Advanced Algorithms

I. Course Intro and Sorting Networks

Thomas Sauerwald

Easter 2020



Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

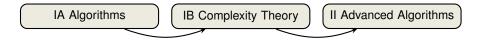
Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

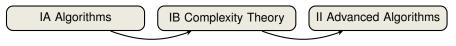
Bonus Material: Construction of an Optimal Sorting Network (non-examinable)

Counting Networks



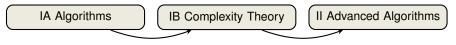




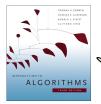


- I. Sorting Networks (Sorting, Counting)
- II. Linear Programming
- III. Approximation Algorithms: Covering Problems
- IV. Approximation Algorithms via Exact Algorithms
- V. Approximation Algorithms: Travelling Salesman Problem
- VI. Approximation Algorithms: Randomisation and Rounding



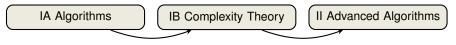


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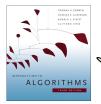


- closely follow CLRS3 and use the same numberring
 - however, slides will be self-contained





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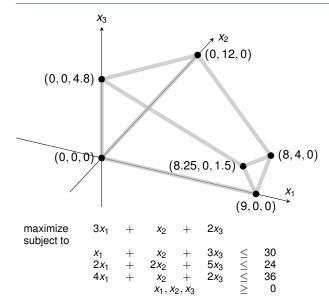
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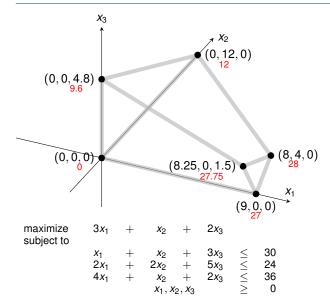


maximize subject to

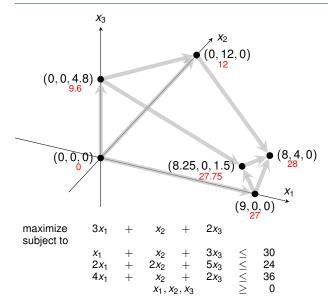




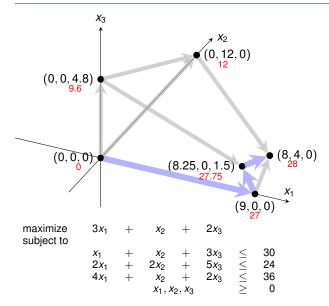














SOLUTION OF A LARGE-SCALE TRAVELING-SALESMAN PROBLEM*

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 I 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,^{3,7,8} 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_{II} used representing road distances as taken from an atlas



1. Manchester, N. H. 2. Montpelier, Vt. 3. Detroit, Mich. 4. Cleveland, Ohio 5. Charleston, W. Va. 6. Louisville, Ky. 7. Indianapolis, Ind. 8. Chicago, Ill. 9. Milwaukee, Wis. 10. Minneapolis, Minn. 11. Pierre, S. D. 12. Bismarck, N. D. 13. Helena, Mont. 14. Seattle, Wash. 15. Portland, Ore. 16. Boise, Idaho 17. Salt Lake City, Utah

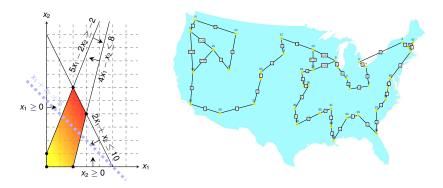
18. Carson City, Nev. 19. Los Angeles, Calif. 20. Phoenix, Ariz. 21. Santa Fe, N. M. 22. Denver, Colo. 23. Chevenne, Wyo. 24. Omaha, Neb. 25. Des Moines, Iowa 26. Kansas City, Mo. 27. Topeka, Kans. 28. Oklahoma City, Okla. 29. Dallas, Tex. 30. Little Rock, Ark. 31. Memphis, Tenn. 32. Jackson, Miss. 33. New Orleans, La.

34. Birmingham, Ala.
35. Atlanta, Ga.
36. Jacksonville, Fla.
37. Columbia, S. C.
38. Raleigh, N. C.
39. Richmond, Va.
40. Washington, D. C.
41. Boston, Mass.
42. Portland, Me.
A. Baltimore, Md.
B. Wilmington, Del.
C. Philadelphia, Penn.
D. Newark, N. J.
E. New York, N. Y.
F. Hartford, Conn.

G. Providence, R. I.



Computing the Optimal Tour



We are going to use our own implementation of the Simplex-Algorithm along with a visulation to solve a series of linear programs in order to solve the TSP instance optimally!





There are a couple of exercises spread across the recordings to test your understanding!



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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
- sequence of comparisons is not set in advance



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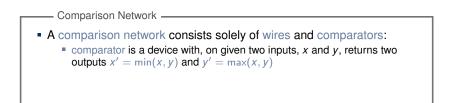
Simple concept, but surprisingly deep and complex theory!

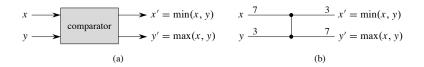


Comparison Network _____

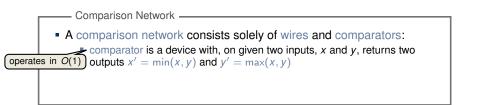
A comparison network consists solely of wires and comparators:

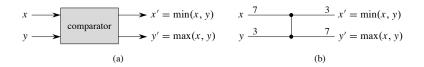




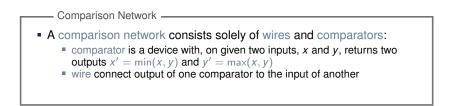


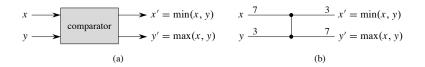




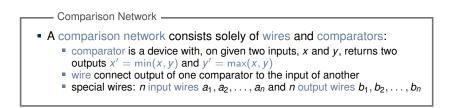


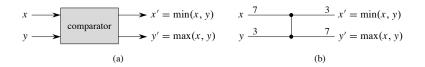




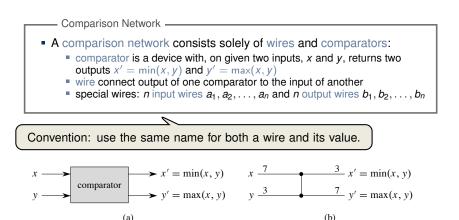






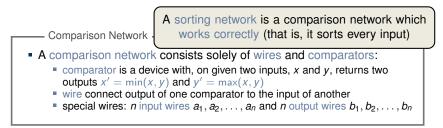


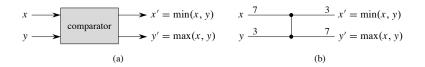




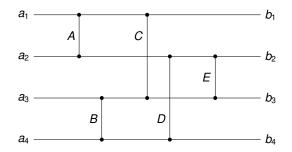


Comparison Networks

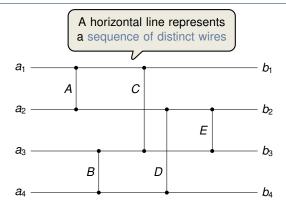




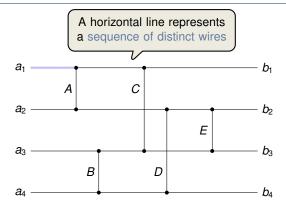




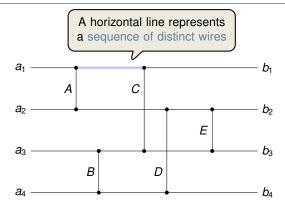




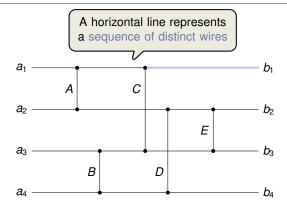




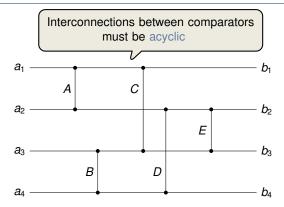




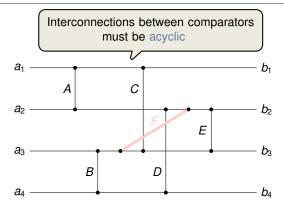




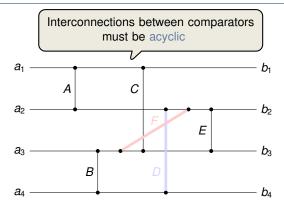




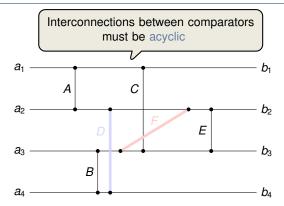




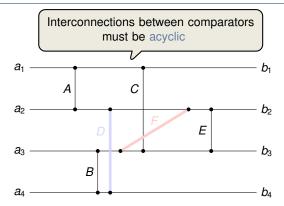




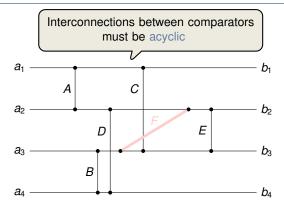




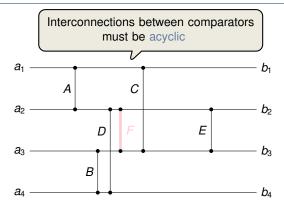




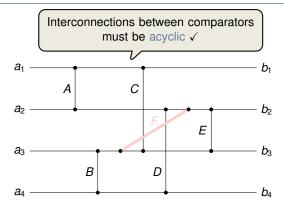




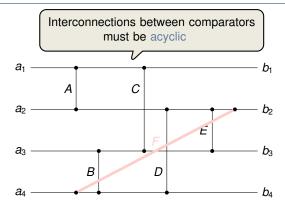




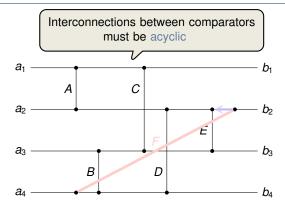




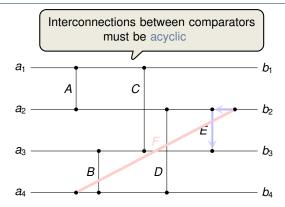




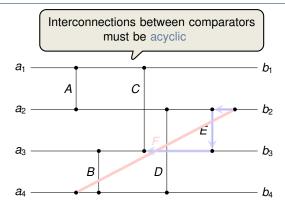




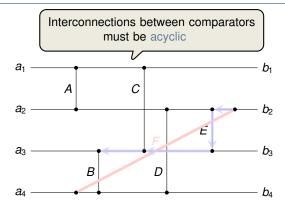




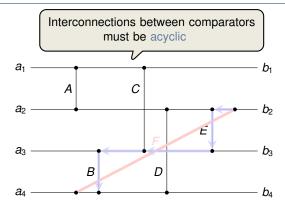




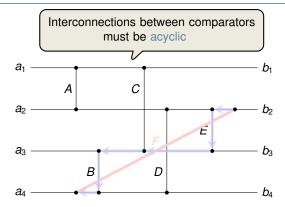




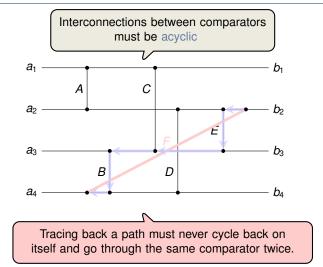




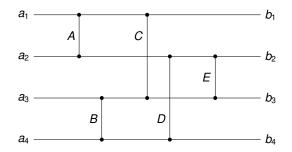




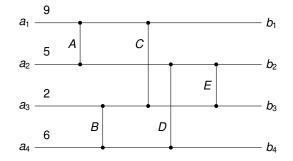




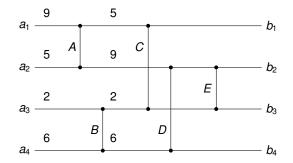




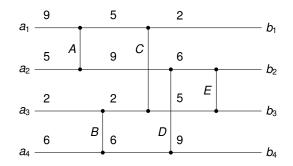




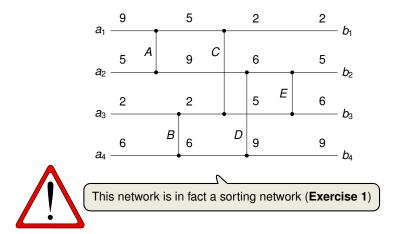




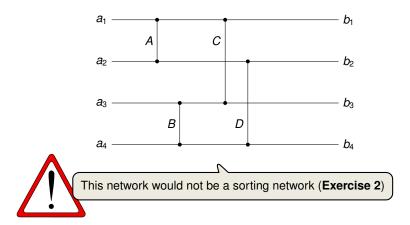




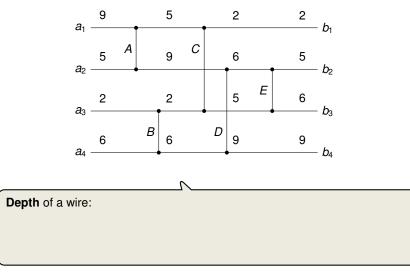




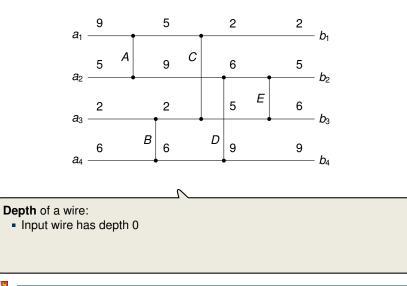




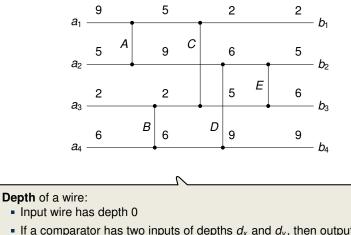






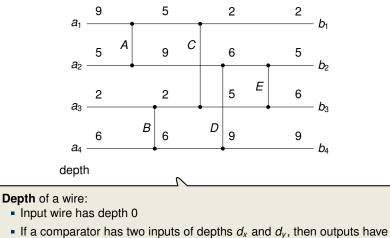


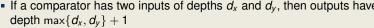




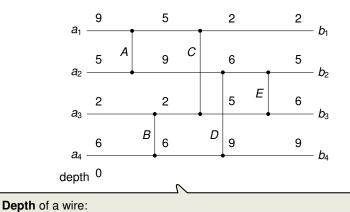
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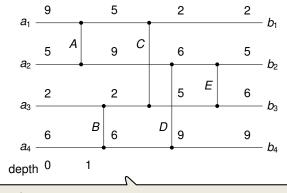






