
sklansky :: ( $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ )  $\rightarrow$  [ $\alpha$ ]  $\rightarrow$  [ $\alpha$ ]
```

```
sklansky ( $\oplus$ ) [x] = [x]
```

```
sklansky ( $\oplus$ ) xs = us ++ vs
```

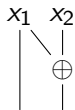
```
  where t      = ((length xs) + 1) 'div' 2
```

```
        (ys, zs) = splitAt t xs
```

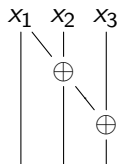
```
        us      = sklansky ( $\oplus$ ) ys
```

```
        vs      = [(last us)  $\oplus$  v | v  $\leftarrow$  sklansky ( $\oplus$ ) zs]
```

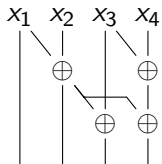
Sklansky's Method Visualised



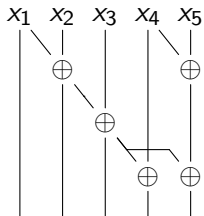
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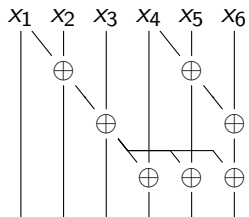
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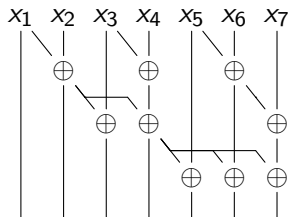
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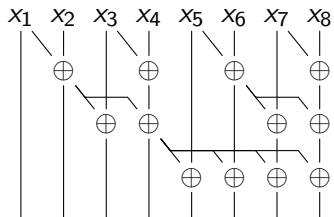
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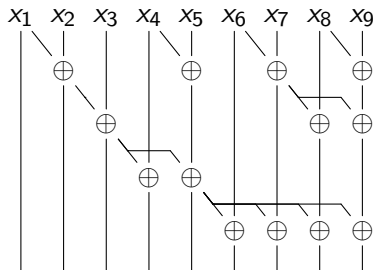
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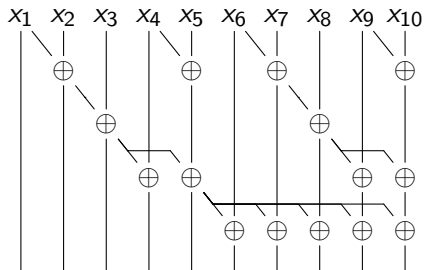
