

# Advanced Algorithms

## I. Course Intro and Sorting Networks

Thomas Sauerwald

Easter 2017



UNIVERSITY OF  
CAMBRIDGE

## Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Counting Networks



## (Tentative) List of Topics

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IA Algorithms

IB Complexity Theory

II Advanced Algorithms



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- I. Sorting Networks (Sorting, Counting)
- II. Matrix Multiplication (and Parallel Algorithms)
- III. Linear Programming
- IV. Approximation Algorithms: Covering Problems
- V. Approximation Algorithms via Exact Algorithms
- VI. Approximation Algorithms: Travelling Salesman Problem
- VII. Approximation Algorithms: Randomisation and Rounding





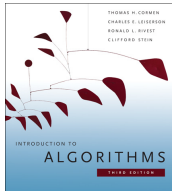
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- closely follow CLRS3 and use the same numbering
- however, slides will be self-contained (mostly)



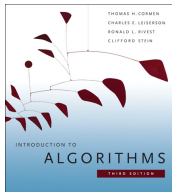
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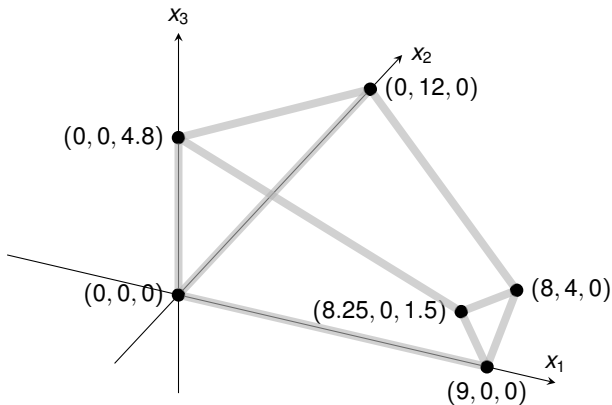
# Linear Programming and Simplex

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$$\begin{array}{llllllll} \text{maximize} & 3x_1 & + & x_2 & + & 2x_3 & & \\ \text{subject to} & & & & & & & \\ & x_1 & + & x_2 & + & 3x_3 & \leq & 30 \\ & 2x_1 & + & 2x_2 & + & 5x_3 & \leq & 24 \\ & 4x_1 & + & x_2 & + & 2x_3 & \leq & 36 \\ & & & x_1, x_2, x_3 & & & \geq & 0 \end{array}$$



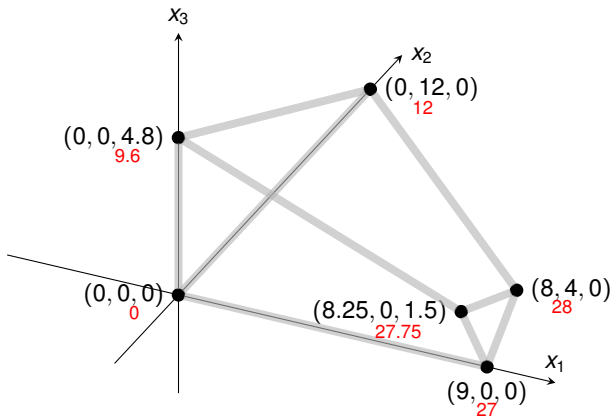
# Linear Programming and Simplex



maximize	$3x_1$	+	$x_2$	+	$2x_3$		
subject to	$x_1$	+	$x_2$	+	$3x_3$	$\leq$	30
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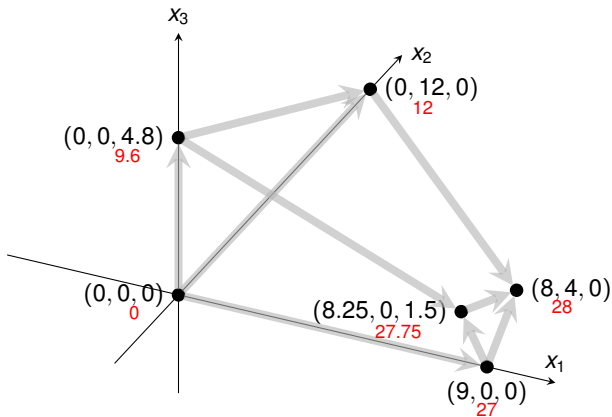
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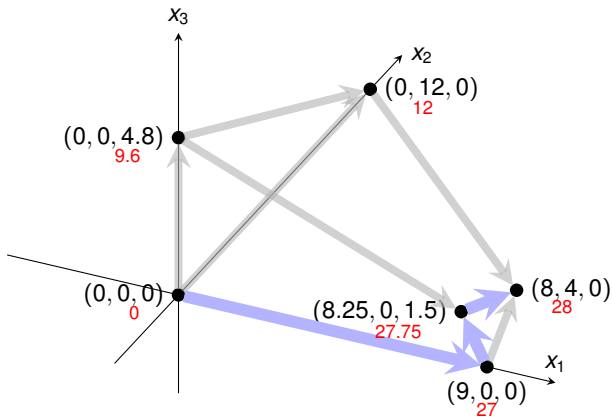
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## SOLUTION OF A LARGE-SCALE TRAVELING-SALESMAN PROBLEM\*

G. DANTZIG, R. FULKERSON, AND S. JOHNSON

*The Rand Corporation, Santa Monica, California*

(Received August 9, 1954)

It is shown that a certain tour of 49 cities, one in each of the 48 states and Washington, D. C., has the shortest road distance.

THE TRAVELING-SALESMAN PROBLEM might be described as follows: Find the shortest route (tour) for a salesman starting from a given city, visiting each of a specified group of cities, and then returning to the original point of departure. More generally, given an  $n$  by  $n$  symmetric matrix  $D=(d_{IJ})$ , where  $d_{IJ}$  represents the 'distance' from  $I$  to  $J$ , arrange the points in a cyclic order in such a way that the sum of the  $d_{IJ}$  between consecutive points is minimal. Since there are only a finite number of possibilities (at most  $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)!$ ) to consider, the problem is to devise a method of picking out the optimal arrangement which is reasonably efficient for fairly large values of  $n$ . Although algorithms have been devised for problems of similar nature, e.g., the optimal assignment problem,<sup>3,7,8</sup> little is known about the traveling-salesman problem. We do not claim that this note alters the situation very much; what we shall do is outline a way of approaching the problem that sometimes, at least, enables one to find an optimal path and prove it so. In particular, it will be shown that a certain arrangement of 49 cities, one in each of the 48 states and Washington, D. C., is best, the  $d_{IJ}$  used representing road distances as taken from an atlas.



# Travelling Salesman Problem: The 42 (49) Cities

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- |                          |                          |                        |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Manchester, N. H.     | 18. Carson City, Nev.    | 34. Birmingham, Ala.   |
| 2. Montpelier, Vt.       | 19. Los Angeles, Calif.  | 35. Atlanta, Ga.       |
| 3. Detroit, Mich.        | 20. Phoenix, Ariz.       | 36. Jacksonville, Fla. |
| 4. Cleveland, Ohio       | 21. Santa Fe, N. M.      | 37. Columbia, S. C.    |
| 5. Charleston, W. Va.    | 22. Denver, Colo.        | 38. Raleigh, N. C.     |
| 6. Louisville, Ky.       | 23. Cheyenne, Wyo.       | 39. Richmond, Va.      |
| 7. Indianapolis, Ind.    | 24. Omaha, Neb.          | 40. Washington, D. C.  |
| 8. Chicago, Ill.         | 25. Des Moines, Iowa     | 41. Boston, Mass.      |
| 9. Milwaukee, Wis.       | 26. Kansas City, Mo.     | 42. Portland, Me.      |
| 10. Minneapolis, Minn.   | 27. Topeka, Kans.        | A. Baltimore, Md.      |
| 11. Pierre, S. D.        | 28. Oklahoma City, Okla. | B. Wilmington, Del.    |
| 12. Bismarck, N. D.      | 29. Dallas, Tex.         | C. Philadelphia, Penn. |
| 13. Helena, Mont.        | 30. Little Rock, Ark.    | D. Newark, N. J.       |
| 14. Seattle, Wash.       | 31. Memphis, Tenn.       | E. New York, N. Y.     |
| 15. Portland, Ore.       | 32. Jackson, Miss.       | F. Hartford, Conn.     |
| 16. Boise, Idaho         | 33. New Orleans, La.     | G. Providence, R. I.   |
| 17. Salt Lake City, Utah |                          |                        |





# The (Unique) Optimal Tour (699 Units $\approx$ 12,345 miles)

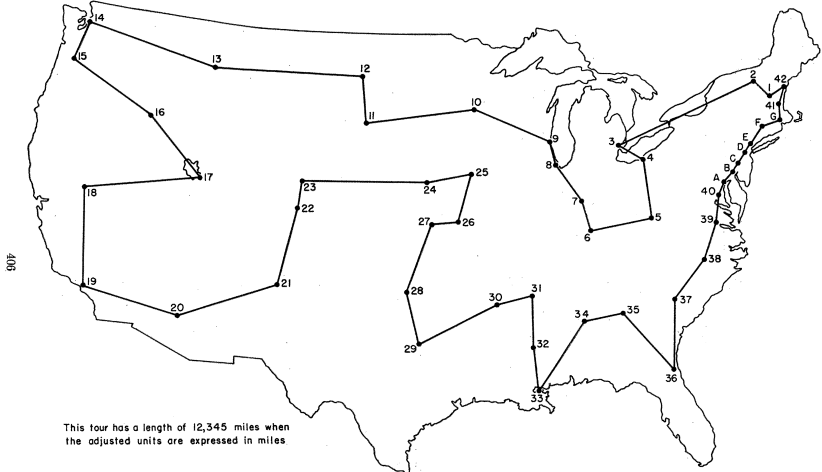


FIG. 16. The optimal tour of 49 cities.



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## Overview: Sorting Networks

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### (Serial) Sorting Algorithms

- we already know several (comparison-based) sorting algorithms: Insertion sort, Bubble sort, Merge sort, Quick sort, Heap sort
- execute one operation at a time
- can handle arbitrarily large inputs
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Simple concept, but surprisingly deep and complex theory!



## Comparison Networks

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### Comparison Network

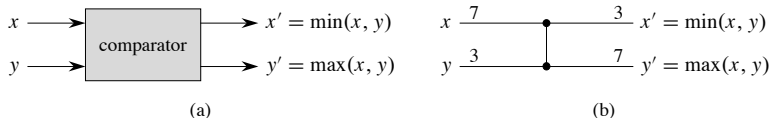
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**Figure 27.1** (a) A comparator with inputs  $x$  and  $y$  and outputs  $x'$  and  $y'$ . (b) The same comparator, drawn as a single vertical line. Inputs  $x = 7$ ,  $y = 3$  and outputs  $x' = 3$ ,  $y' = 7$  are shown.

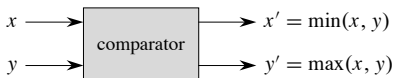


## Comparison Networks

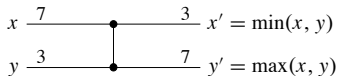
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operates in  $O(1)$



(a)



(b)

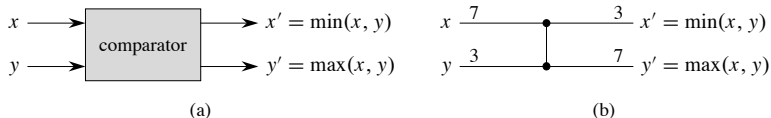
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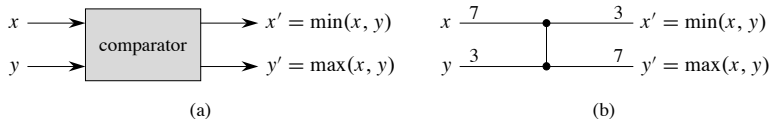
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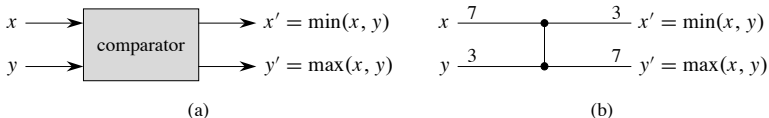


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Convention: use the same name for both a wire and its value.



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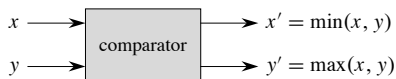


## Comparison Networks

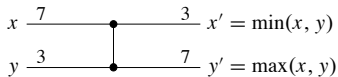
Comparison Network

A **sorting network** is a comparison network which **works correctly** (that is, it sorts every input)

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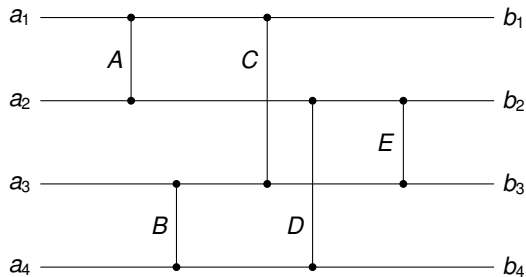
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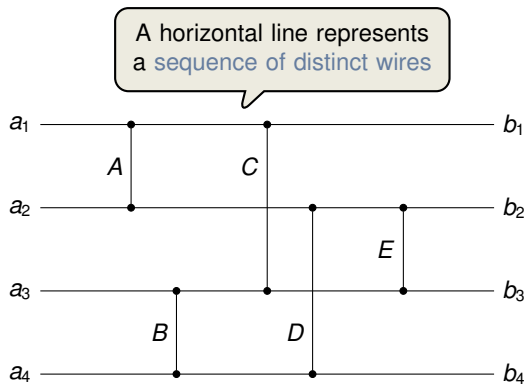




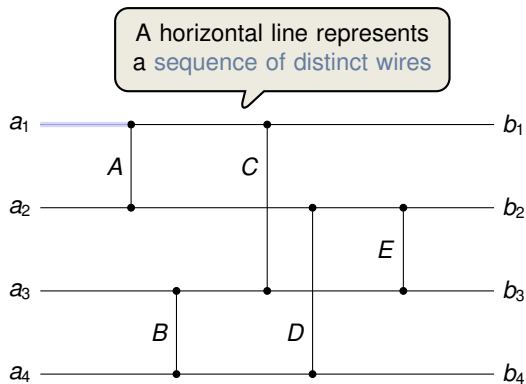
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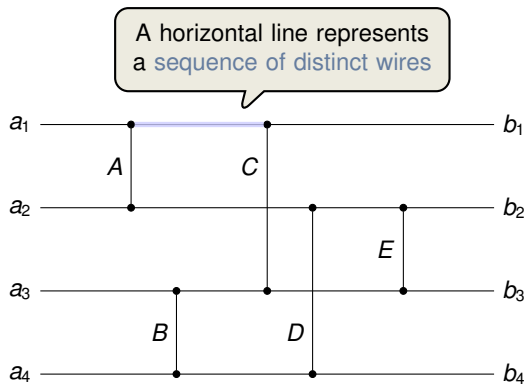
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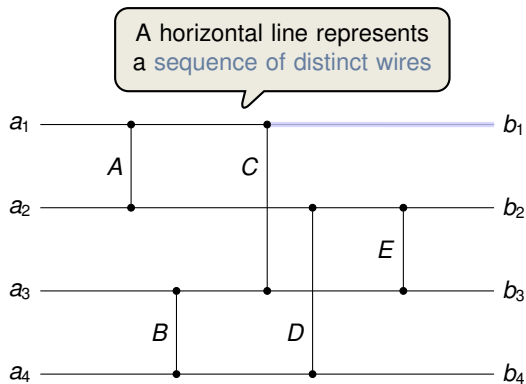
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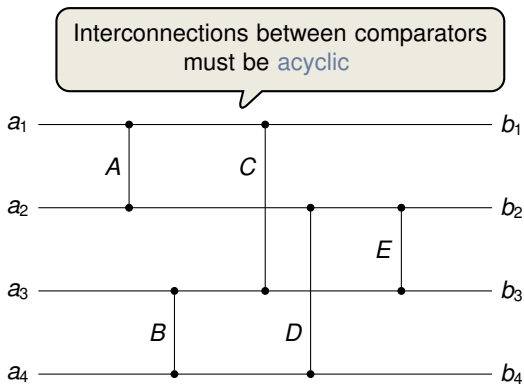
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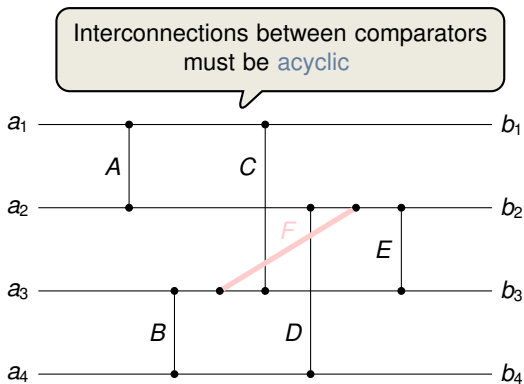
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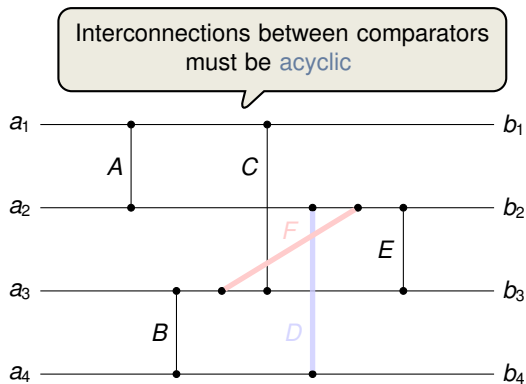
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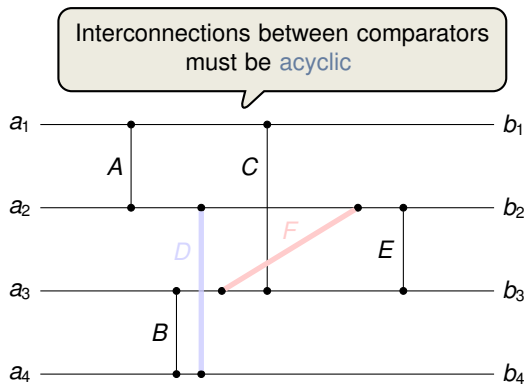


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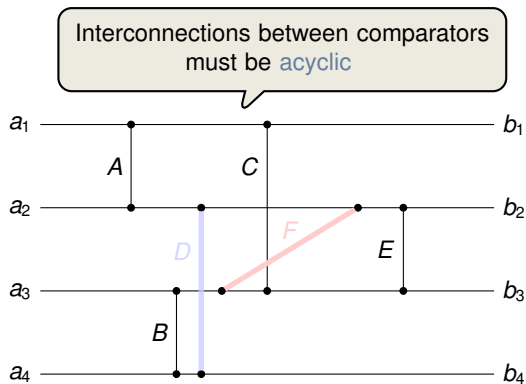