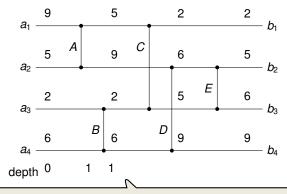
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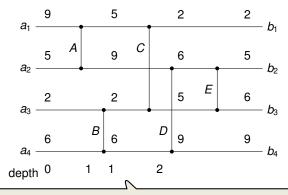
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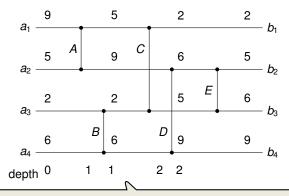
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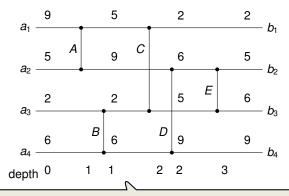
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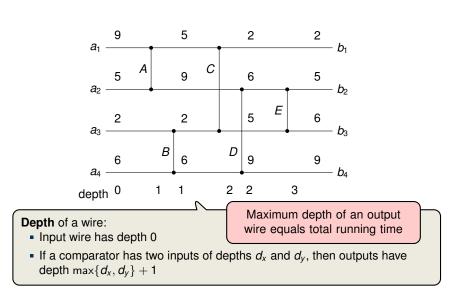
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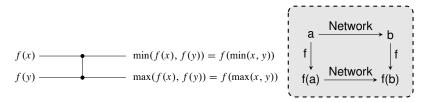
If a comparison network transforms the input $a = \langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle$ into the output $b = \langle b_1, b_2, ..., b_n \rangle$, then for any monotonically increasing function *f*, the network transforms $f(a) = \langle f(a_1), f(a_2), ..., f(a_n) \rangle$ into $f(b) = \langle f(b_1),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

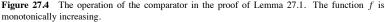


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Theorem 27.2 (Zero-One Principle)

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.



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- For the sake of contradiction, suppose the network does not correctly sort.
- Let *a* = ⟨*a*₁, *a*₂, ..., *a*_n⟩ be the input with *a*_i < *a*_j, but the network places *a*_j before *a*_i in the output



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Since the network places a_i before a_i, by the previous lemma



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- Define a monotonically increasing function *f* as:

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

Since the network places a_i before a_i, by the previous lemma ⇒ f(a_i) is placed before f(a_i)



Theorem 27.2 (Zero-One Principle) -

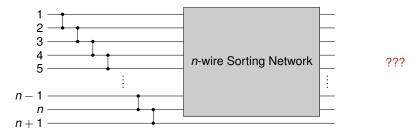
If a comparison network with n inputs sorts all 2^n possible sequences of 0's and 1's correctly, then it sorts all sequences of arbitrary numbers correctly.