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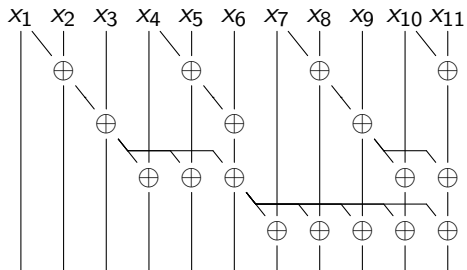
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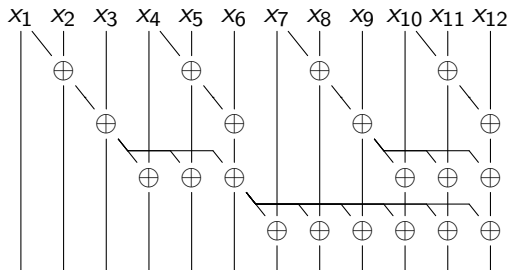
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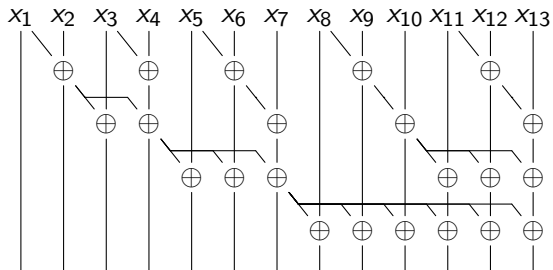
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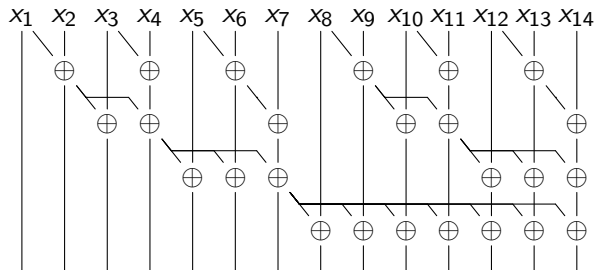
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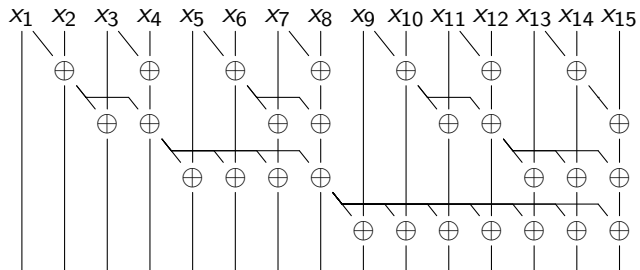
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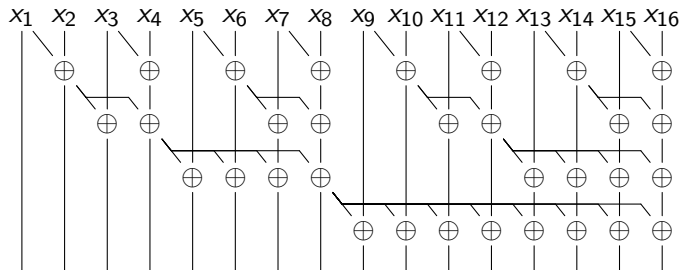
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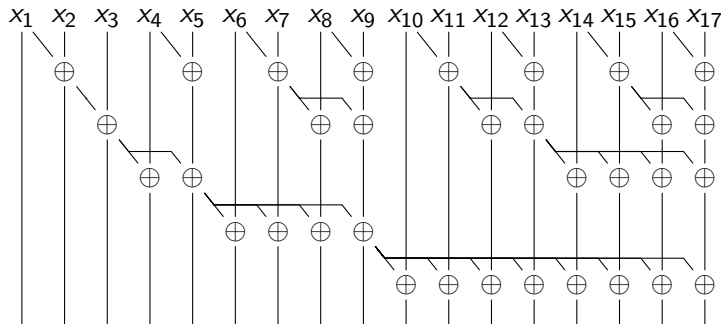
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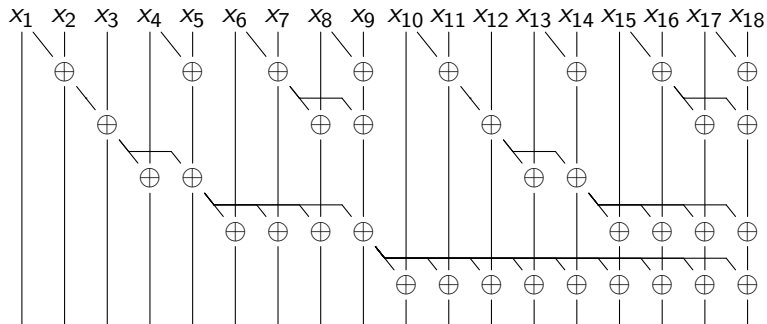
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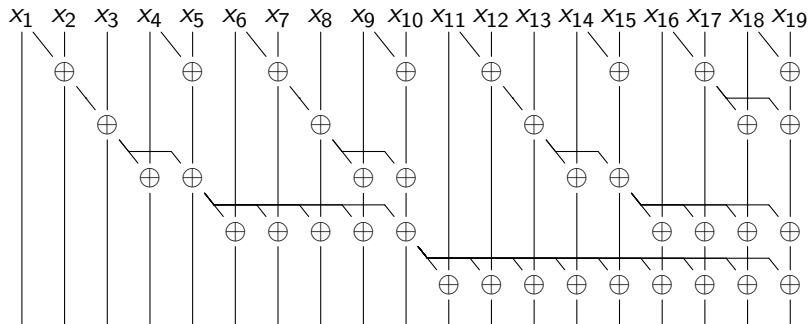
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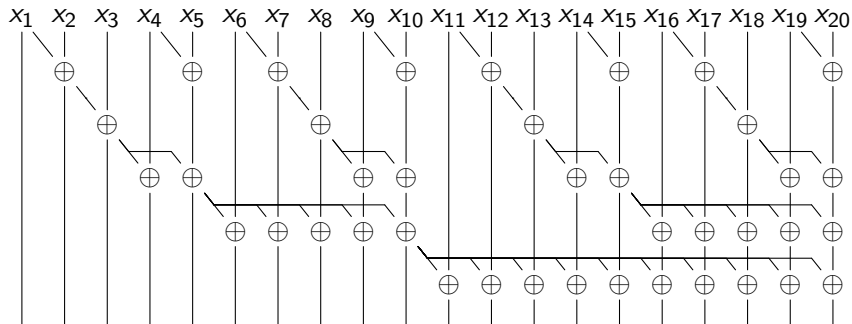
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Investigating Particular Instances Only

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If a parallel prefix algorithm is correct (for associative operations) on the Booleans, it is so on arbitrary value sets.