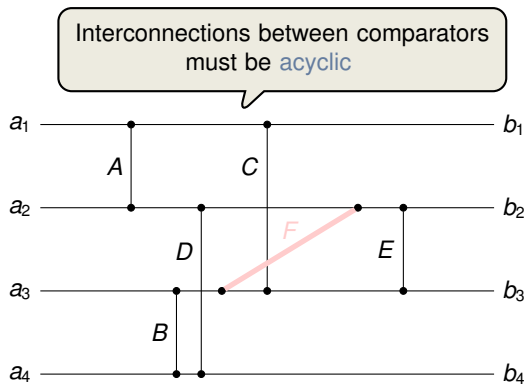
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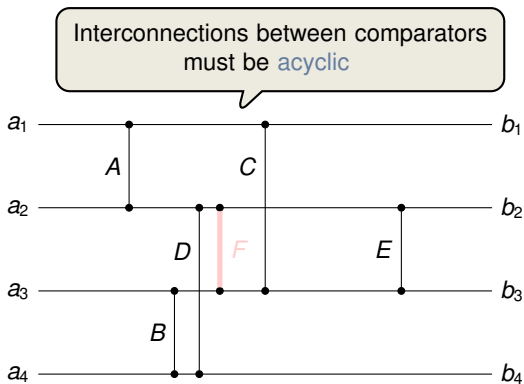
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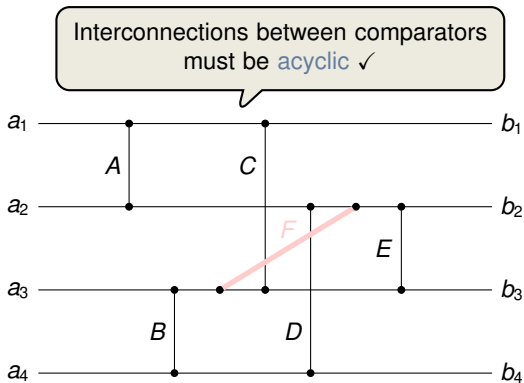
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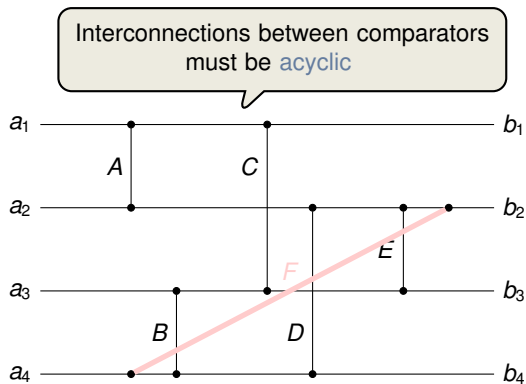
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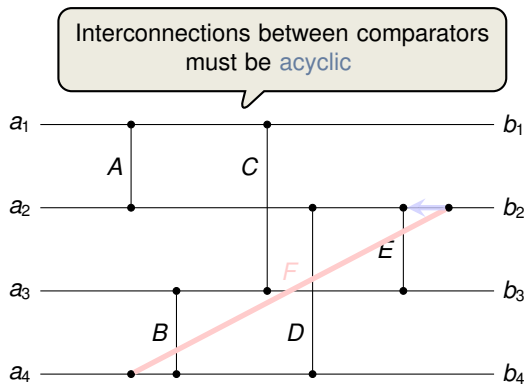
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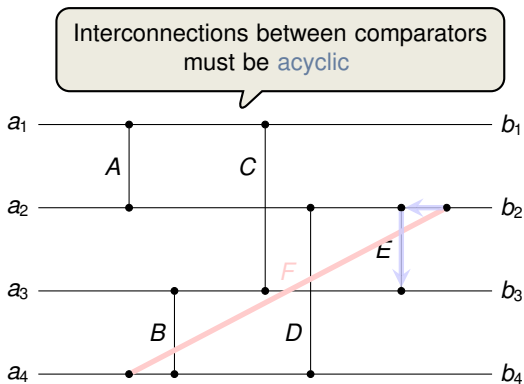
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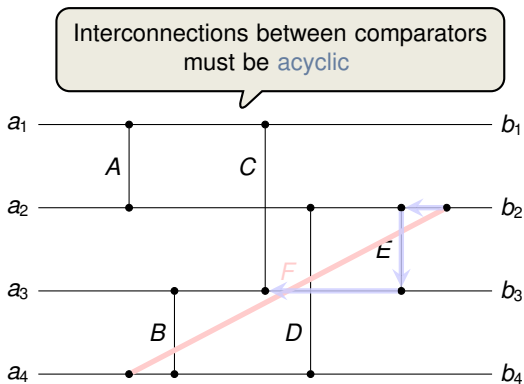


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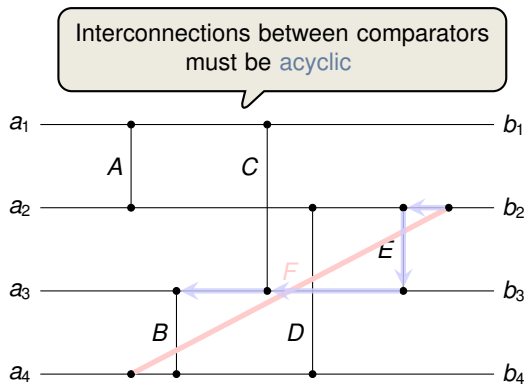




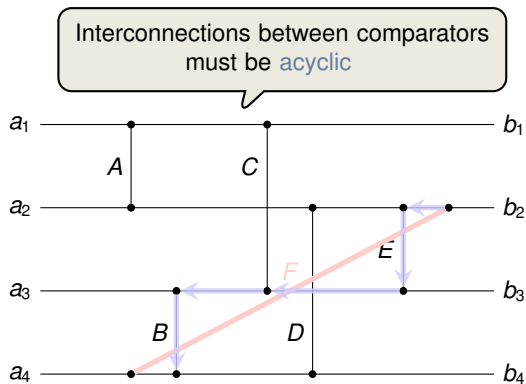
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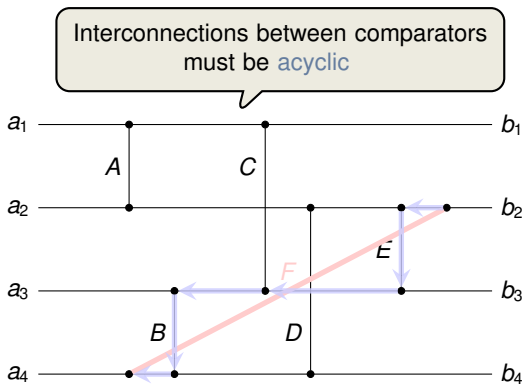
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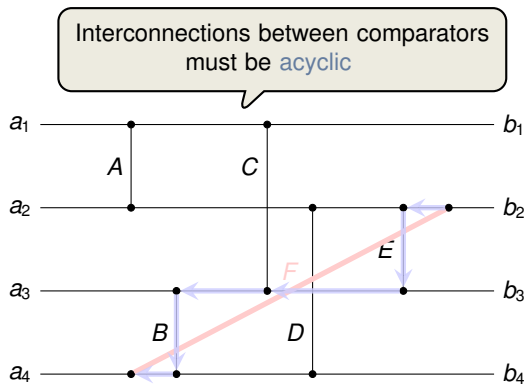
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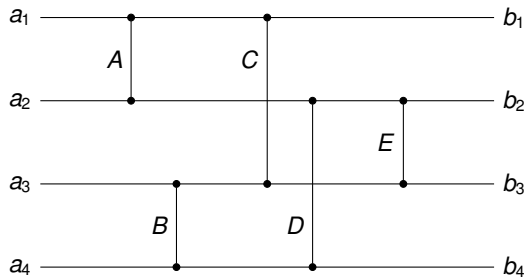


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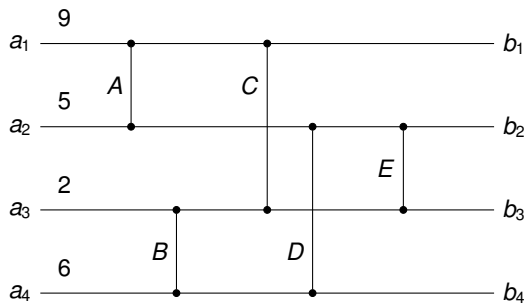


Tracing back a path must never cycle back on itself and go through the same comparator twice.

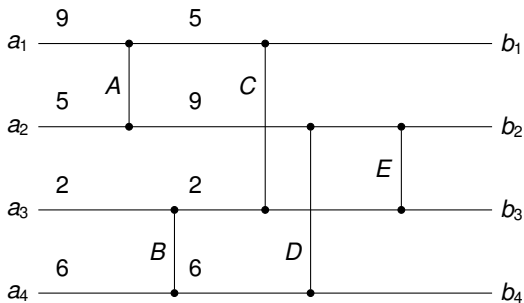
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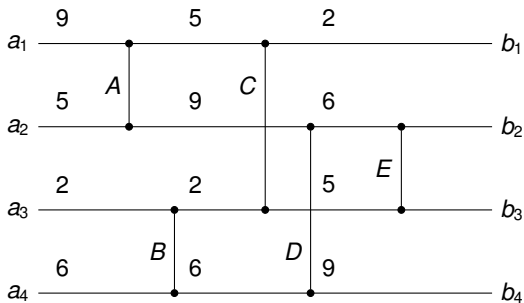


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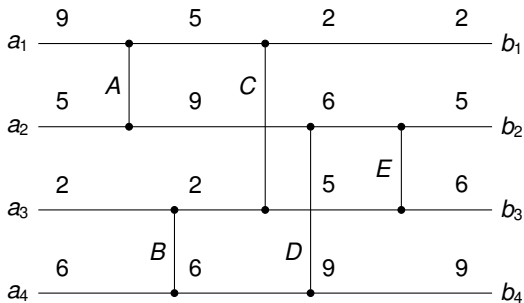




## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)



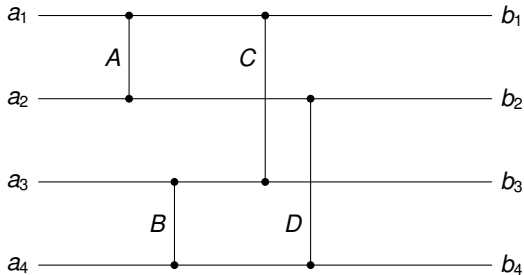
## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)



This network is in fact a sorting network (Exercise)



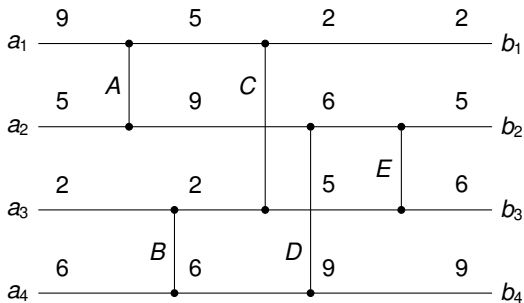
## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)



This network would not be a sorting network (Why??)



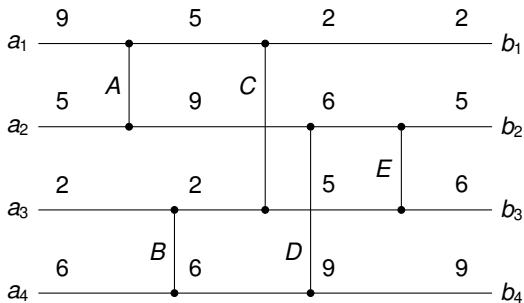
## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)



**Depth of a wire:**



## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)

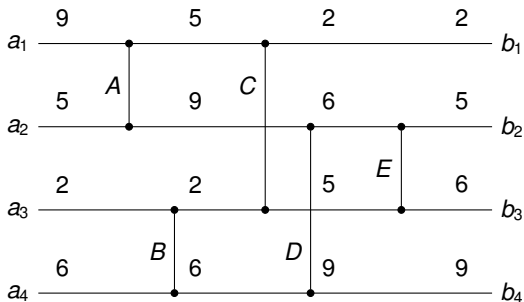


**Depth** of a wire:

- Input wire has depth 0



## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)

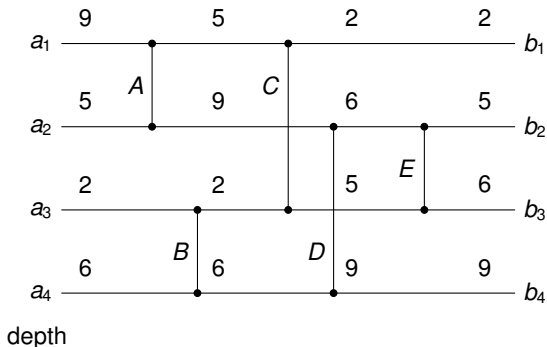


### Depth of a wire:

- Input wire has depth 0
- If a comparator has two inputs of depths  $d_x$  and  $d_y$ , then outputs have depth  $\max\{d_x, d_y\} + 1$



## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)

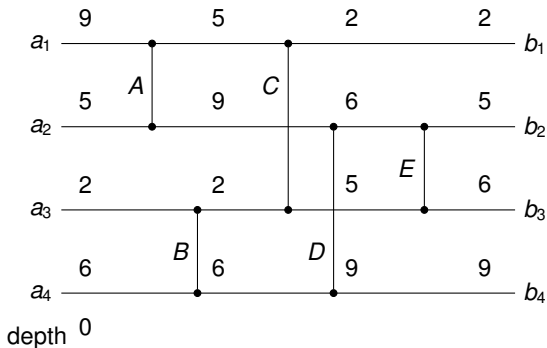


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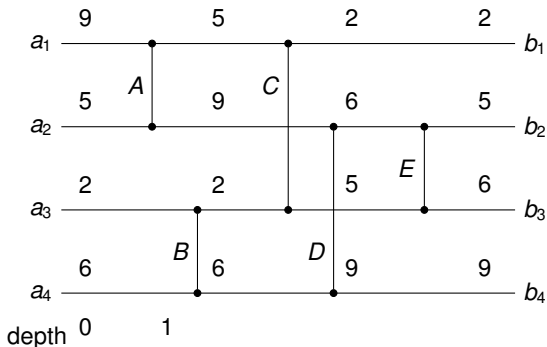
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## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)

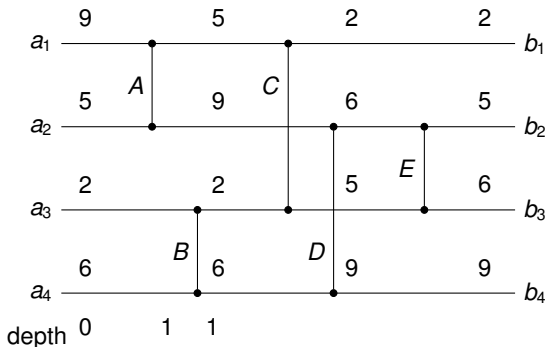


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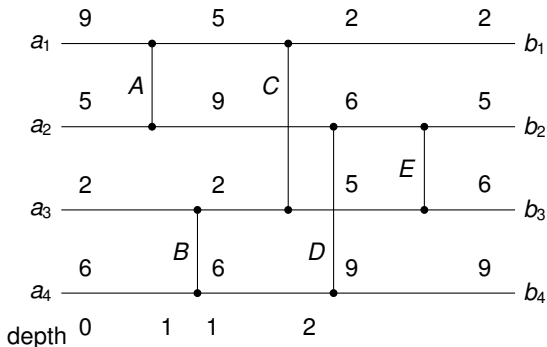


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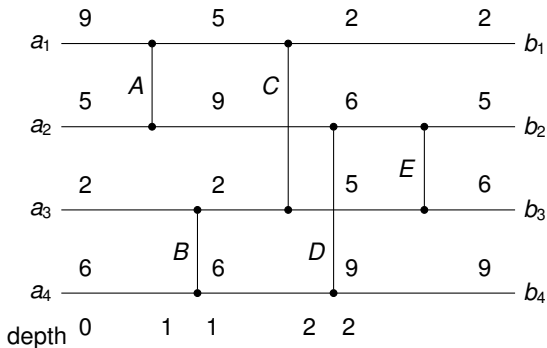


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## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)

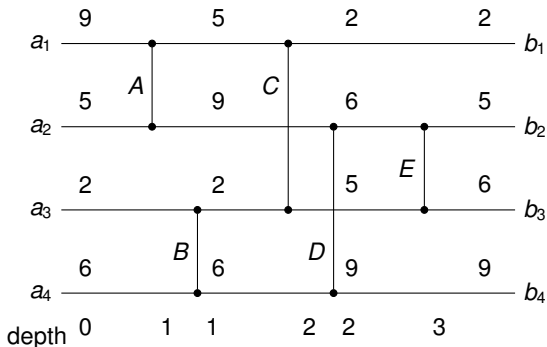


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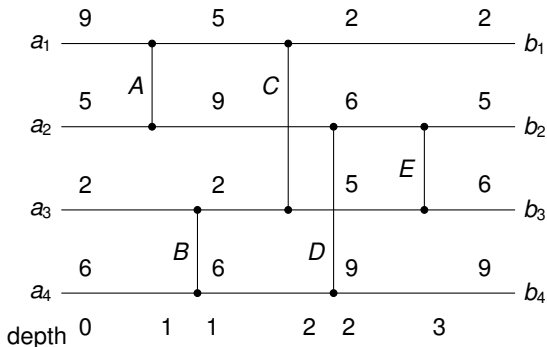


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## Example of a Comparison Network (Figure 27.2)



### Depth of a wire:

- Input wire has depth 0
- If a comparator has two inputs of depths  $d_x$  and  $d_y$ , then outputs have depth  $\max\{d_x, d_y\} + 1$

Maximum depth of an output wire equals total running time



## Zero-One Principle

---

**Zero-One Principle:** A sorting networks works correctly on arbitrary inputs if it works correctly on binary inputs.



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### Lemma 27.1

If a comparison network transforms the input  $a = \langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$  into the output  $b = \langle b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n \rangle$ , then for any monotonically increasing function  $f$ , the network transforms  $f(a) = \langle f(a_1), f(a_2), \dots, f(a_n) \rangle$  into  $f(b) = \langle f(b_1), f(b_2), \dots, f(b_n) \rangle$ .



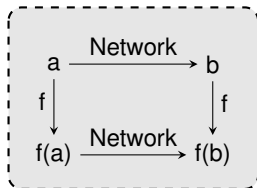
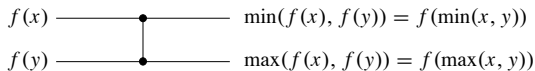


## Zero-One Principle

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**Figure 27.4** The operation of the comparator in the proof of Lemma 27.1. The function  $f$  is monotonically increasing.



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### Theorem 27.2 (Zero-One Principle)

If a comparison network with  $n$  inputs sorts all  $2^n$  possible sequences of 0's and 1's correctly, then it sorts all sequences of arbitrary numbers correctly.