- For the sake of contradiction, suppose the network does not correctly sort.
- Let *a* = ⟨*a*₁, *a*₂, ..., *a*_n⟩ be the input with *a*_i < *a*_j, but the network places *a*_j before *a*_i in the output
- Define a monotonically increasing function *f* as:

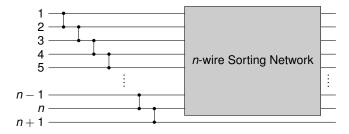
$$f(x) = egin{cases} 0 & ext{if } x \leq a_i, \ 1 & ext{if } x > a_i. \end{cases}$$

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

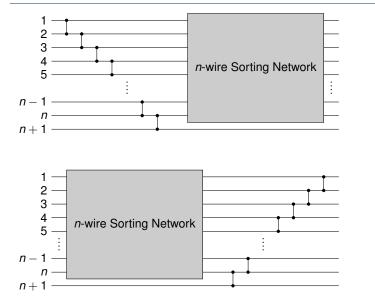




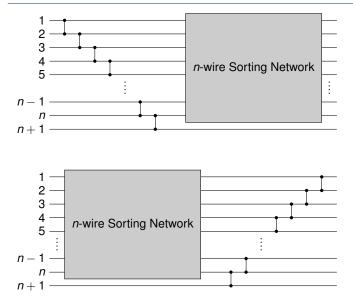




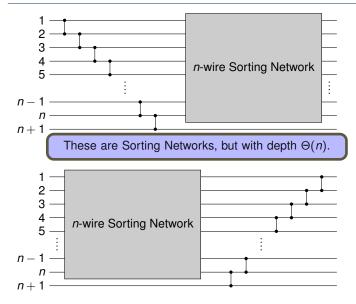




???









Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Bonus Material: Construction of an Optimal Sorting Network (non-examinable)

Counting Networks



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.



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.



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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.

Examples:

• (1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2) ?



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.

Examples:

• $\langle 1,4,6,8,3,2 \rangle$ \checkmark



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.

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



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.

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



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.

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



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.

- $\langle 1,4,6,8,3,2 \rangle$ \checkmark
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- $\langle 1,4,6,8,3,2 \rangle$ \checkmark
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- $\ \ \langle 4,5,7,1,2,6\rangle$?



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- $\langle 1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2 \rangle$ \checkmark
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- $\langle 1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2 \rangle$ \checkmark
- $\langle 6,9,4,2,3,5 \rangle$ \checkmark
- (9,8,3,2,4,6) ✓
- 4,5,7,1,2,6
- binary sequences: ?



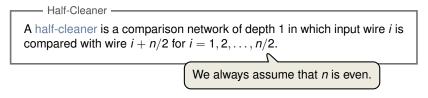
A sequence is bitonic if it monotonically increases and then monotonically decreases, or can be circularly shifted to become monotonically increasing and then monotonically decreasing.

- $\langle 1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2 \rangle$ \checkmark
- $\langle 6,9,4,2,3,5 \rangle$ \checkmark
- $\langle 9, 8, 3, 2, 4, 6 \rangle$ \checkmark
- 4,5,7,1,2,6
- binary sequences: $0^{i}1^{j}0^{k}$, or, $1^{i}0^{j}1^{k}$, for $i, j, k \ge 0$.



- Half-Cleaner -





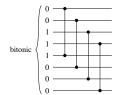


- Half-Cleaner -



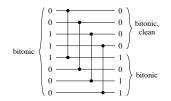


- Half-Cleaner



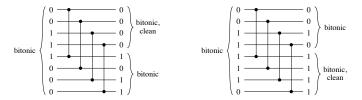


- Half-Cleaner





Half-Cleaner





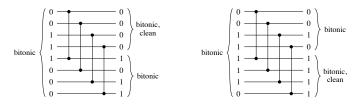
- Half-Cleaner

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, ..., 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.





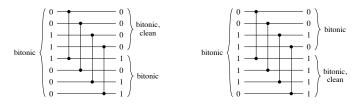
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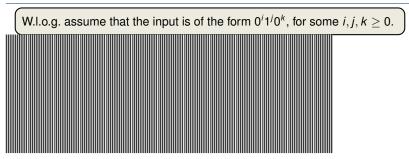


Proof of Lemma 27.3

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

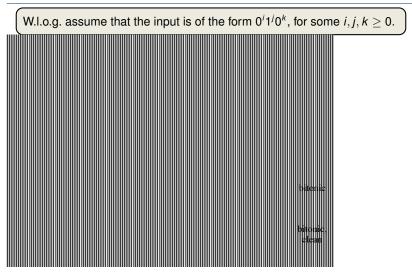


Proof of Lemma 27.3



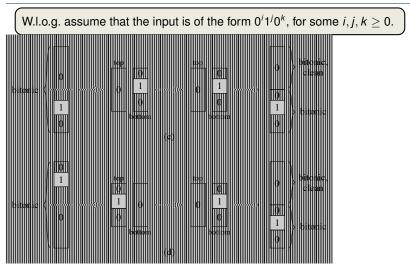


Proof of Lemma 27.3



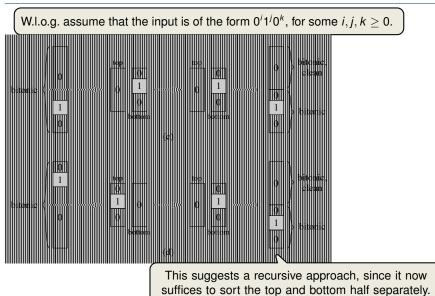


Proof of Lemma 27.3





Proof of Lemma 27.3





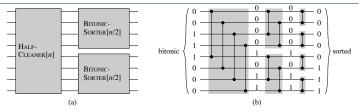


Figure 27.9 The comparison network BITONIC-SORTER[n], shown here for n = 8. (a) The recursive construction: HALF-CLEANER[n] followed by two copies of BITONIC-SORTER[n/2] that operate in parallel. (b) The network after unrolling the recursion. Each half-cleaner is shaded. Sample zero-one values are shown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



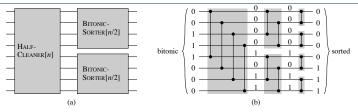


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Recursive Formula for depth D(n):

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



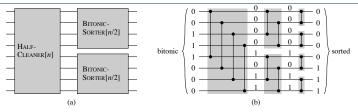


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Henceforth we will always assume that n is a power of 2.