Unfortunately not !

A Knuth-like 0-1-2-Principle [V. 2008]

Given: `scanl1` :: $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow [\alpha] \rightarrow [\alpha]$

`scanl1` (\oplus) (x : xs) = go x xs

where go x [] = [x]

go x (y : ys) = x : (go (x \oplus y) ys)

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data Three = Zero | One | Two

Theorem: If for every xs :: [Three] and associative
(\oplus) :: Three \rightarrow Three \rightarrow Three,

`candidate` (\oplus) xs = `scanl1` (\oplus) xs ,

then the same holds for every type τ , xs :: [τ], and
associative (\oplus) :: $\tau \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \tau$.

Why 0-1-2? And How?

A question: What can `candidate` :: $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow [\alpha] \rightarrow [\alpha]$ do, given an operation \oplus and input list $[x_1, \dots, x_n]$?

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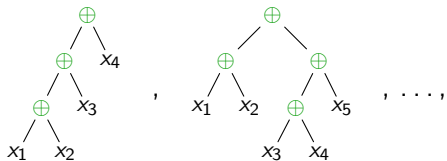
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Among these expressions, there are **good** ones:

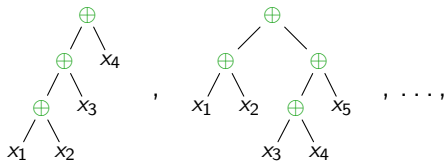


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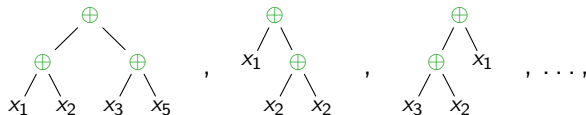
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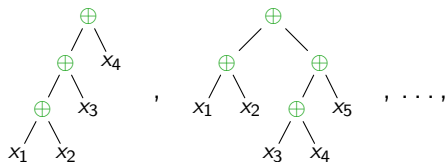


bad ones:

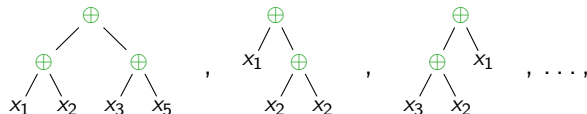


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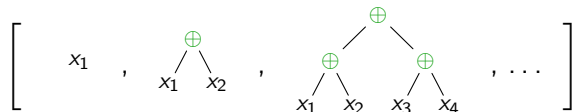
Among these expressions, there are **good** ones:



bad ones:



and ones in the wrong **position**:



That's How!

Let

\oplus_1	Zero	One	Two
Zero	Zero	One	Two
One	One	Two	Two
Two	Two	Two	Two

and

\oplus_2	Zero	One	Two
Zero	Zero	One	Two
One	One	One	Two
Two	Two	One	Two

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and

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Zero	Zero	One	Two
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If **candidate** (\oplus_1) is correct on each list of the form

$[(\text{Zero},)^* \text{One} (, \text{Zero})^* (, \text{Two})^*]$

That's How!

Let

\oplus_1	Zero	One	Two		\oplus_2	Zero	One	Two
Zero	Zero	One	Two	and	Zero	Zero	One	Two
One	One	Two	Two		One	One	One	Two
Two	Two	Two	Two		Two	Two	One	Two

If **candidate** (\oplus_1) is correct on each list of the form

$$[(\text{Zero},)^* \text{One} (, \text{Zero})^* (, \text{Two})^*]$$

and **candidate** (\oplus_2) is correct on each list of the form

$$[(\text{Zero},)^* \text{One}, \text{Two} (, \text{Zero})^*]$$

then **candidate** is correct for associative \oplus at arbitrary type.