## Proof of the Zero-One Principle

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- For the sake of contradiction, suppose the network does not correctly sort.
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$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq a_i, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > a_i. \end{cases}$$





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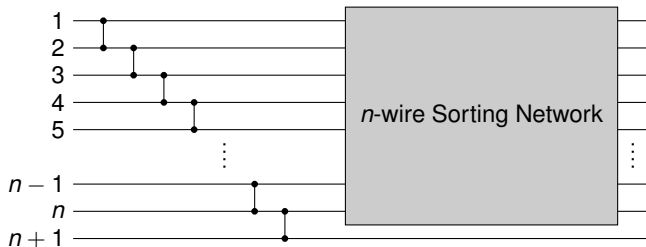
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- Define a monotonically increasing function  $f$  as:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq a_i, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > a_i. \end{cases}$$

- Since the network places  $a_j$  before  $a_i$ , by the previous lemma  $\Rightarrow f(a_j)$  is placed before  $f(a_i)$
- But  $f(a_j) = 1$  and  $f(a_i) = 0$ , which contradicts the assumption that the network sorts all sequences of 0's and 1's correctly □



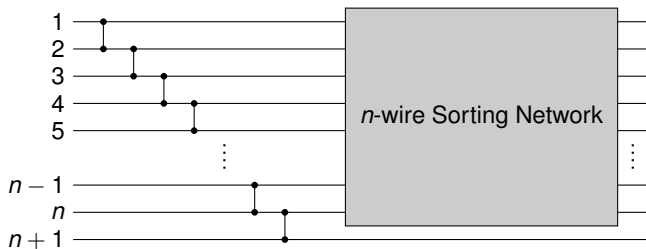
## Some Basic (Recursive) Sorting Networks



???



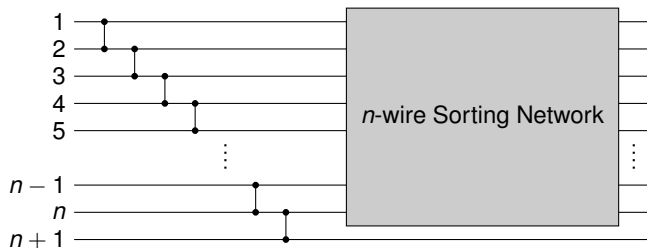
## Some Basic (Recursive) Sorting Networks



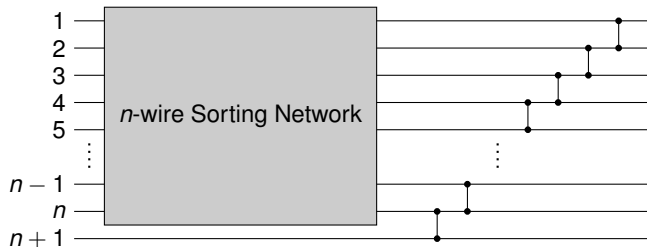
Bubble Sort



## Some Basic (Recursive) Sorting Networks



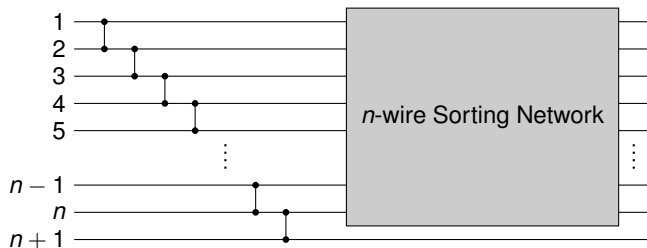
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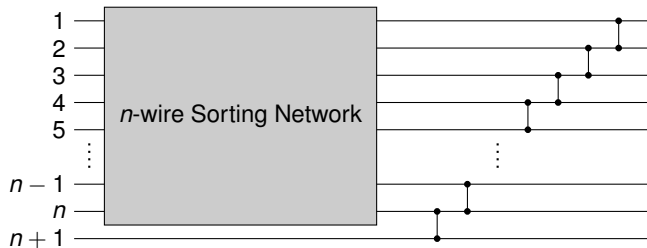
???



## Some Basic (Recursive) Sorting Networks



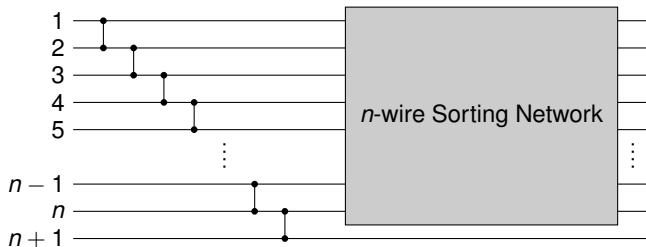
Bubble Sort



Insertion Sort

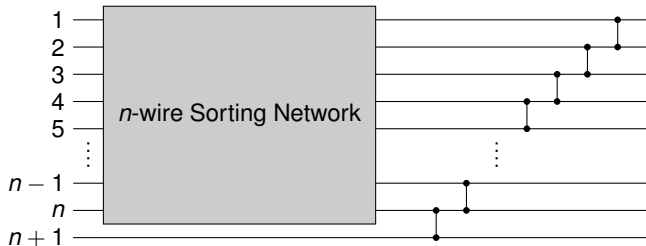


## Some Basic (Recursive) Sorting Networks



Bubble Sort

These are Sorting Networks, but with depth  $\Theta(n)$ .



Insertion Sort





# Outline

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Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

**Batcher's Sorting Network**

Counting Networks



## Bitonic Sequences

---

### Bitonic Sequence

A sequence is **bitonic** if it monotonically increases and then monotonically decreases, or can be circularly shifted to become monotonically increasing and then monotonically decreasing.

Sequences of one or two numbers are defined to be bitonic.



## Bitonic Sequences

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Examples:



## Bitonic Sequences

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### Examples:

- $\langle 1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2 \rangle$  ?



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- $\langle 1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2 \rangle$  ✓
- $\langle 6, 9, 4, 2, 3, 5 \rangle$  ?



## Bitonic Sequences

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- $\langle 9, 8, 3, 2, 4, 6 \rangle$  ?



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- $\langle 4, 5, 7, 1, 2, 6 \rangle$  ?



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- ~~$\langle 4, 5, 7, 1, 2, 6 \rangle$~~
- binary sequences: ?



## Bitonic Sequences

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### Examples:

- $\langle 1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2 \rangle$  ✓
- $\langle 6, 9, 4, 2, 3, 5 \rangle$  ✓
- $\langle 9, 8, 3, 2, 4, 6 \rangle$  ✓
- ~~$\langle 4, 5, 7, 1, 2, 6 \rangle$~~
- binary sequences:  $0^i 1^j 0^k$ , or,  $1^i 0^j 1^k$ , for  $i, j, k \geq 0$ .



## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

---

### Half-Cleaner

A **half-cleaner** is a comparison network of depth 1 in which input wire  $i$  is compared with wire  $i + n/2$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$ .



## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

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We always assume that  $n$  is even.

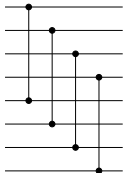




## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

### Half-Cleaner

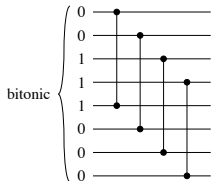
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## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

### Half-Cleaner

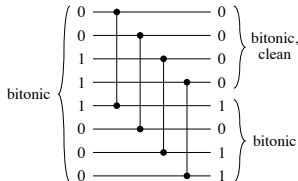
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## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

### Half-Cleaner

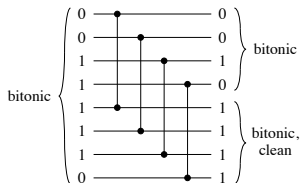
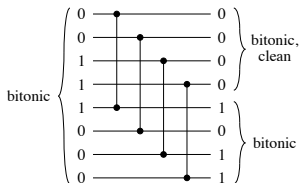
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## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

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## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

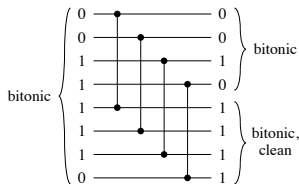
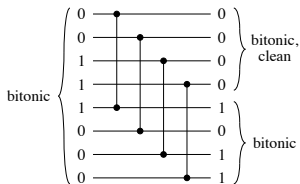
### Half-Cleaner

A **half-cleaner** is a comparison network of depth 1 in which input wire  $i$  is compared with wire  $i + n/2$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$ .

### Lemma 27.3

If the input to a half-cleaner is a bitonic sequence of 0's and 1's, then the output satisfies the following properties:

- both the top half and the bottom half are **bitonic**,
- every element in the top is not larger than any element in the bottom,
- at least one half is **clean**.



## Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks

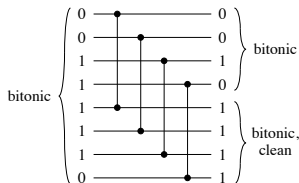
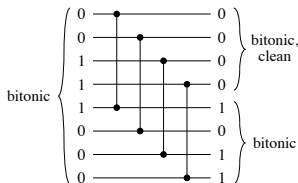
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A **half-cleaner** is a comparison network of depth 1 in which input wire  $i$  is compared with wire  $i + n/2$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$ .

### Lemma 27.3

If the input to a half-cleaner is a bitonic sequence of 0's and 1's, then the output satisfies the following properties:

- both the top half and the bottom half are bitonic,
- every element in the top is not larger than any element in the bottom,
- at least one half is clean.



## Proof of Lemma 27.3

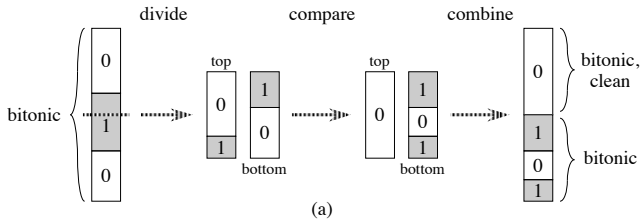
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W.l.o.g. assume that the input is of the form  $0^i 1^j 0^k$ , for some  $i, j, k \geq 0$ .



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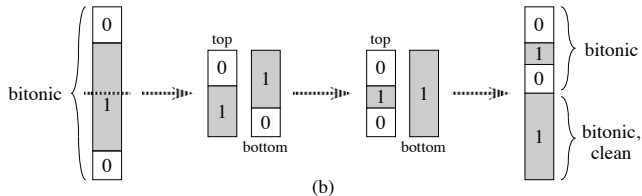
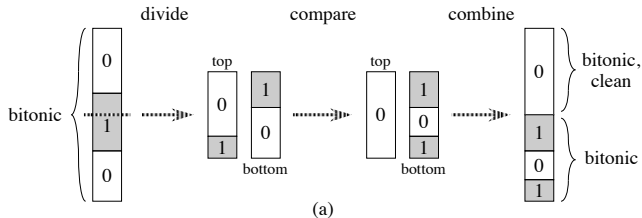
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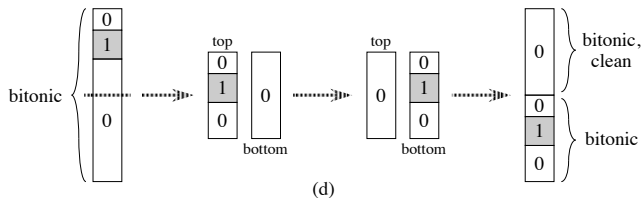
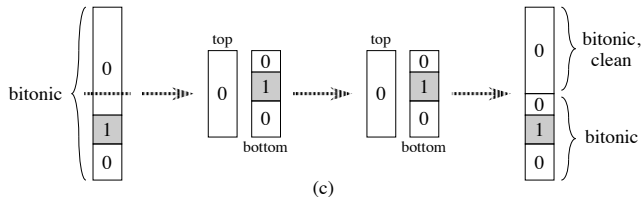
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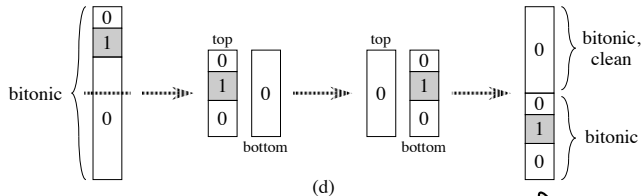
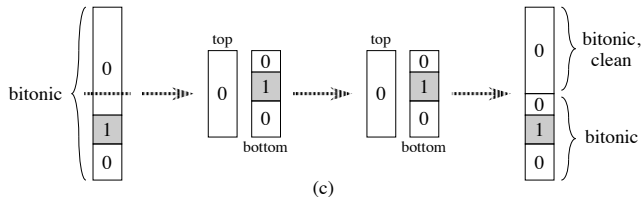
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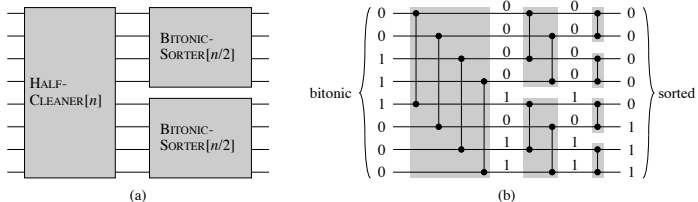
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This suggests a recursive approach, since it now suffices to sort the top and bottom half separately.



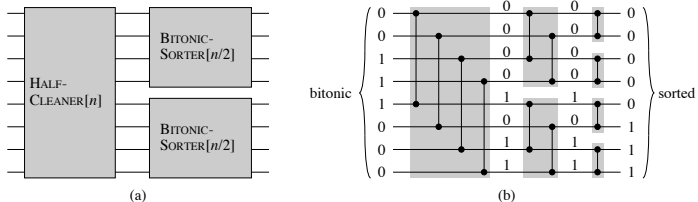
# The Bitonic Sorter



**Figure 27.9** The comparison network  $\text{BITONIC-SORTER}[n]$ , shown here for  $n = 8$ . (a) The recursive construction:  $\text{HALF-CLEANER}[n]$  followed by two copies of  $\text{BITONIC-SORTER}[n/2]$  that operate in parallel. (b) The network after unrolling the recursion. Each half-cleaner is shaded. Sample zero-one values are shown on the wires.



# The Bitonic Sorter



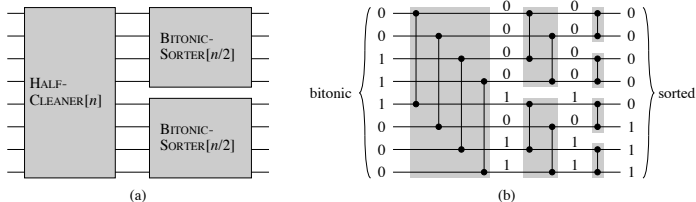
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Recursive Formula for depth  $D(n)$ :

$$D(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ D(n/2) + 1 & \text{if } n = 2^k. \end{cases}$$



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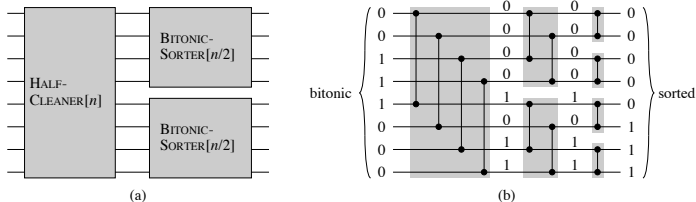
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Henceforth we will always assume that  $n$  is a power of 2.

BITONIC-SORTER[ $n$ ] has depth  $\log n$  and sorts any zero-one bitonic sequence.



## Merging Networks

- can merge **two sorted** input sequences into **one sorted** output sequence
- will be based on a modification of BITONIC-SORTER[ $n$ ]





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This sequence is bitonic!

Hence in order to merge the sequences  $X$  and  $Y$ , it suffices to perform a **bitonic sort** on  $X$  concatenated with  $Y^R$ .



## Construction of a Merging Network (1/2)

---

- Given **two sorted** sequences  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2} \rangle$  and  $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, \dots, a_n \rangle$
- We know it suffices to **bitonically sort**  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_{n/2+1} \rangle$
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[ $n$ ] compares  $i$  and  $n/2 + i$



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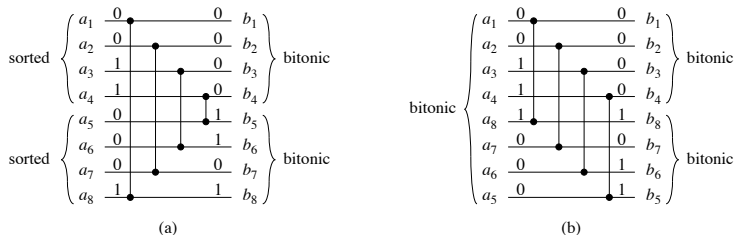
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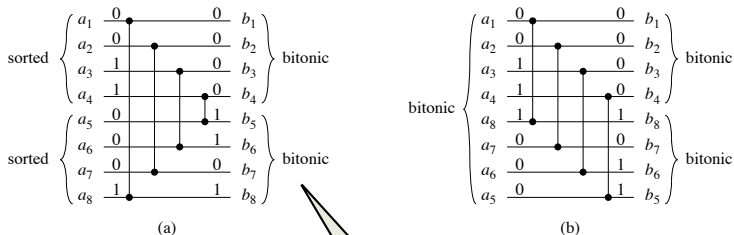
**Figure 27.10** Comparing the first stage of MERGER[ $n$ ] with HALF-CLEANER[ $n$ ], for  $n = 8$ . (a) The first stage of MERGER[ $n$ ] transforms the two monotonic input sequences  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2} \rangle$  and  $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, \dots, a_n \rangle$  into two bitonic sequences  $\langle b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n/2} \rangle$  and  $\langle b_{n/2+1}, b_{n/2+2}, \dots, b_n \rangle$ . (b) The equivalent operation for HALF-CLEANER[ $n$ ]. The bitonic input sequence  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2-1}, a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_{n/2+2}, a_{n/2+1} \rangle$  is transformed into the two bitonic sequences  $\langle b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n/2} \rangle$  and  $\langle b_n, b_{n-1}, \dots, b_{n/2+1} \rangle$ .





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- ⇒ First part of MERGER[ $n$ ] compares inputs  $i$  and  $n - i + 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$



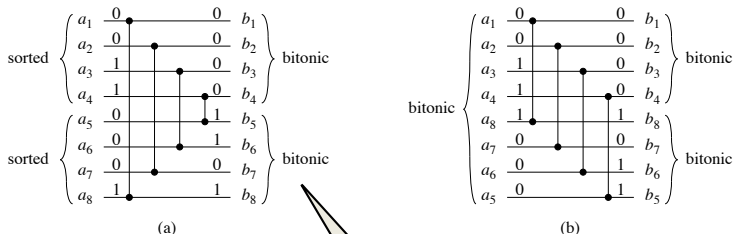
Lemma 27.3 still applies, since the reversal of a bitonic sequence is bitonic.