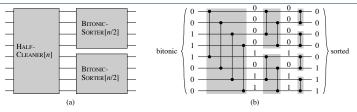


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Recursive Formula for depth D(n):

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



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

- 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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Basic Idea:

• consider two given sequences X = 00000111, Y = 00001111



- can merge two sorted input sequences into one sorted output sequence
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Basic Idea:

- consider two given sequences X = 00000111, Y = 00001111
- concatenating X with Y^R (the reversal of Y) \Rightarrow 0000011111110000



Merging Networks -

- can merge two sorted input sequences into one sorted output sequence
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Basic Idea:

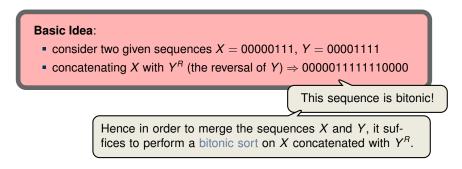
- consider two given sequences X = 00000111, Y = 00001111
- concatenating X with Y^R (the reversal of Y) \Rightarrow 0000011111110000

This sequence is bitonic!



Merging Networks

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





- 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 $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_{n/2+1} \rangle$
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[n] compares i and n/2 + i



- 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 (a₁, a₂,..., a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1},..., a_{n/2+1})
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[n] compares i and n/2 + i
- \Rightarrow First part of MERGER[*n*] compares inputs *i* and *n i* + 1 for

i = 1, 2, . . . , *n*/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 (a₁, a₂,..., a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1},..., a_{n/2+1})
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[n] compares i and n/2 + i
- ⇒ First part of MERGER[n] compares inputs i and n i + 1 for i = 1, 2, ..., n/2

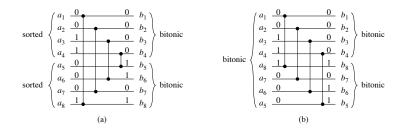


Figure 27.10 Comparing the first stage of MERGER[*n*] with HALF-CLEANER[*n*], for n = 8. (a) The first stage of MERGER[*n*] transforms the two monotonic input sequences $\langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_{n/2} \rangle$ and $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, ..., a_n \rangle$ into two bitonic sequences $\langle b_1,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



- 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 (a₁, a₂,..., a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1},..., a_{n/2+1})
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[n] compares i and n/2 + i
- ⇒ First part of MERGER[n] compares inputs i and n i + 1 for i = 1, 2, ..., n/2

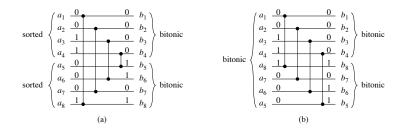


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- Given two sorted sequences $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2} \rangle$ and $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, \dots, a_n \rangle$
- We know it suffices to bitonically sort (a₁, a₂,..., a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1},..., a_{n/2+1})
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[n] compares i and n/2 + i
- ⇒ First part of MERGER[*n*] compares inputs *i* and n i + 1 for i = 1, 2, ..., n/2
 - Remaining part is identical to BITONIC-SORTER[n]

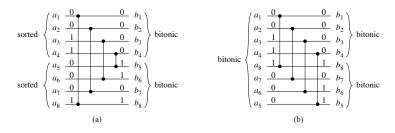


Figure 27.10 Comparing the first stage of MERGER[*n*] with HALF-CLEANER[*n*], for n = 8. (a) The first stage of MERGER[*n*] transforms the two monotonic input sequences $\langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_{n/2} \rangle$ and $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, ..., a_n \rangle$ into two bitonic sequences $\langle b_1,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



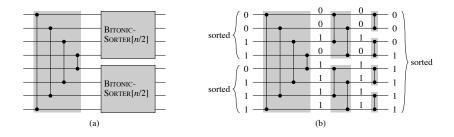
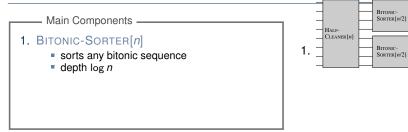
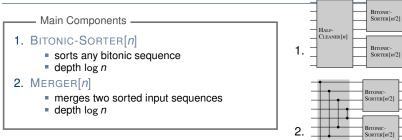


Figure 27.11 A network that merges two sorted input sequences into one sorted output sequence. The network MERGER[n] can be viewed as BITONIC-SORTER[n] with the first half-cleaner altered to compare inputs *i* and n - i + 1 for i = 1, 2, ..., n/2. Here, n = 8. (a) The network decomposed into the first 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.

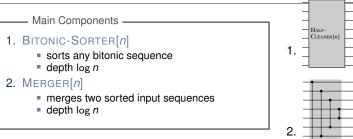






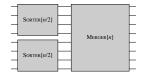






Batcher's Sorting Network -

- 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.