A Knuth-like 0-1-2-Principle [V. 2008]

Given: `scanl1` :: $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow [\alpha] \rightarrow [\alpha]$
`scanl1` (\oplus) (x : xs) = go x xs
 where go x [] = [x]
 go x (y : ys) = x : (go (x \oplus y) ys)

`candidate` :: $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow [\alpha] \rightarrow [\alpha]$

data Three = Zero | One | Two

Theorem: If for every xs :: [Three] and associative
(\oplus) :: Three \rightarrow Three \rightarrow Three,

`candidate` (\oplus) xs = `scanl1` (\oplus) xs,

then the same holds for every type τ , xs :: [τ], and
associative (\oplus) :: $\tau \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \tau$.

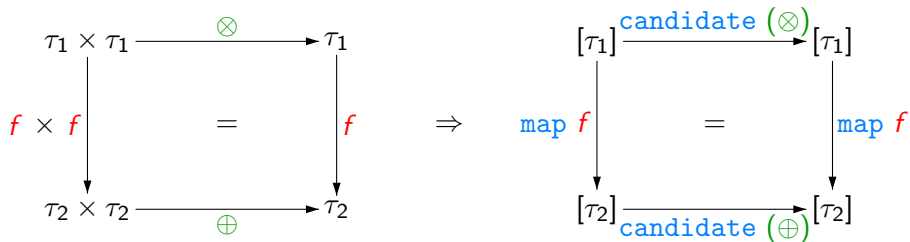
Using the Free Theorems Generator

Input: `candidate :: (a -> a -> a) -> [a] -> [a]`

Output: `forall t1,t2 in TYPES, f :: t1 -> t2.
forall g :: t1 -> t1 -> t1.
forall h :: t2 -> t2 -> t2.
 (forall x :: t1. forall y :: t1.
 f (g x y) = h (f x) (f y))
=> (forall z :: [t1].
 map f (candidate g z)
 = candidate h (map f z))`

Rephrased

For every choice of types τ_1, τ_2 and functions $f :: \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$,
 $(\otimes) :: \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_1$, and $(\oplus) :: \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_2$:



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Decomposing the 0-1-2-Principle

Proposition 1: If `candidate (\oplus_1)` is correct on each list of the form `[(Zero,)* One (, Zero)* (, Two)*]` and `candidate (\oplus_2)` is correct on each list of the form `[(Zero,)* One, Two (, Zero)*]`, then for every $n \geq 0$,

$$\text{candidate } (++) \text{ } [[k \mid k \leftarrow [0..n]] = [[0..k \mid k \leftarrow [0..n]] \text{ } (*).$$

Decomposing the 0-1-2-Principle

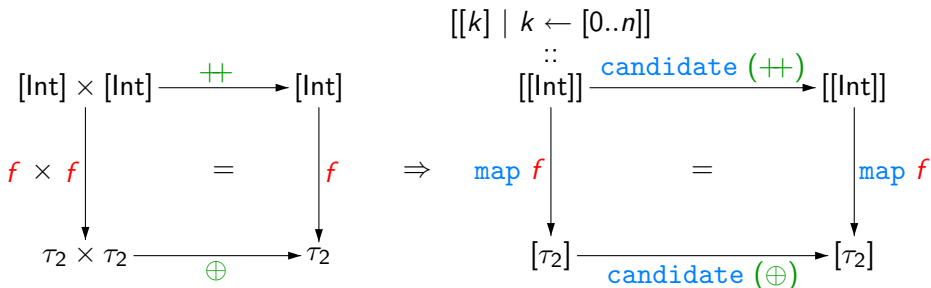
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Proposition 2: If for every $n \geq 0$, (*) holds, then `candidate` is correct for associative \oplus at arbitrary type.

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What Else?

- ▶ For parallel prefix computation, formalisation available in Isabelle/HOL [Böhme 2007].

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What Else?

- ▶ For parallel prefix computation, formalisation available in Isabelle/HOL [Böhme 2007].
- ▶ There is still an interesting story to tell behind how “0-1-2”, \oplus_1 , \oplus_2 , ... were found.
- ▶ For which other algorithm classes can one play the same trick?

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