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- ⇒ First part of MERGER[ $n$ ] compares inputs  $i$  and  $n - i + 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$
- Remaining part is identical to BITONIC-SORTER[ $n$ ]

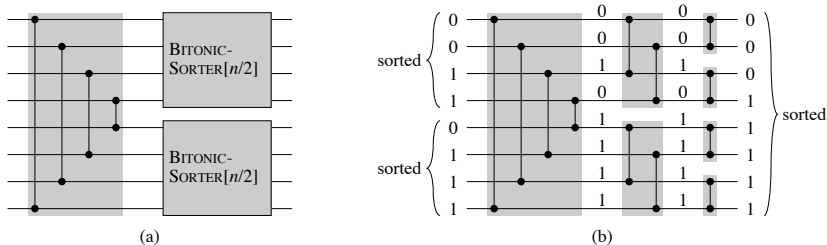


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## Construction of a Merging Network (2/2)



**Figure 27.11** A network that merges two sorted input sequences into one sorted output sequence. The network MERGER[ $n$ ] can be viewed as BITONIC-SORTER[ $n$ ] with the first half-cleaner altered to compare inputs  $i$  and  $n - i + 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$ . Here,  $n = 8$ . **(a)** The network decomposed into the first stage followed by two parallel copies of BITONIC-SORTER[ $n/2$ ]. **(b)** The same network with the recursion unrolled. Sample zero-one values are shown on the wires, and the stages are shaded.

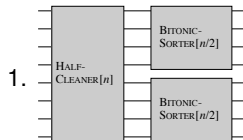


# Construction of a Sorting Network

## Main Components

### 1. BITONIC-SORTER[ $n$ ]

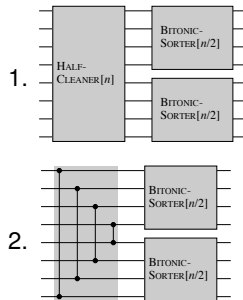
- sorts any bitonic sequence
- depth  $\log n$



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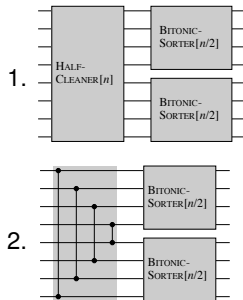
1. BITONIC-SORTER[ $n$ ]
  - sorts any bitonic sequence
  - depth  $\log n$
2. MERGER[ $n$ ]
  - merges two sorted input sequences
  - depth  $\log n$



# Construction of a Sorting Network

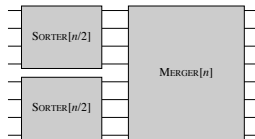
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  - merges two sorted input sequences
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## Batcher's Sorting Network

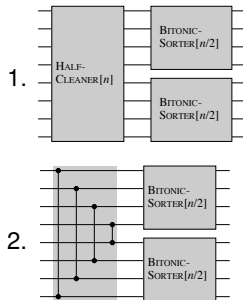
- SORTER[ $n$ ] is defined recursively:
  - If  $n = 2^k$ , use two copies of SORTER[ $n/2$ ] to sort two subsequences of length  $n/2$  each. Then merge them using MERGER[ $n$ ].
  - If  $n = 1$ , network consists of a single wire.



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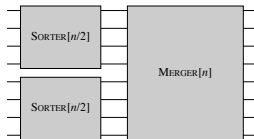
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  - merges two sorted input sequences
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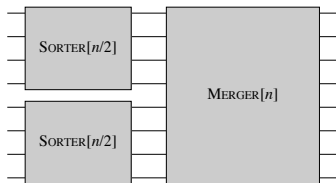
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can be seen as a parallel version of merge sort



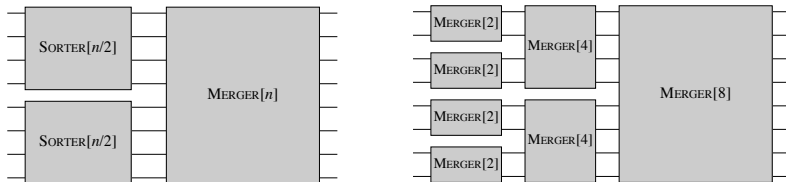
## Unrolling the Recursion (Figure 27.12)

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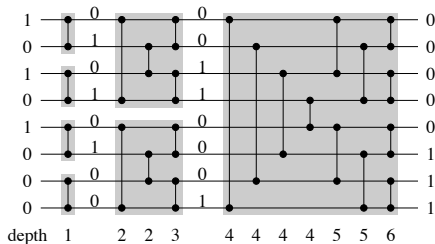
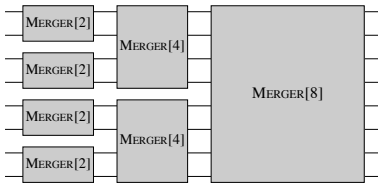
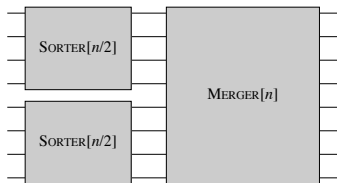




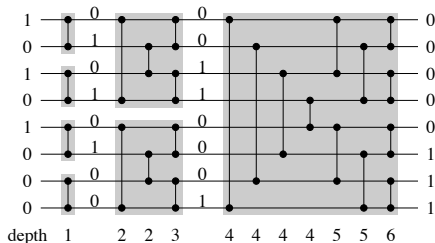
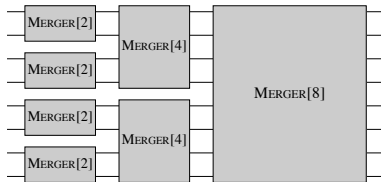
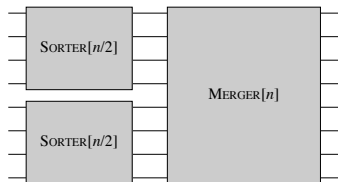
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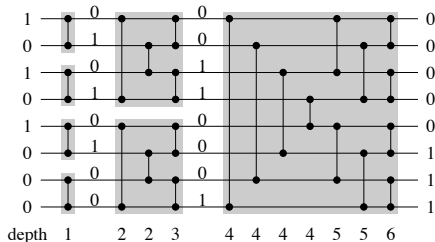
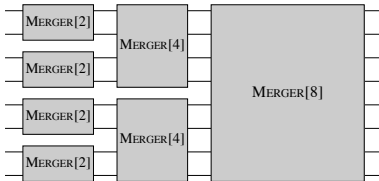
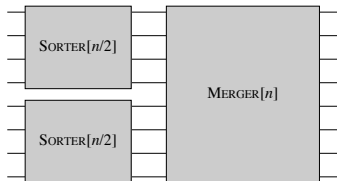


Recursion for  $D(n)$ :

$$D(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ D(n/2) + \log n & \text{if } n = 2^k. \end{cases}$$



## Unrolling the Recursion (Figure 27.12)



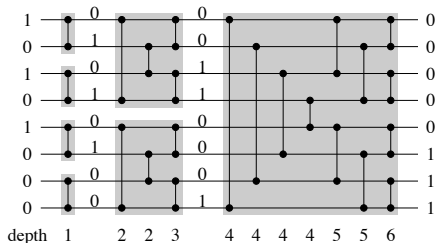
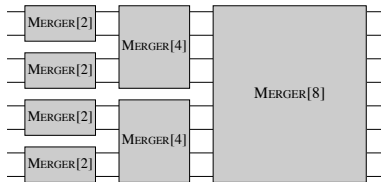
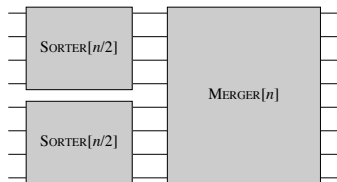
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Solution:  $D(n) = \Theta(\log^2 n)$ .



## Unrolling the Recursion (Figure 27.12)



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Solution:  $D(n) = \Theta(\log^2 n)$ .

$\text{SORTER}[n]$  has depth  $\Theta(\log^2 n)$  and sorts any input.



## A Glimpse at the AKS Network

---

Ajtai, Komlós, Szemerédi (1983)

There exists a sorting network with depth  $O(\log n)$ .



## A Glimpse at the AKS Network

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Ajtai, Komlós, Szemerédi (1983)

There exists a sorting network with depth  $O(\log n)$ .

Quite elaborate construction, and involves huge constants.



## A Glimpse at the AKS Network

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There exists a sorting network with depth  $O(\log n)$ .

Perfect Halver

A **perfect halver** is a comparison network that, given any input, places the  $n/2$  smaller keys in  $b_1, \dots, b_{n/2}$  and the  $n/2$  larger keys in  $b_{n/2+1}, \dots, b_n$ .





## A Glimpse at the AKS Network

Ajtai, Komlós, Szemerédi (1983)

There exists a sorting network with depth  $O(\log n)$ .

Perfect Halver

A **perfect halver** is a comparison network that, given any input, places the  $n/2$  smaller keys in  $b_1, \dots, b_{n/2}$  and the  $n/2$  larger keys in  $b_{n/2+1}, \dots, b_n$ .

Perfect halver of depth  $\log n$  exist  $\rightsquigarrow$  yields sorting networks of depth  $\Theta((\log n)^2)$ .



## A Glimpse at the AKS Network

Ajtai, Komlós, Szemerédi (1983)

There exists a sorting network with depth  $O(\log n)$ .

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An  $(n, \epsilon)$ -**approximate halver**,  $\epsilon < 1$ , is a comparison network that for every  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$  places at most  $\epsilon k$  of its  $k$  smallest keys in  $b_{n/2+1}, \dots, b_n$  and at most  $\epsilon k$  of its  $k$  largest keys in  $b_1, \dots, b_{n/2}$ .



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We will prove that such networks can be constructed in constant depth!



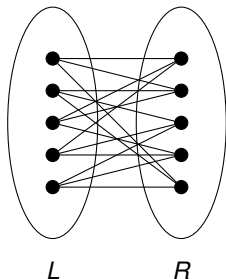
## Expander Graphs

### Expander Graphs

A bipartite  $(n, d, \mu)$ -expander is a graph with:

- $G$  has  $n$  vertices ( $n/2$  on each side)
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- For every subset  $S \subseteq V$  being in one part,

$$|N(S)| > \min\{\mu \cdot |S|, n/2 - |S|\}$$



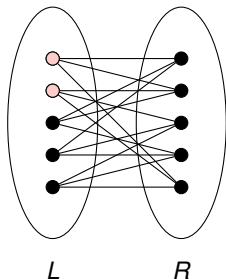
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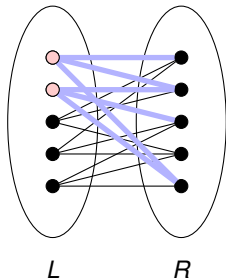
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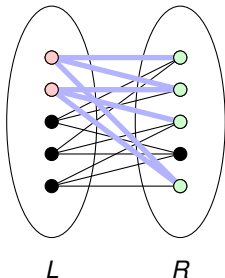
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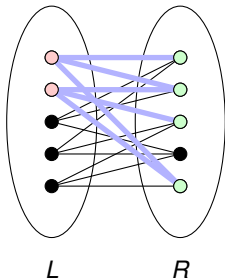
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Specific definition tailored for sorting network - many other variants exist!





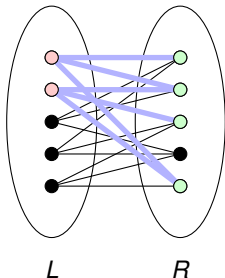
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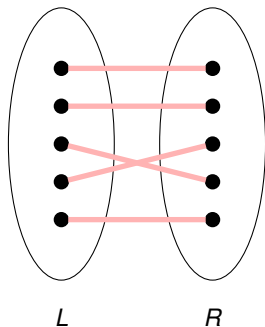
### Expander Graphs:

- **probabilistic construction** “easy”: take  $d$  (disjoint) random matchings
- **explicit construction** is a deep mathematical problem with ties to number theory, group theory, combinatorics etc.
- **many applications** in networking, complexity theory and coding theory



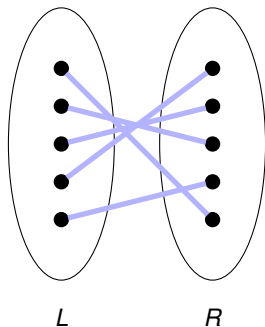
## From Expanders to Approximate Halvers

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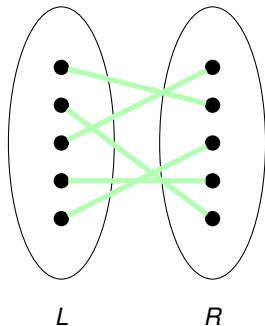
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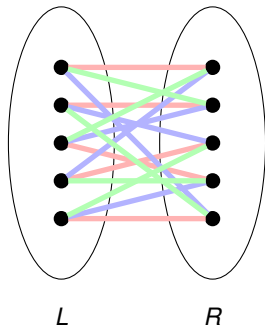
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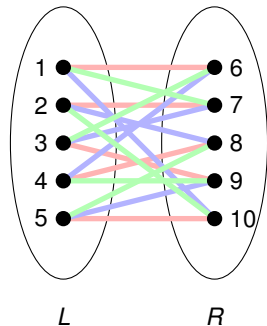
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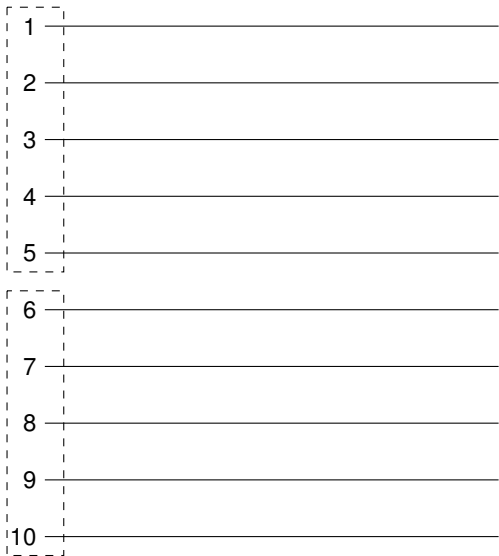
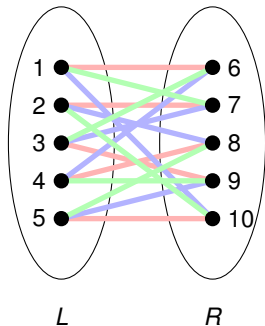


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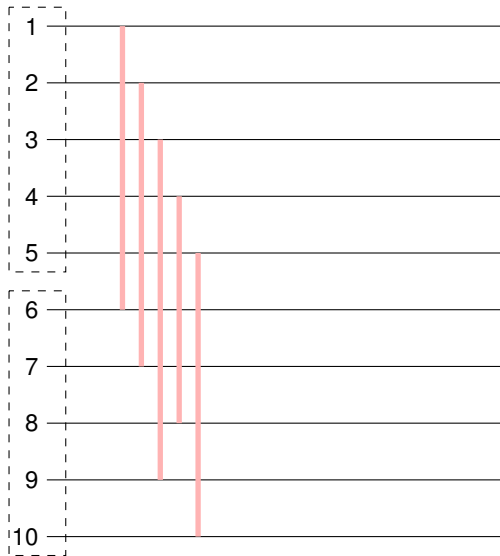
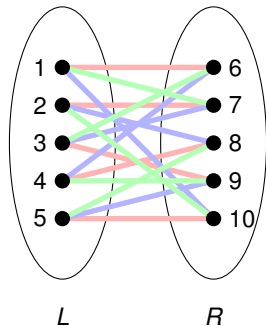
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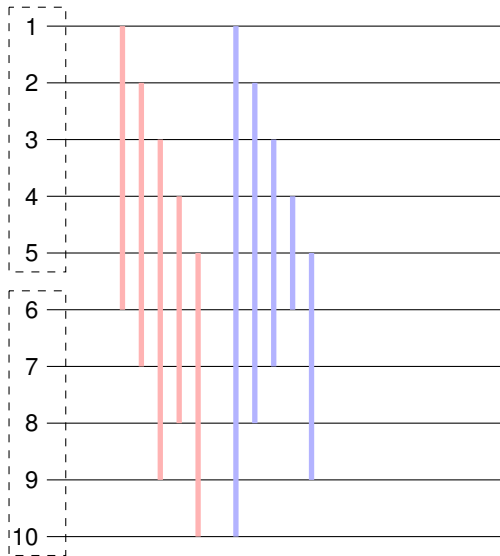
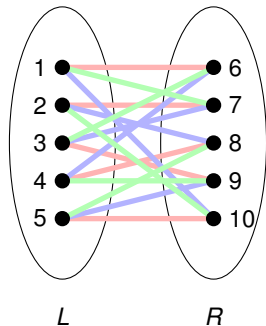


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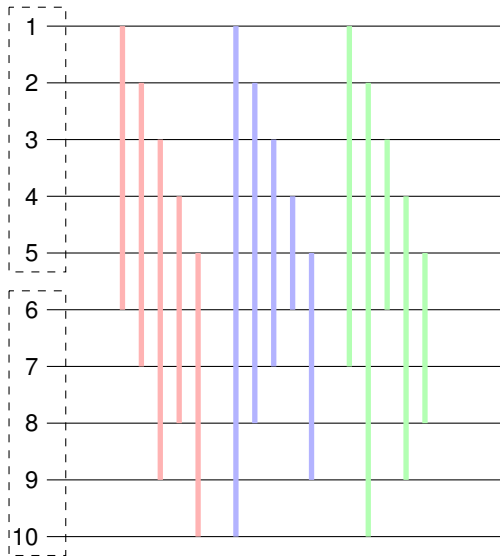
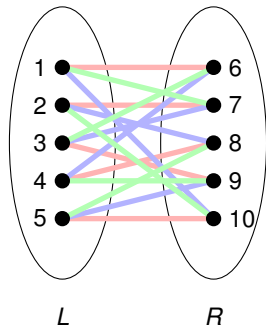




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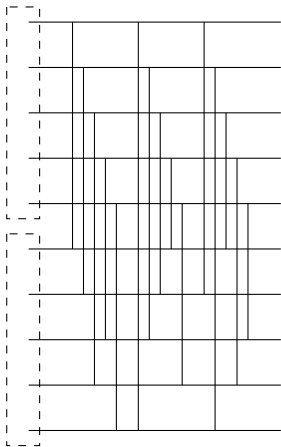


## From Expanders to Approximate Halvers



## Existence of Approximate Halvers (not examinable)

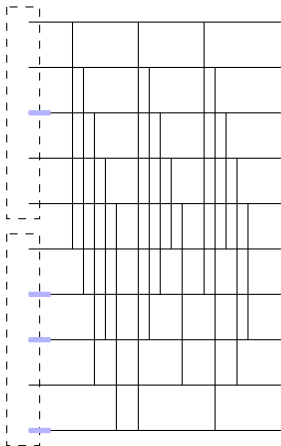
Proof:



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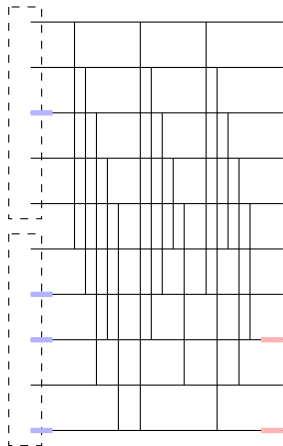
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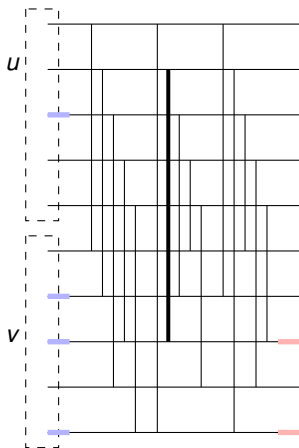
- $X$  := keys with the  $k$  smallest inputs
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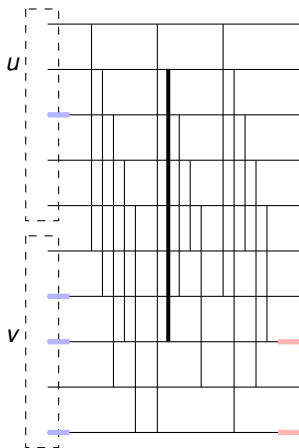
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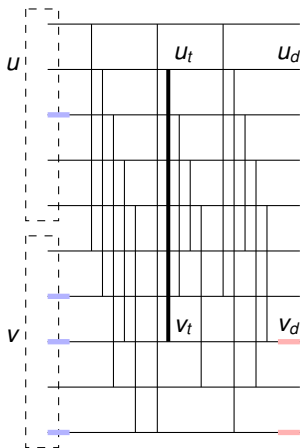
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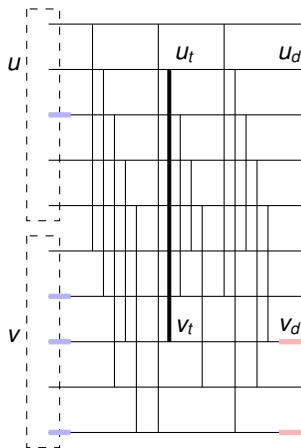




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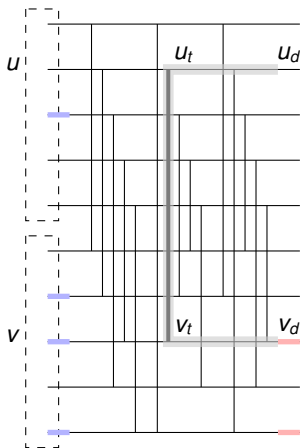
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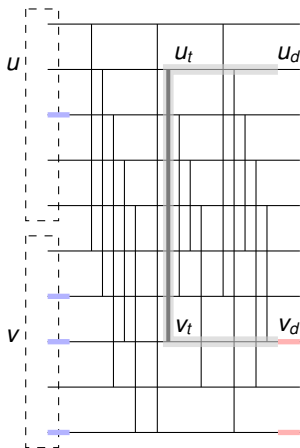


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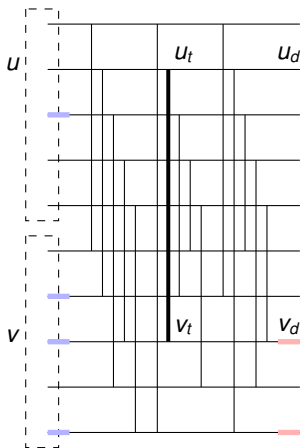
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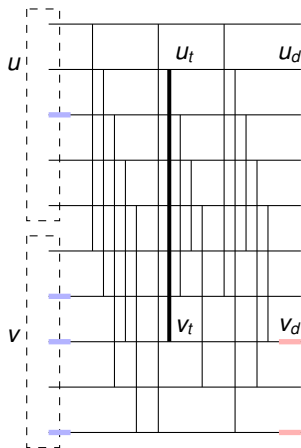
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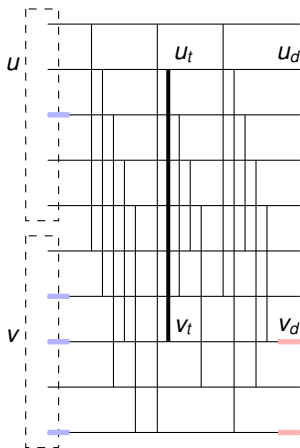
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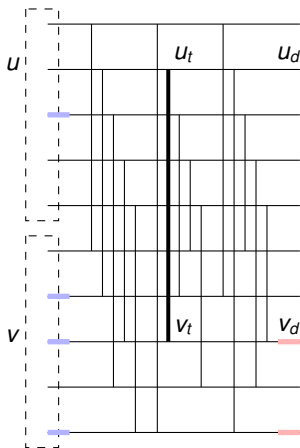
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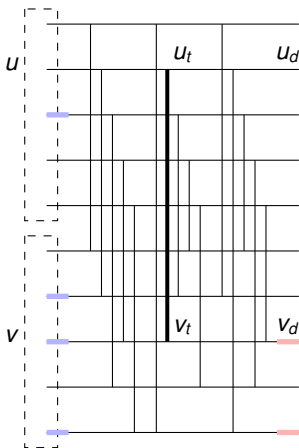
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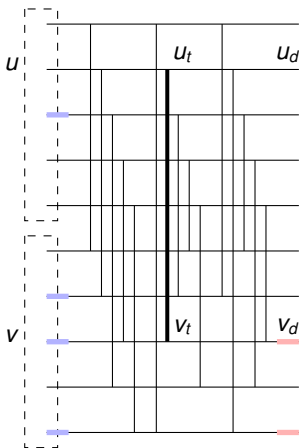
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Here we used that  $k \leq n/2$



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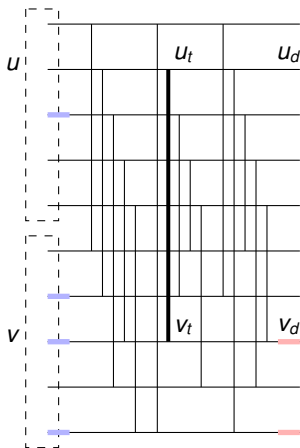
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- Combining the two bounds above yields:

$$(1 + \mu)|Y| \leq k.$$

- Same argument  $\Rightarrow$  at most  $\epsilon \cdot k$ ,  
 $\epsilon := 1/(\mu + 1)$ , of the  $k$  largest input keys are  
placed in  $b_1, \dots, b_{n/2}$ .  $\square$



- typical application of expander graphs in parallel algorithms
- Much more work needed to construct the AKS sorting network



## AKS network vs. Batcher's network

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**Donald E. Knuth (Stanford)**

*"Batcher's method is much better, unless  $n$  exceeds the total memory capacity of all computers on earth!"*



**Richard J. Lipton (Georgia Tech)**

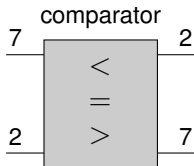
*"The AKS sorting network is **galactic**: it needs that  $n$  be larger than  $2^{78}$  or so to finally be smaller than Batcher's network for  $n$  items."*



## Siblings of Sorting Network

### Sorting Networks

- sorts any input of size  $n$
- special case of [Comparison Networks](#)



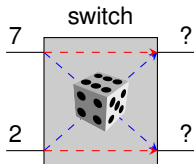
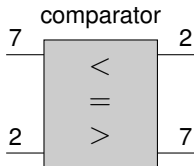
## Siblings of Sorting Network

### Sorting Networks

- sorts any input of size  $n$
- special case of Comparison Networks

### Switching (Shuffling) Networks

- creates a random permutation of  $n$  items
- special case of Permutation Networks



## Siblings of Sorting Network

### Sorting Networks

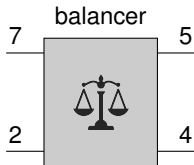
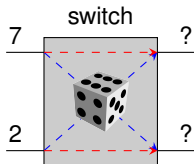
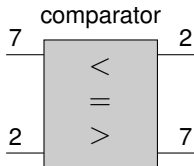
- sorts any input of size  $n$
- special case of **Comparison Networks**

### Switching (Shuffling) Networks

- creates a random permutation of  $n$  items
- special case of **Permutation Networks**

### Counting Networks

- balances any stream of tokens over  $n$  wires
- special case of **Balancing Networks**



# Outline

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Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Counting Networks



## Counting Network

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### Distributed Counting

Processors collectively assign successive values from a given range.





## Counting Network

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### Distributed Counting

Processors collectively assign successive values from a given range.

Values could represent addresses in memories or destinations on an interconnection network



## Counting Network

---

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Processors collectively assign successive values from a given range.

### Balancing Networks

- constructed in a similar manner like [sorting networks](#)
- instead of comparators, consists of [balancers](#)
- [balancers](#) are [asynchronous](#) flip-flops that forward tokens from its inputs to one of its two outputs alternately (top, bottom, top, . . .)



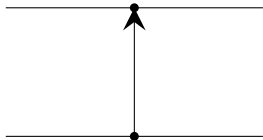
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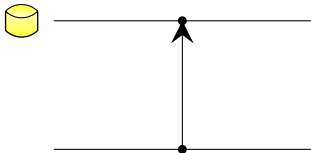
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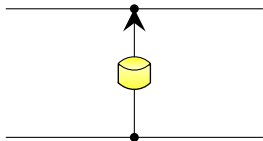
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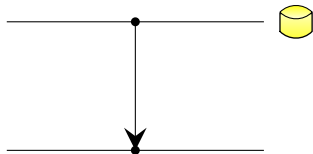
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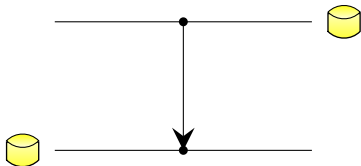
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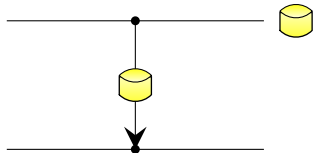
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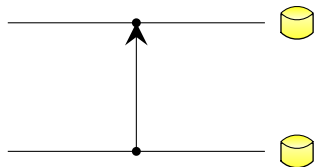
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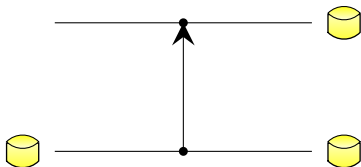
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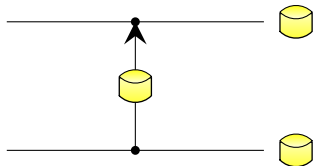
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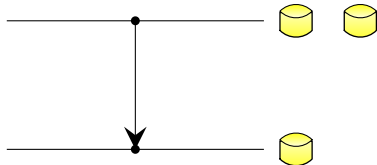
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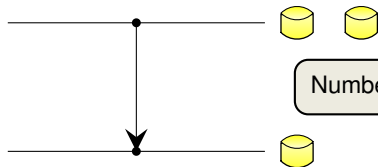
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Number of tokens differs by at most one



### Counting Network (Formal Definition)

1. Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be the number of tokens (ever received) on the designated input wires
2. Let  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  be the number of tokens (ever received) on the designated output wires



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3. In a **quiescent state**:  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$
4. **A counting network is a balancing network with the **step-property**:**

$$0 \leq y_i - y_j \leq 1 \text{ for any } i < j.$$



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**Bitonic Counting Network:** Take Batcher's Sorting Network and replace each comparator by a balancer.





## Correctness of the Bitonic Counting Network (not examinable)

Facts

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  have the step property. Then:

1. We have  $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \lceil \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \rceil$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \rfloor$
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### Key Lemma

Consider a **MERGER**[ $n$ ]. Then if the inputs  $x_1, \dots, x_{n/2}$  and  $x_{n/2+1}, \dots, x_n$  have the step property, then so does the output  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ .

Proof (by induction on  $n$  being a power of 2)

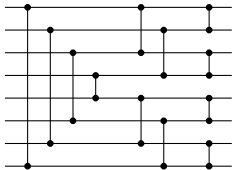


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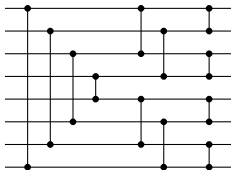


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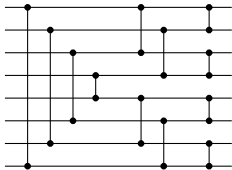


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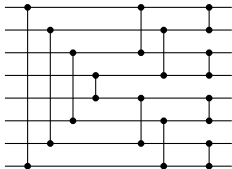
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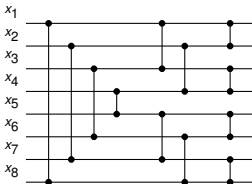


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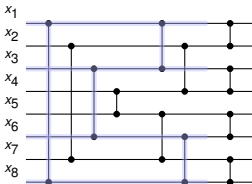


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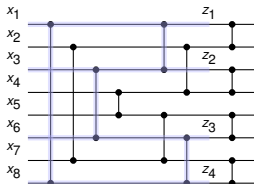


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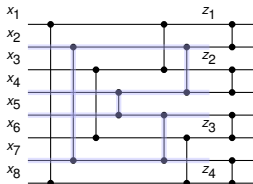


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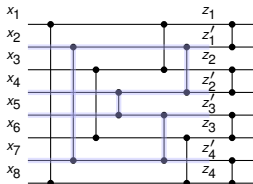


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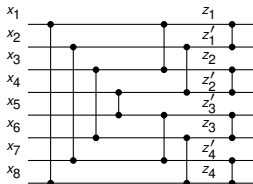


## Correctness of the Bitonic Counting Network (not examinable)

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Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  have the step property. Then:

1. We have  $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \lceil \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \rceil$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \rfloor$
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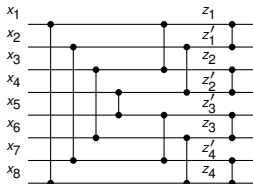


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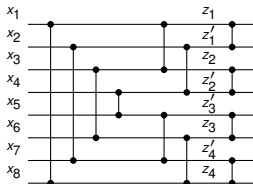


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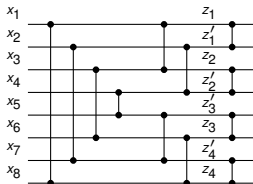


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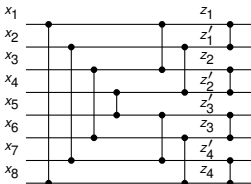


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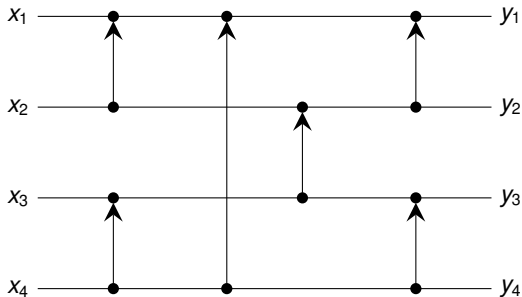
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- Case 2: If  $|Z - Z'| = 1$ , F3 implies  $z_i = z'_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n/2$  except a unique  $j$  with  $z_j \neq z'_j$ .  
Balancer between  $z_j$  and  $z'_j$  will ensure that the step property holds.

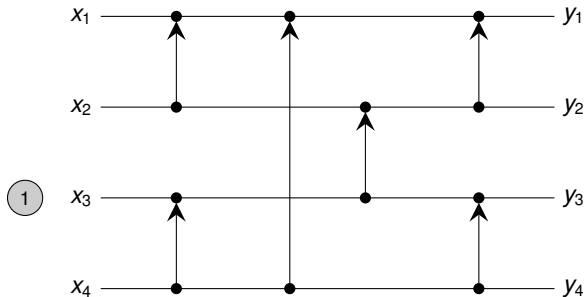




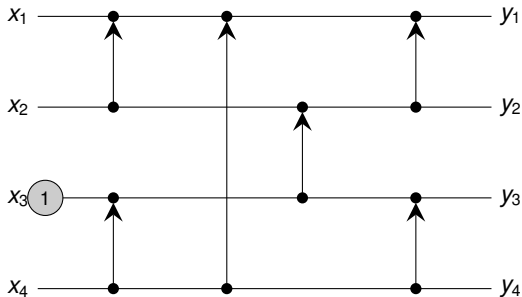
## Bitonic Counting Network in Action (Asynchronous Execution)



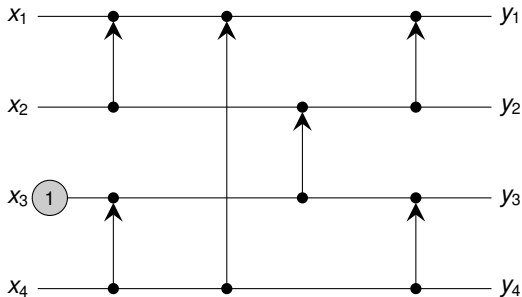
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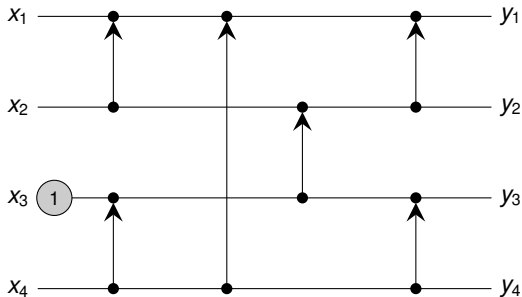
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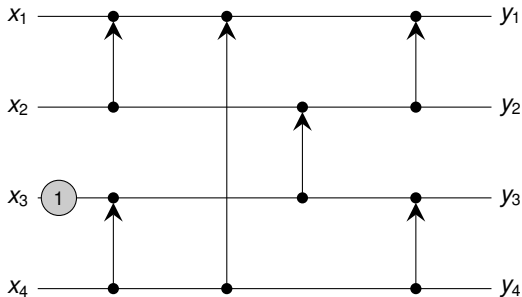
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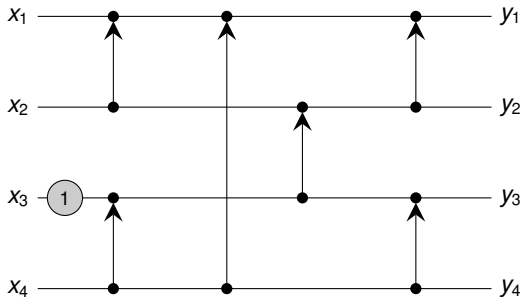
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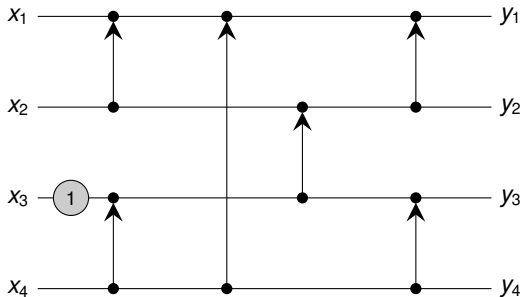
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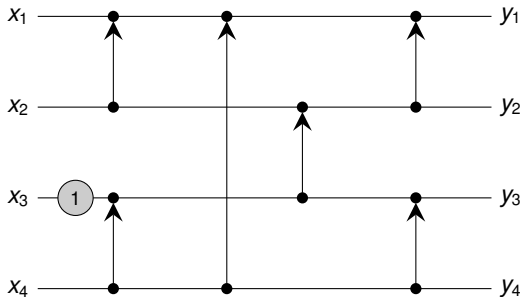


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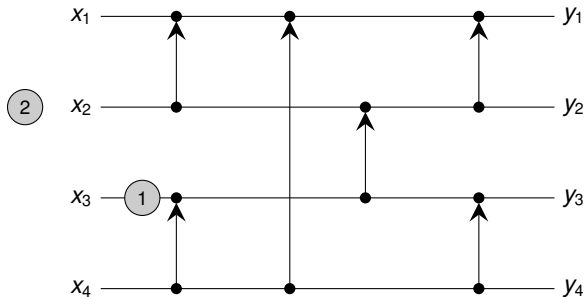