BITONIC-SORTER[n/2]

BITONIC-

BITONIC-

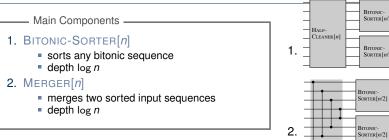
BITONIC-

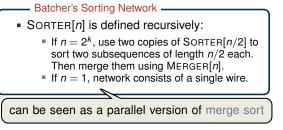
SORTER[n/2]

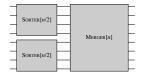
SORTER[n/2]

SORTER[n/2]







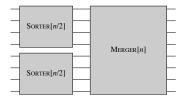


BITONIC-SORTER[n/2]

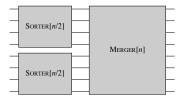
BITONIC-

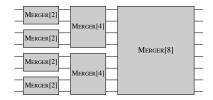
SORTER[n/2]



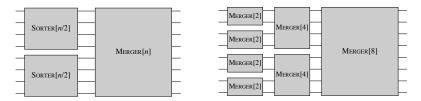


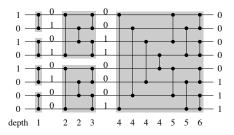




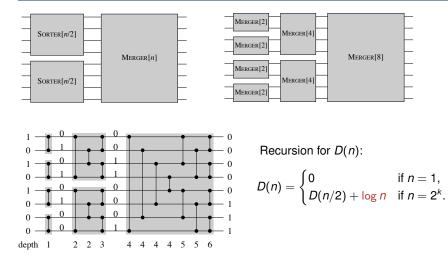




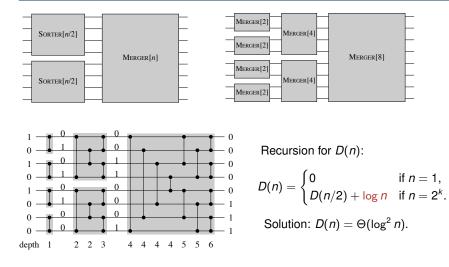




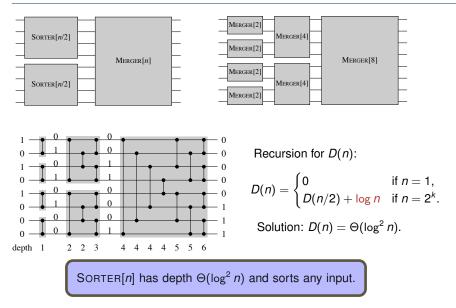














Outline

Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

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Batcher's Sorting Network

Bonus Material: Construction of an Optimal Sorting Network (non-examinable)

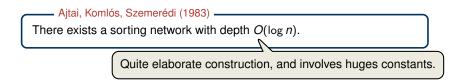
Counting Networks



- Ajtai, Komlós, Szemerédi (1983) -

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







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 $b_1, \ldots, b_{n/2}$ and the n/2 larger keys in $b_{n/2+1}, \ldots, b_n$.



Ajtai, Komlós, Szemerédi (1983)

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

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



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 $b_1, \ldots, b_{n/2}$ and the n/2 larger keys in $b_{n/2+1}, \ldots, b_n$.

Approximate Halver

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



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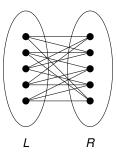
We will prove that such networks can be constructed in constant depth!



- Expander Graphs -

A bipartite (n, d, μ) -expander is a graph with:

- G has n vertices (n/2 on each side)
- the edge-set is union of d perfect matchings
- For every subset $S \subseteq V$ being in one part,

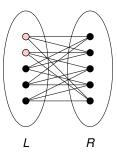




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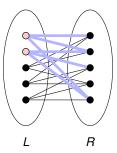




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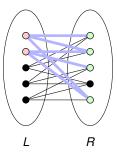




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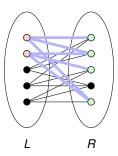
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 $|N(S)| > \min\{\mu \cdot |S|, n/2 - |S|\}$

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



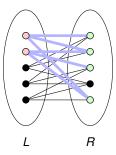


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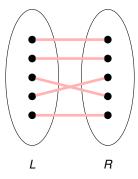
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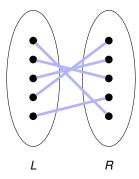
Expander Graphs:

- 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

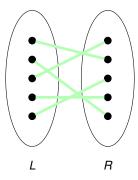




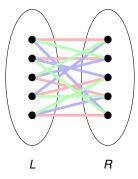




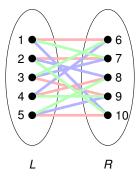




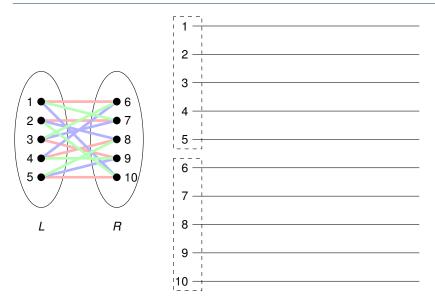




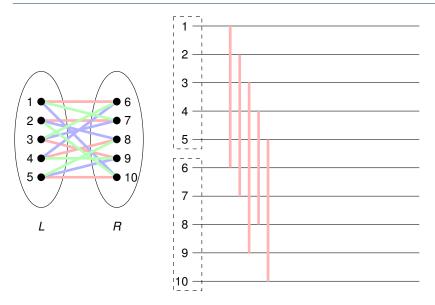




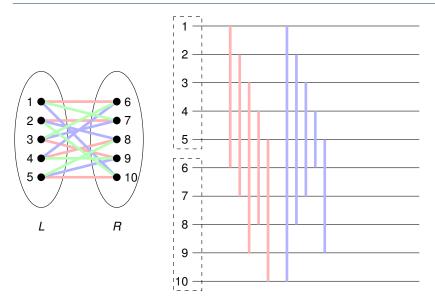




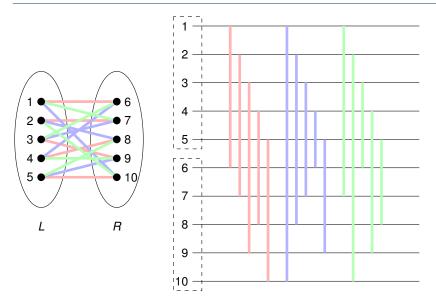




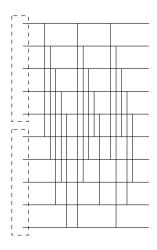








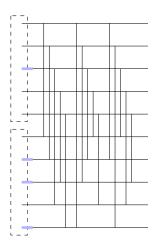






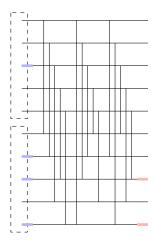
Proof:

X := keys with the k smallest inputs



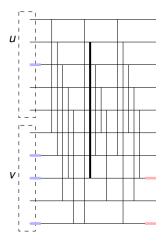


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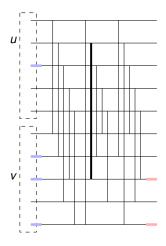


- X := keys with the k smallest inputs
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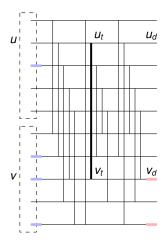


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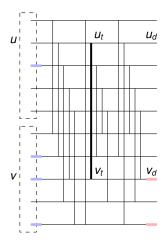


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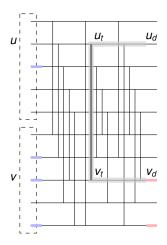


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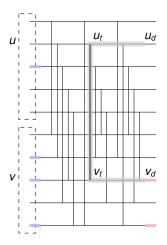




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- Since u was arbitrary:

 $|Y|+|N(Y)|\leq k.$



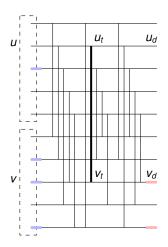


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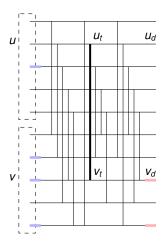
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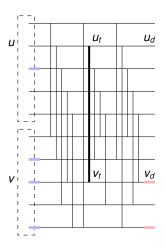
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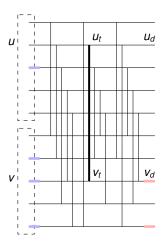
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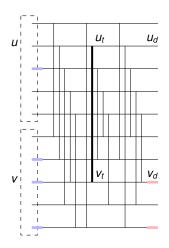
 $|Y| + |N(Y)| \le k.$

• Since G is a bipartite (n, d, μ) -expander:

$$\begin{aligned} |Y| + |N(Y)| &> |Y| + \min\{\mu|Y|, n/2 - |Y|\} \\ &= \min\{(1 + \mu)|Y|, n/2\}. \end{aligned}$$

Combining the two bounds above yields:

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





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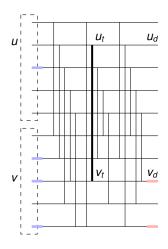
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Here we used that $k \le n/2$





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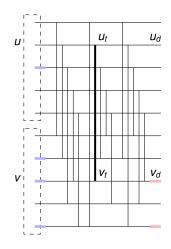
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• Same argument \Rightarrow at most $\epsilon \cdot k$, $\epsilon := 1/(\mu + 1)$, of the *k* largest input keys are placed in $b_1, \ldots, b_{n/2}$.



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



AKS network vs. Batcher's network



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."





Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Bonus Material: Construction of an Optimal Sorting Network (non-examinable)

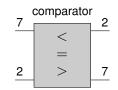
Counting Networks



Siblings of Sorting Network

Sorting Networks -

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

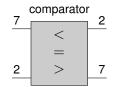




Siblings of Sorting Network

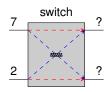
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Switching (Shuffling) Networks -

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



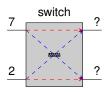


Siblings of Sorting Network



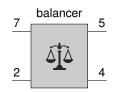
Switching (Shuffling) Networks ______

- creates a random permutation of n items
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Counting Networks _____

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





Distributed Counting —

Processors collectively assign successive values from a given range.



Distributed Counting

Processors collectively assign successive values from a given range.

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



Distributed	Counting
-------------	----------

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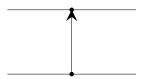
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- balancers are asynchronous flip-flops that forward tokens from its inputs to one of its two outputs alternately (top, bottom, top,...)



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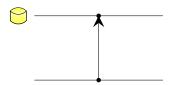




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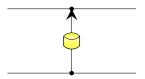




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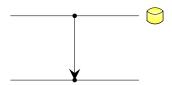




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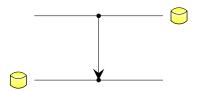




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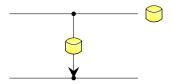




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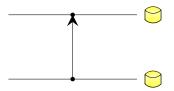




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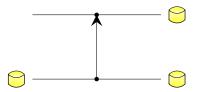




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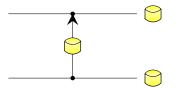




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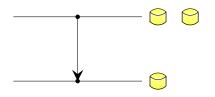




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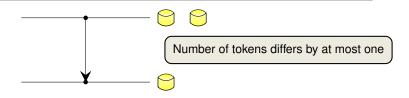




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Counting Network (Formal Definition) -----

- 1. Let *x*₁, *x*₂,..., *x_n* be the number of tokens (ever received) on the designated input wires
- 2. Let *y*₁, *y*₂,..., *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:

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



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



Let
$$x_1, ..., x_n$$
 and $y_1, ..., y_n$ have the step property. Then:
1. We have $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right]$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \left\lfloor\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right\rfloor$
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3. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i + 1$, then $\exists! j = 1, 2, ..., n$ with $x_j = y_j + 1$ and $x_i = y_i$ for $j \neq i$.