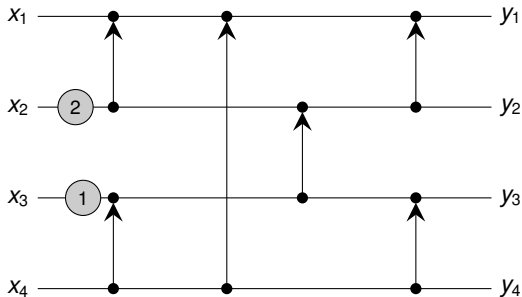
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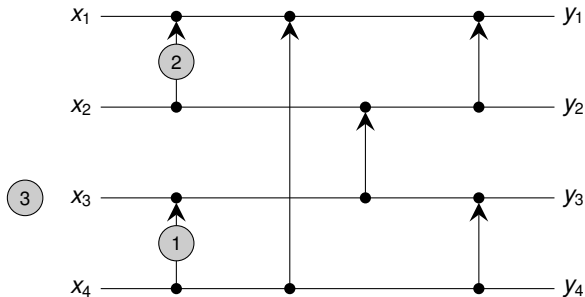
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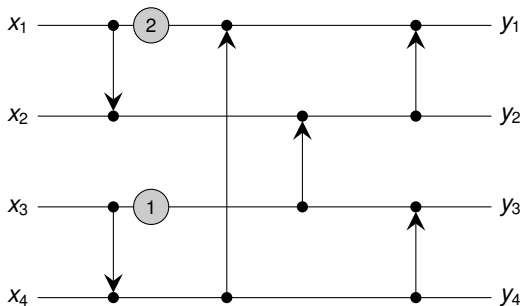
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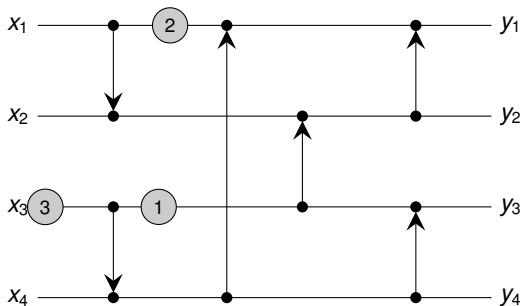
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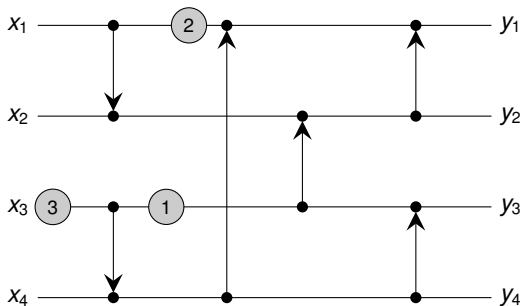
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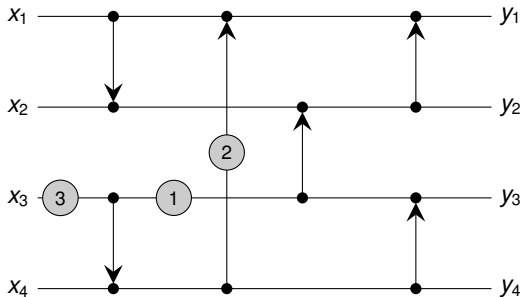
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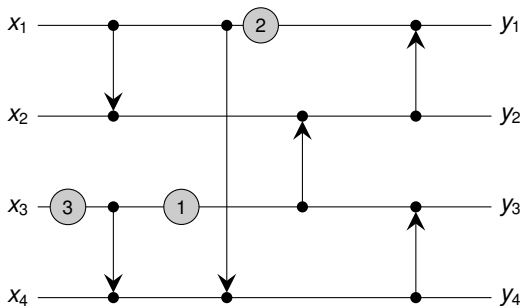


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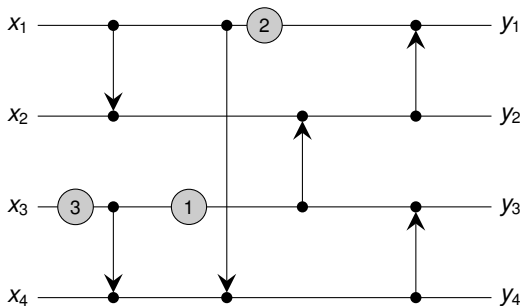




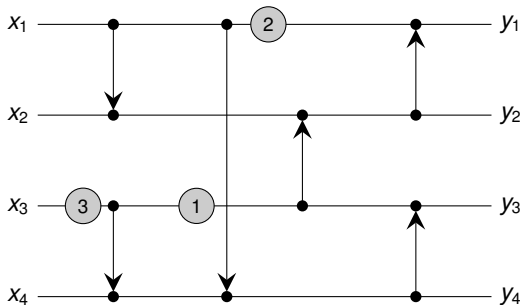
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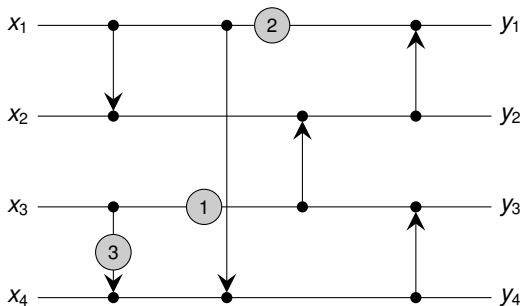
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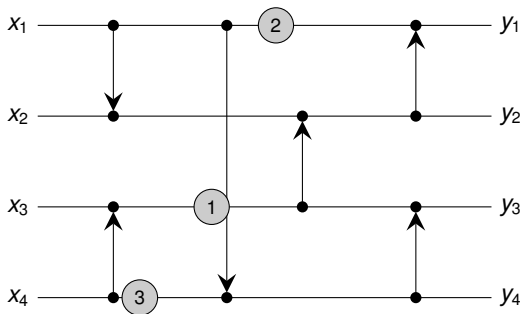
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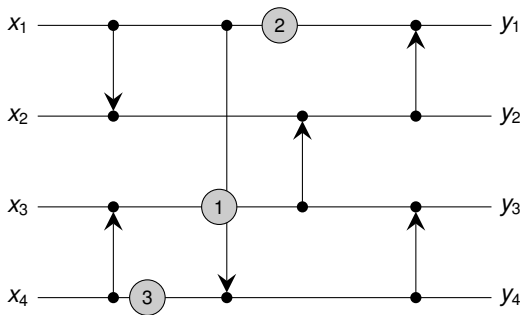
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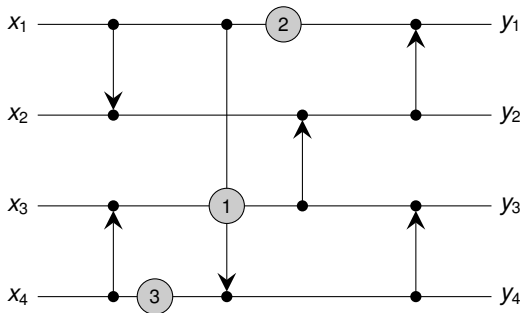
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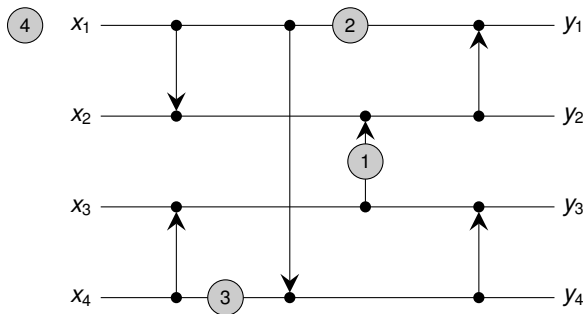
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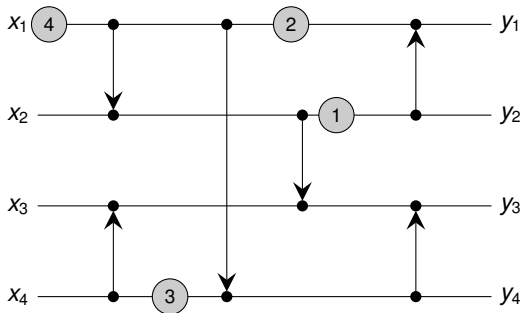


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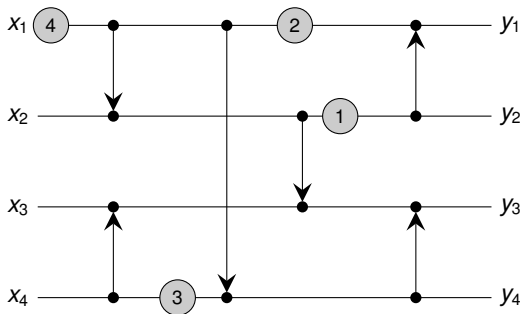




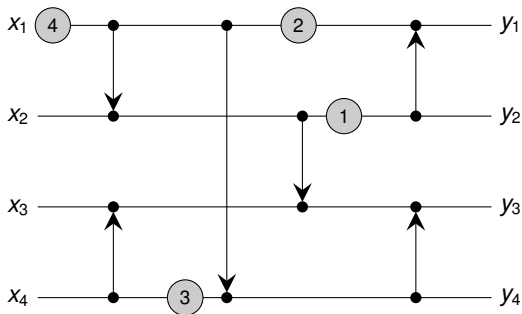
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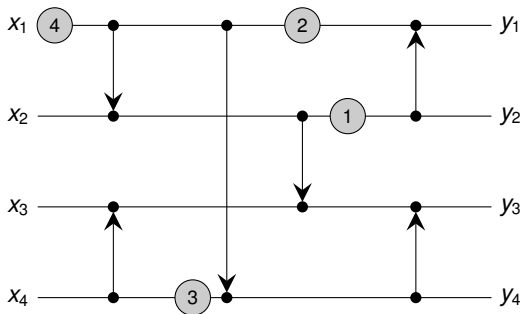
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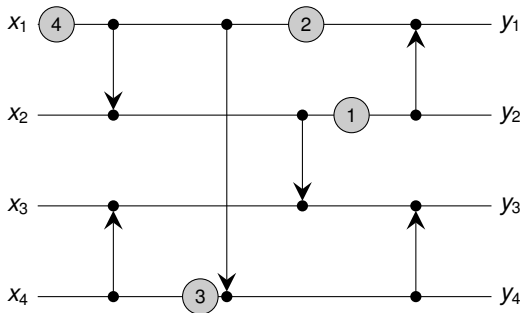
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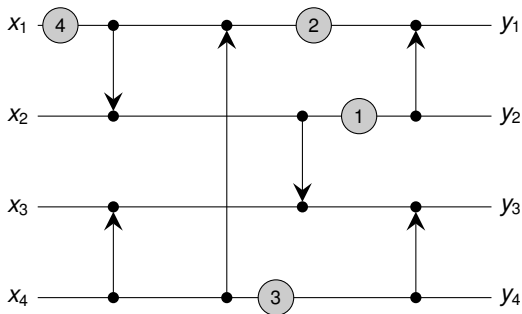


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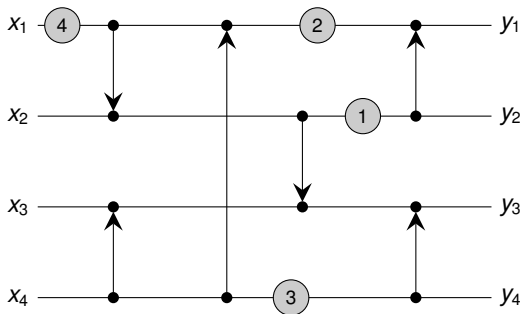




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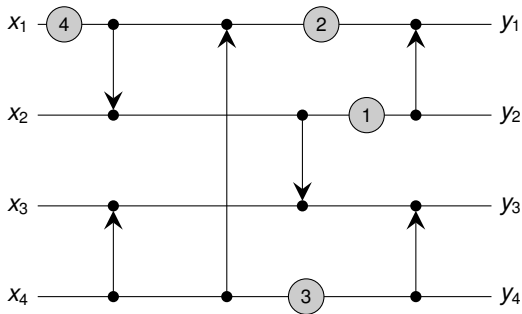


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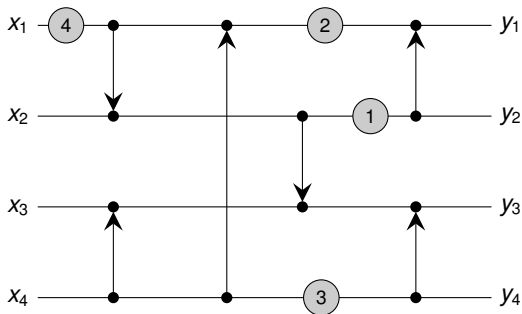




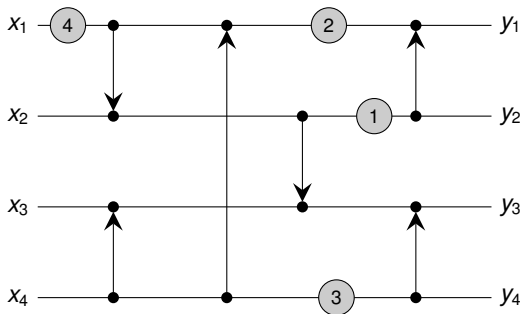
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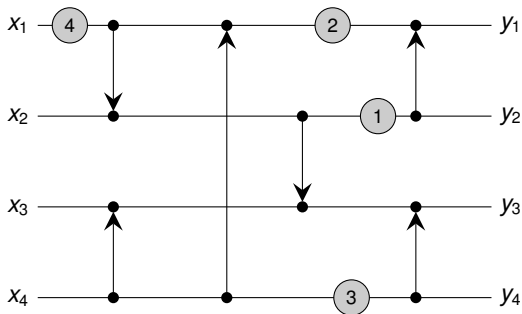
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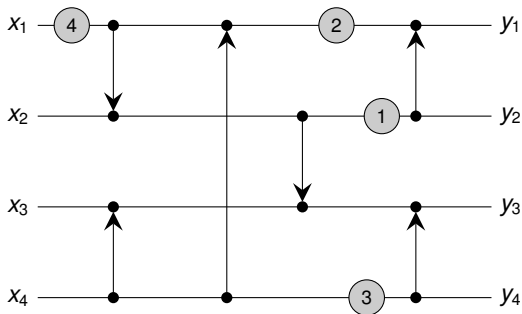
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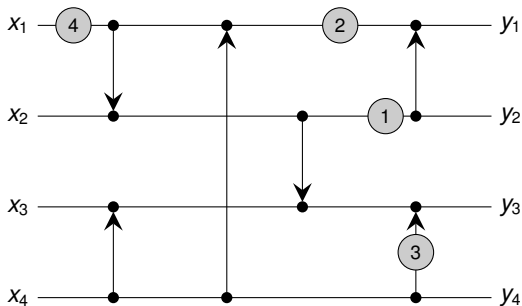
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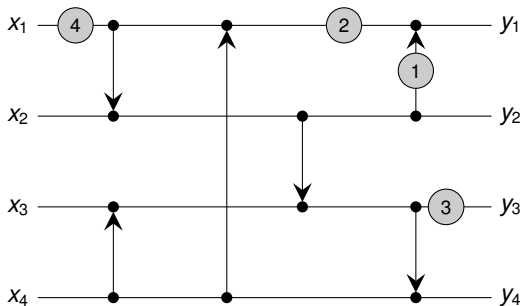
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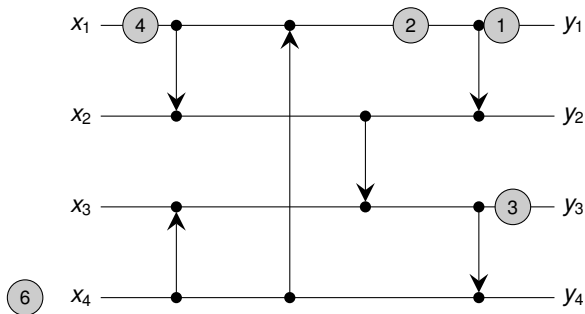
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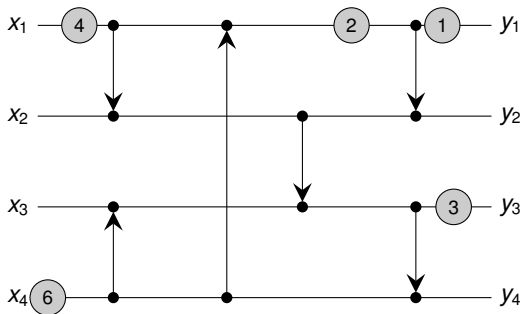


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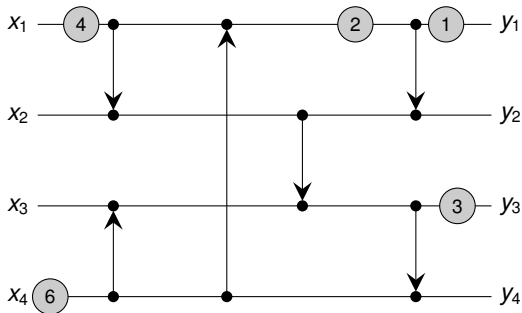




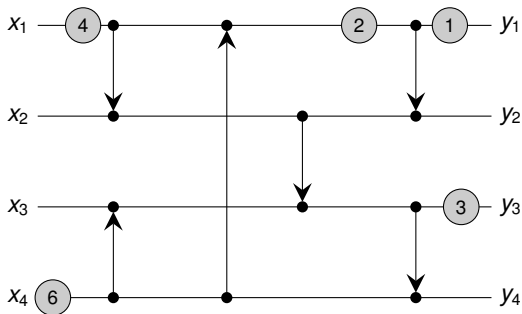
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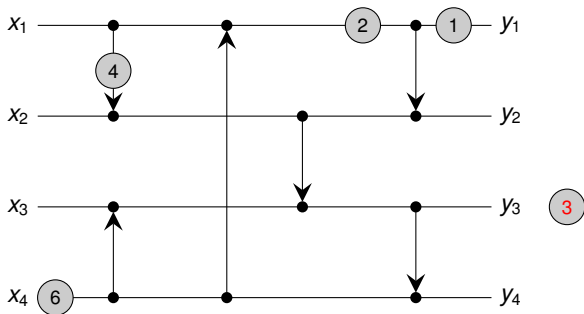
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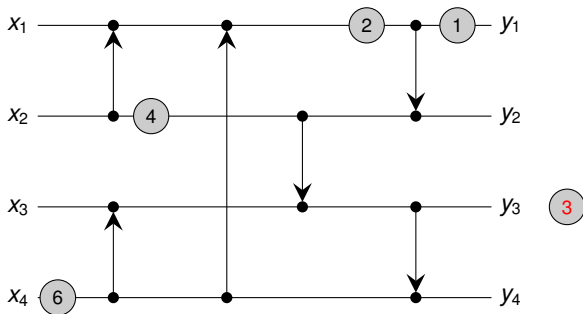
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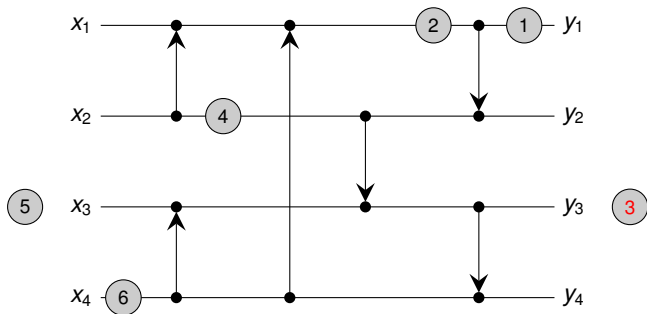
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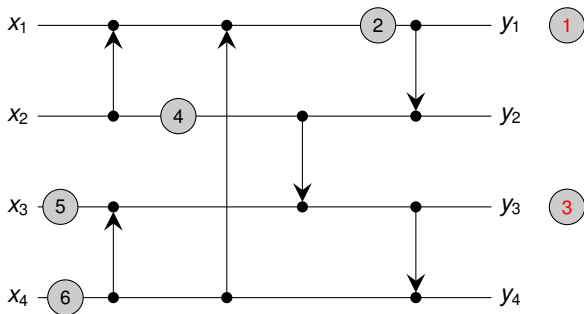


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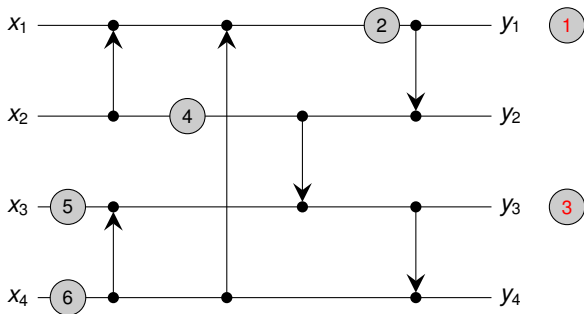


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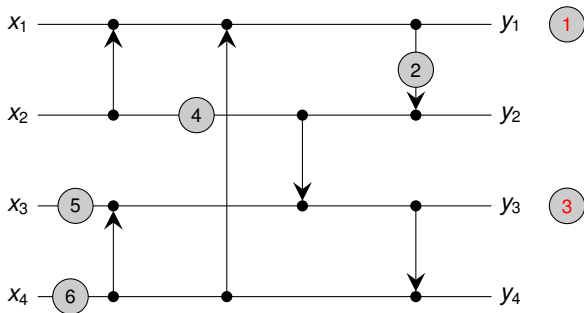




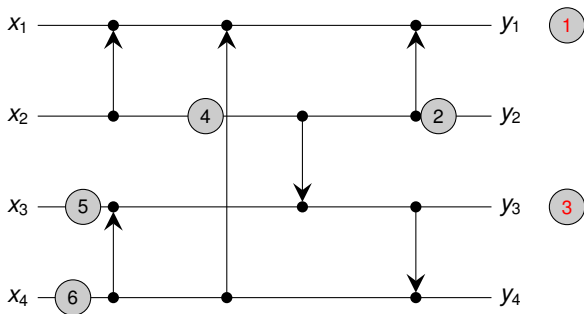
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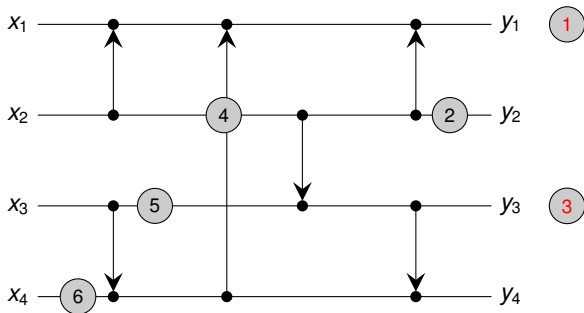


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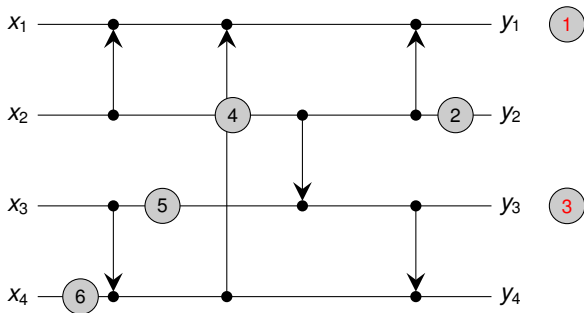




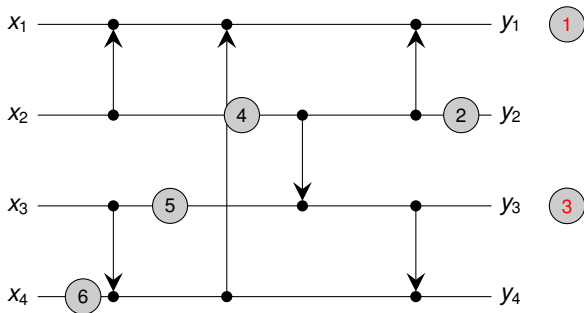
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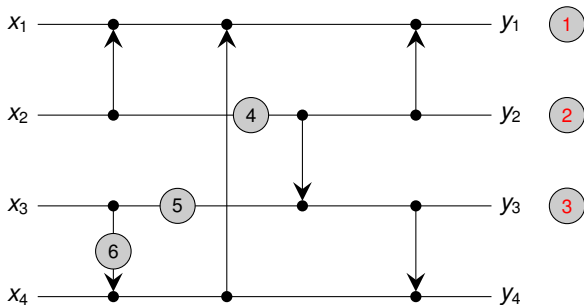
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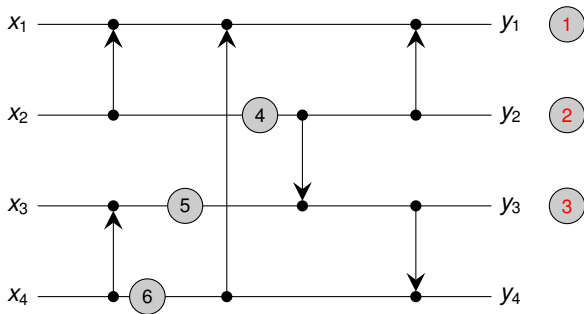


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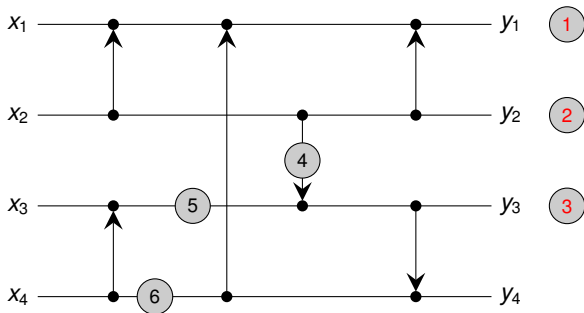




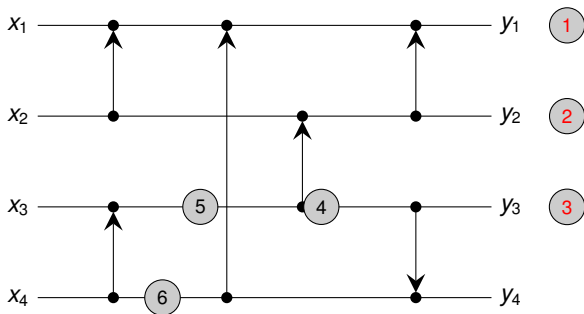
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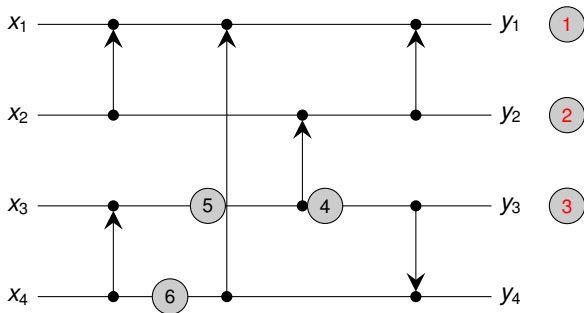
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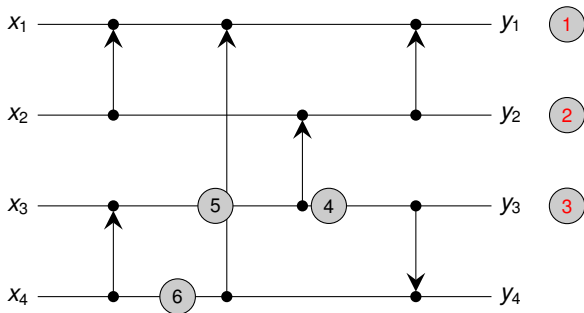
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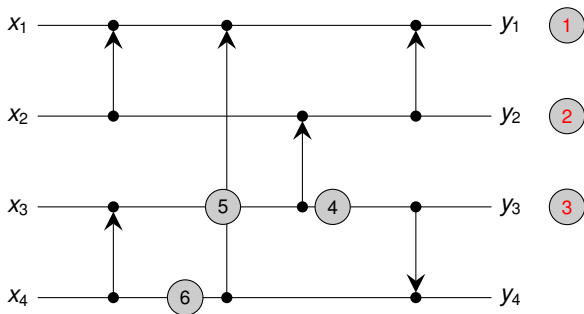
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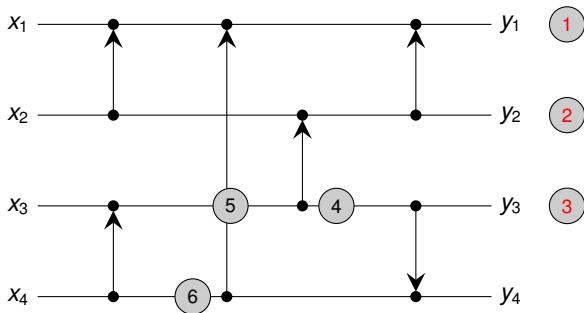
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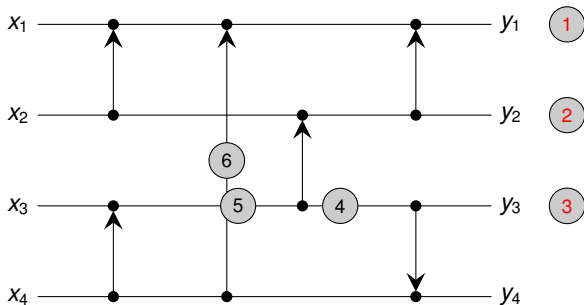
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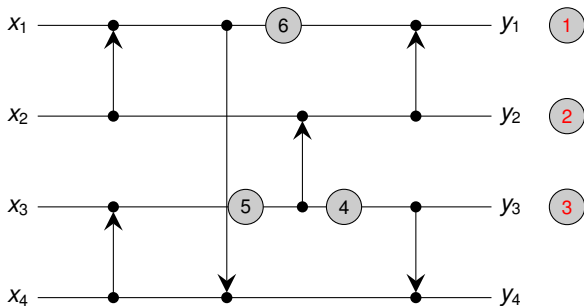


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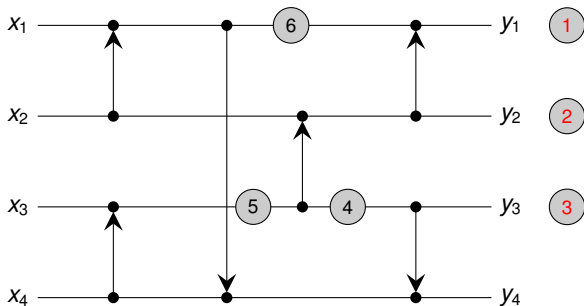




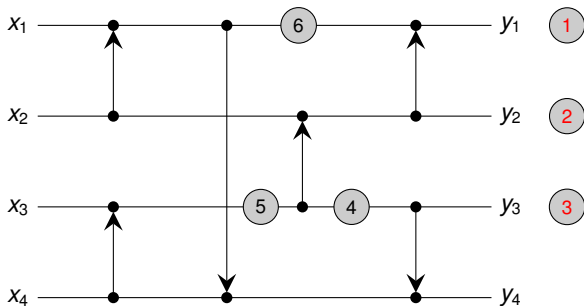
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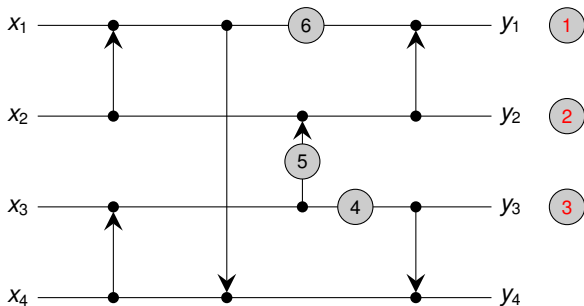
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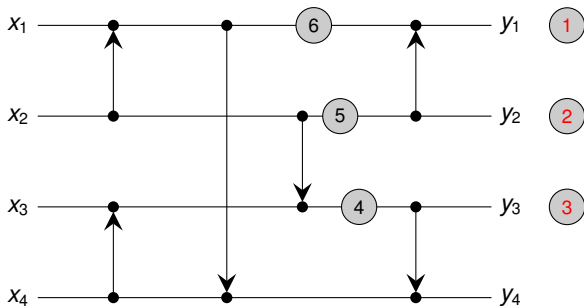
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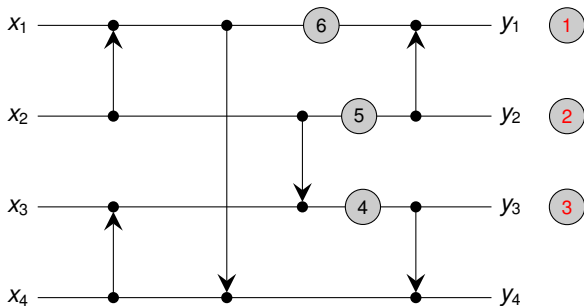
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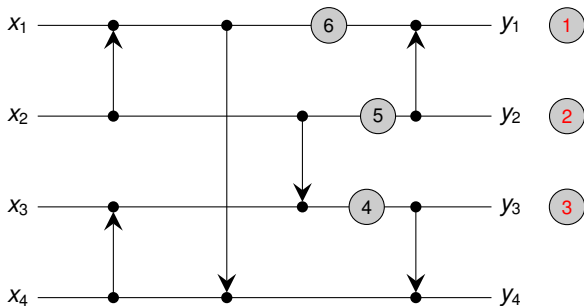
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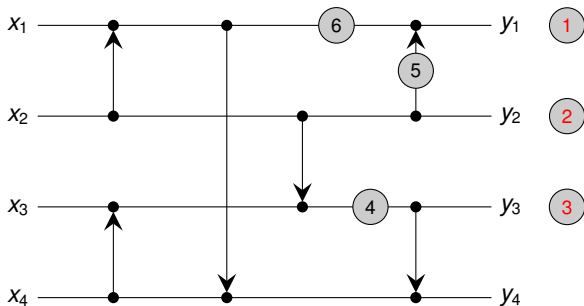
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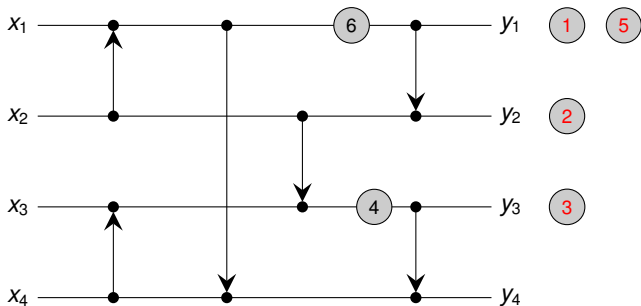
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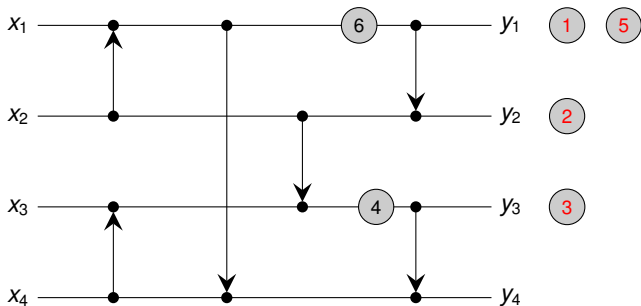




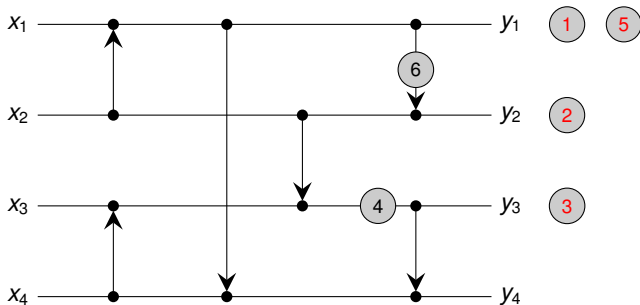
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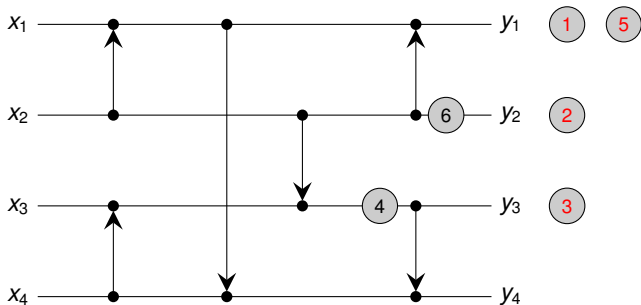
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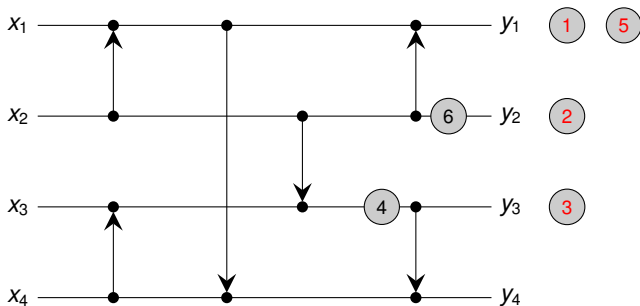
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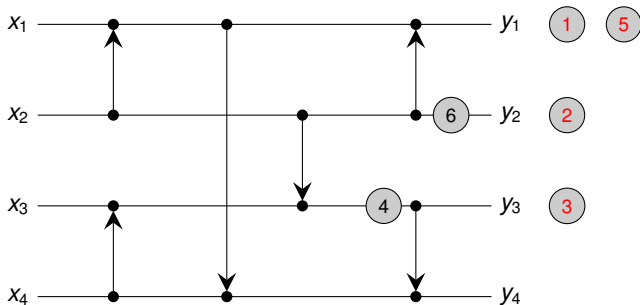
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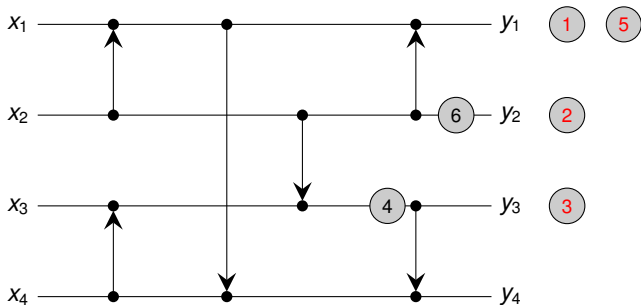
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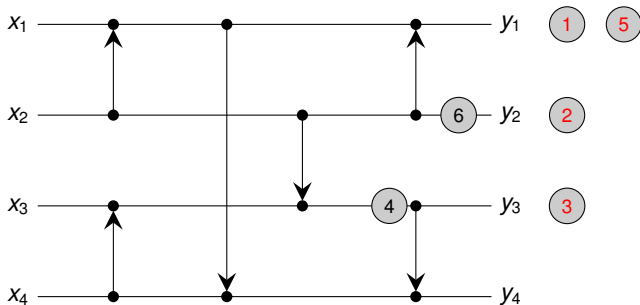




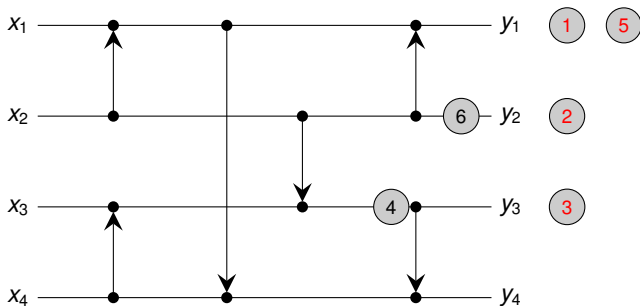
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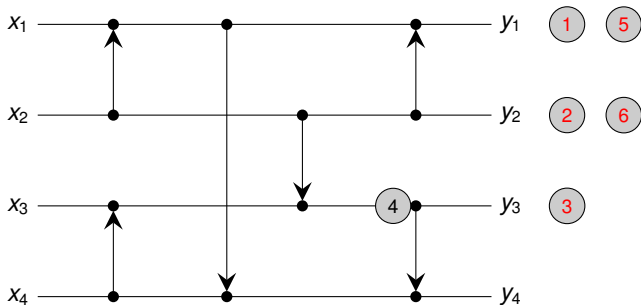
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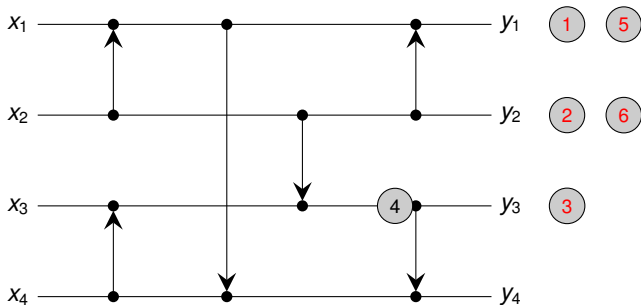
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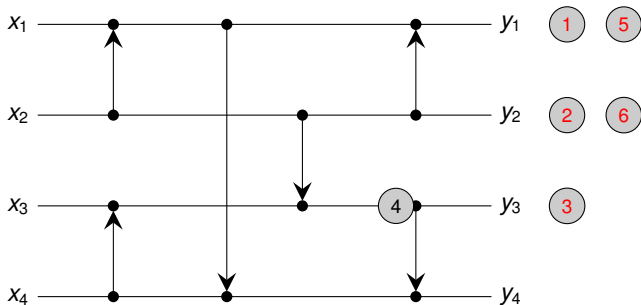
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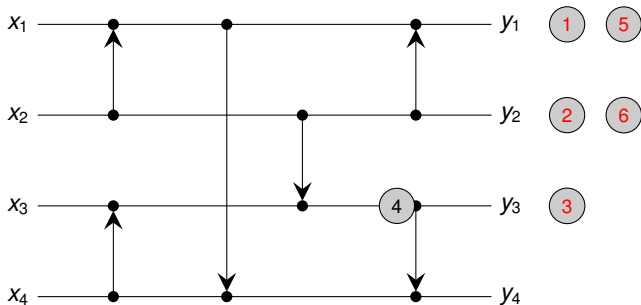
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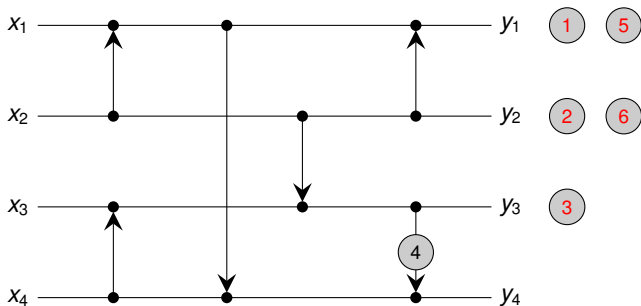
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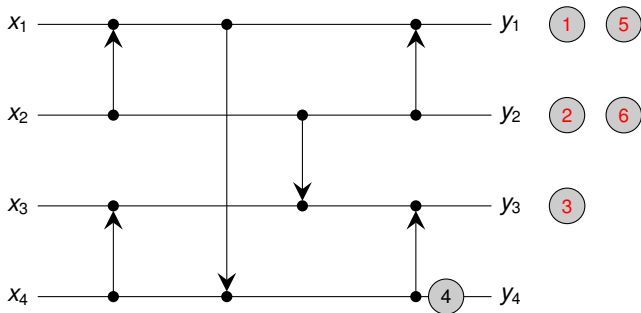


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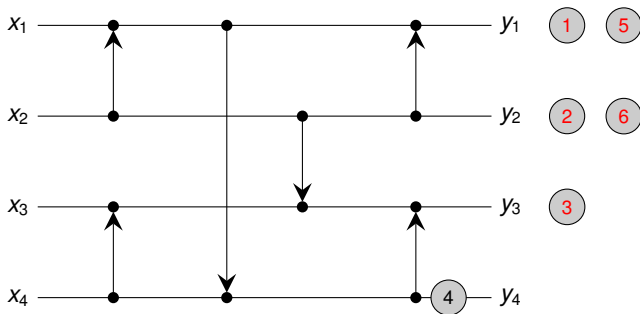




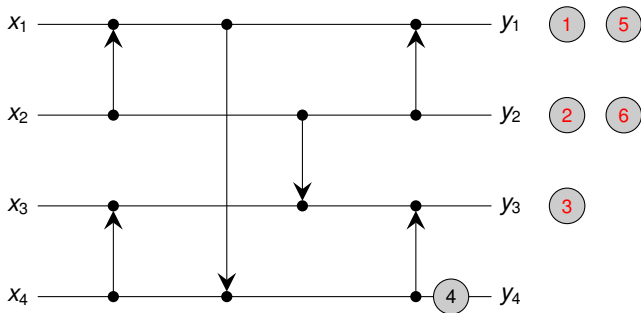
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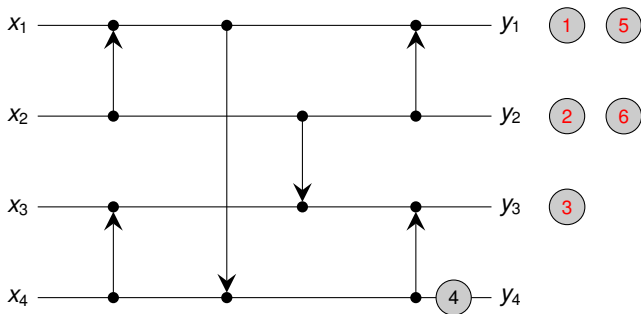
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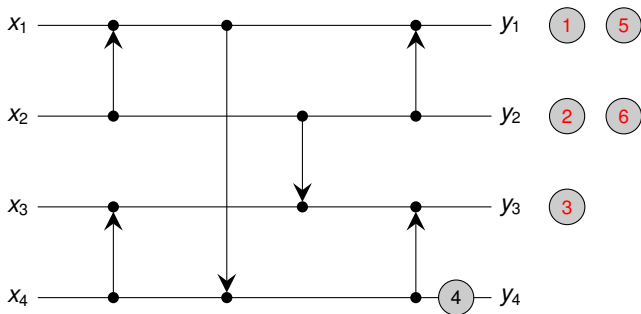
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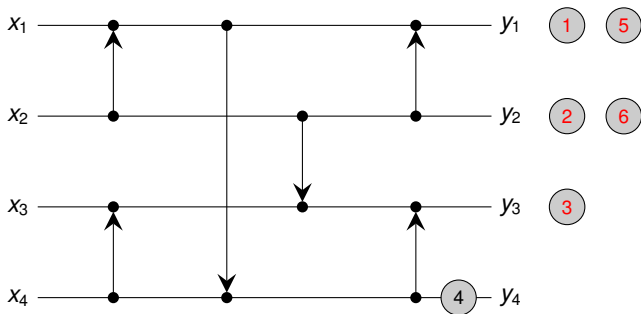
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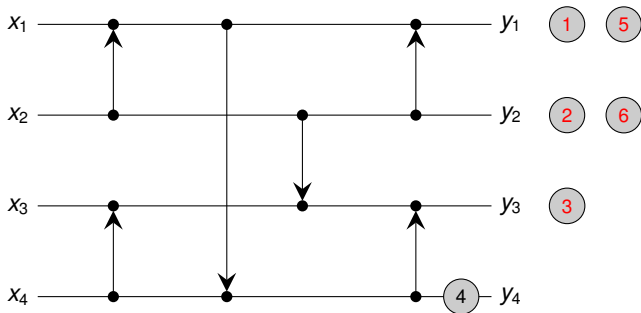
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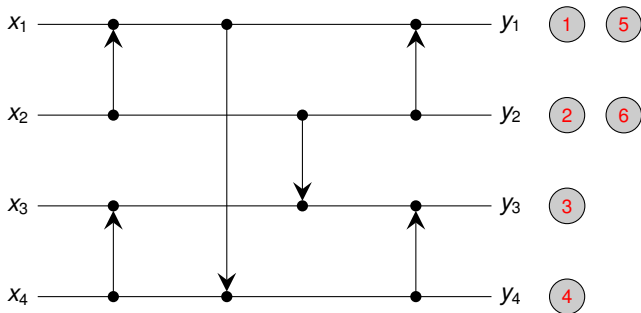
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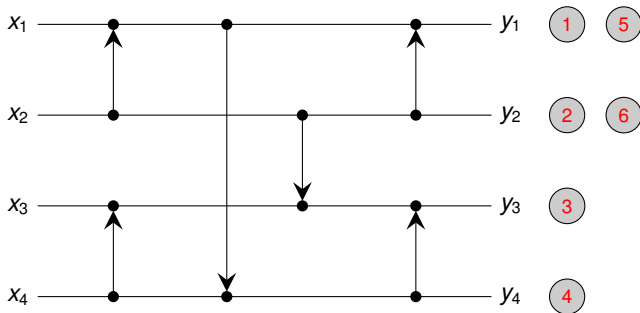


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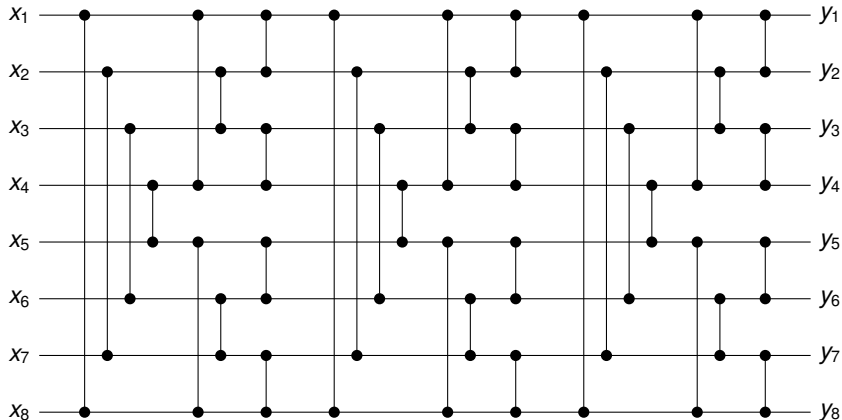
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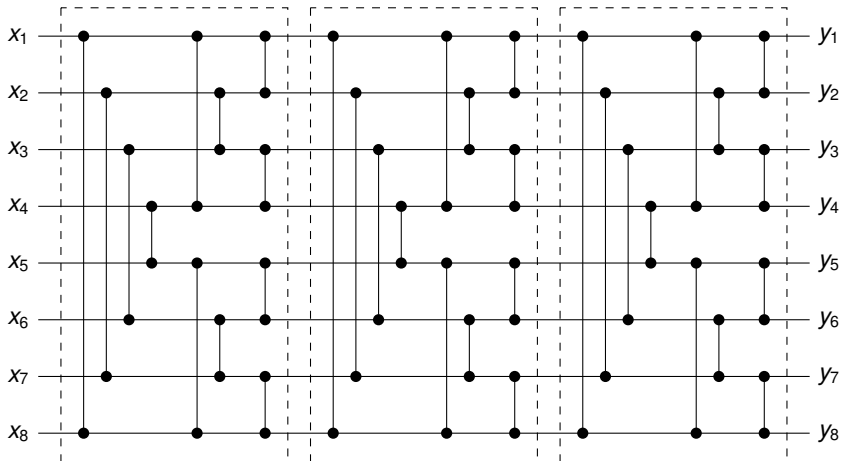
Counting can be done as follows:  
Add **local counter** to each output wire  $i$ , to assign consecutive numbers  $i, i + n, i + 2 \cdot n, \dots$



## A Periodic Counting Network [Aspnes, Herlihy, Shavit, JACM 1994]



## A Periodic Counting Network [Aspnes, Herlihy, Shavit, JACM 1994]



Consists of  $\log n$   $\text{BLOCK}[n]$  networks each of which has depth  $\log n$



## From Counting to Sorting

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### Counting vs. Sorting

If a network is a counting network, then it is also a sorting network.



## From Counting to Sorting

The converse is not true!

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Proof.



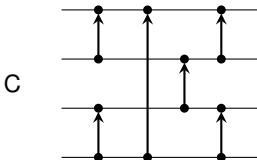
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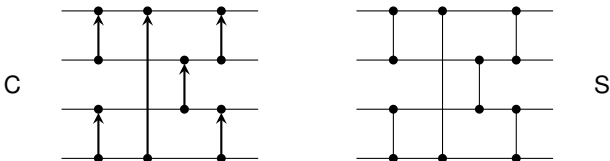
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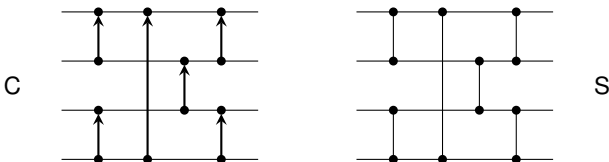
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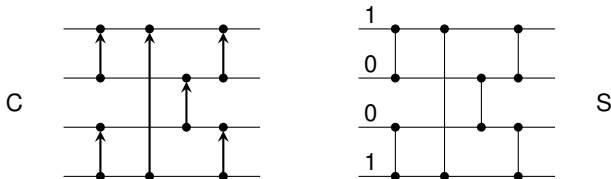
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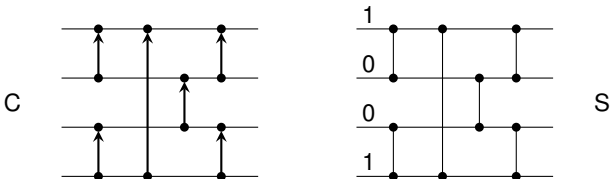
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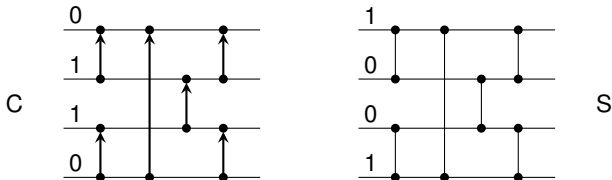
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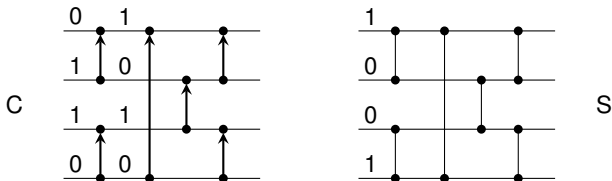
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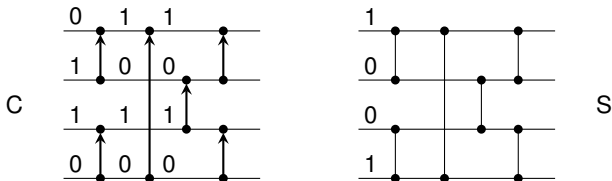
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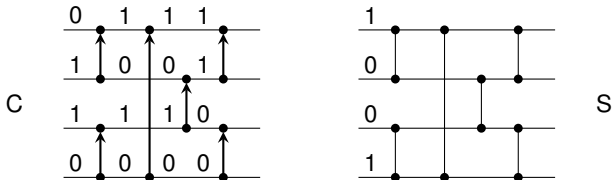
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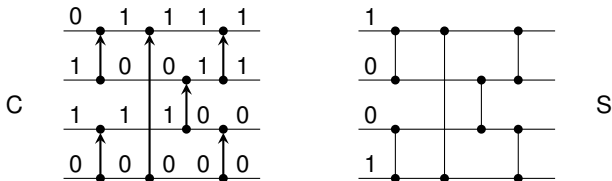
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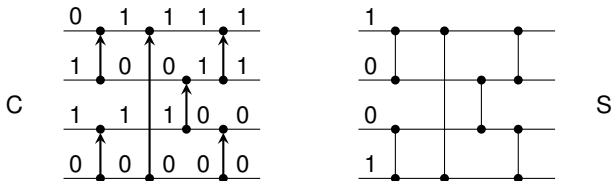
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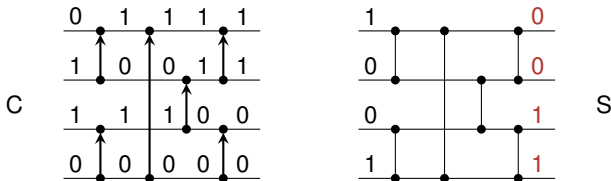
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### Counting vs. Sorting

If a network is a counting network, then it is also a sorting network.

Proof.

- Let  $C$  be a counting network, and  $S$  be the **corresponding** sorting network
- Consider an input sequence  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$  to  $S$
- Define an input  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$  to  $C$  by  $x_i = 1$  iff  $a_i = 0$ .
- $C$  is a counting network  $\Rightarrow$  all ones will be routed to the lower wires
- $S$  corresponds to  $C \Rightarrow$  all zeros will be routed to the lower wires
- By the **Zero-One Principle**,  $S$  is a sorting network. □