- Facte

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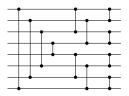
Key Lemma

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

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



Let
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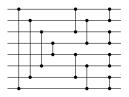


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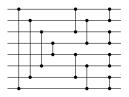
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Case n = 2 is clear, since MERGER[2] is a single balancer



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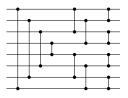


Proof (by induction on *n* being a power of 2)

- Case n = 2 is clear, since MERGER[2] is a single balancer
- *n* > 2:



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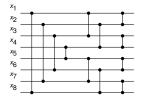
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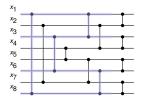
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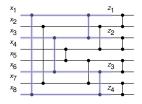


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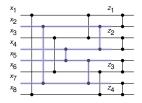


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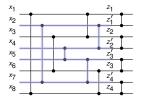
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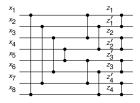


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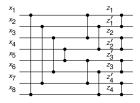
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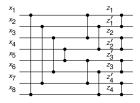
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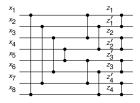
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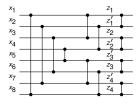


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- Case 1: If Z = Z', then F2 implies the output of MERGER[n] is $y_i = z_{1+\lfloor (i-1)/2 \rfloor} \checkmark$



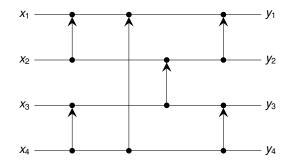
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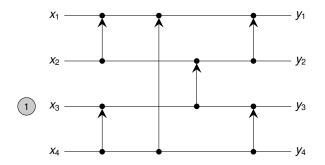
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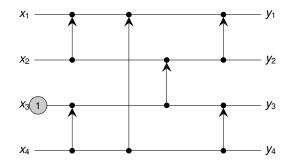




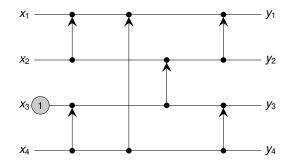




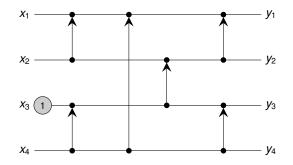




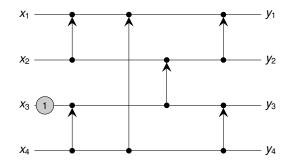




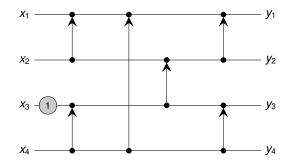




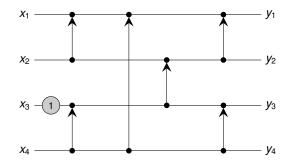




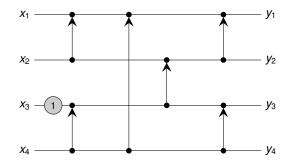




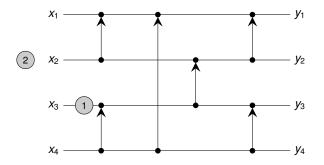




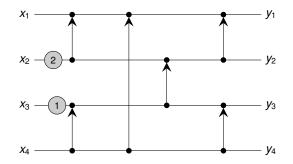




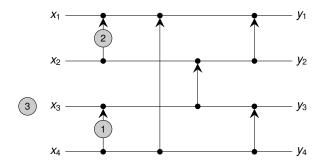




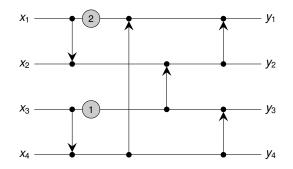




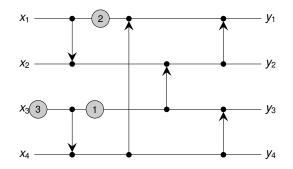




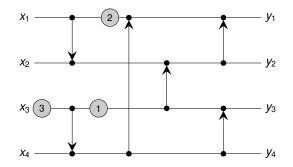




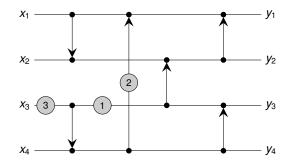




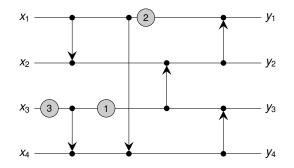




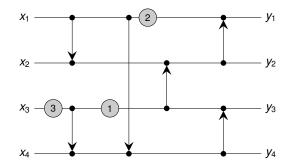




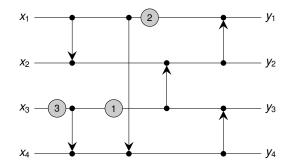




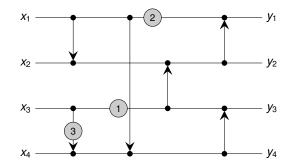




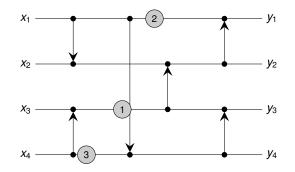




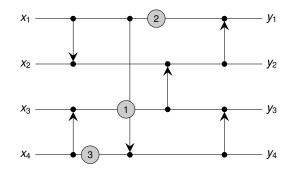




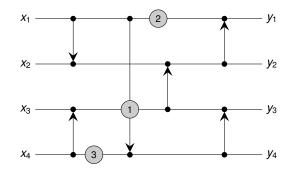




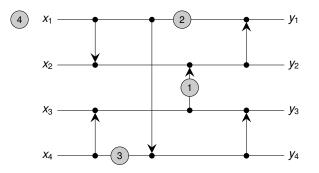




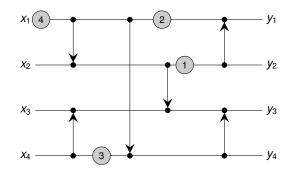




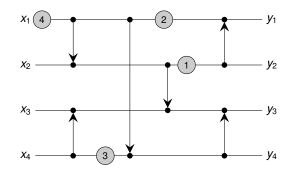




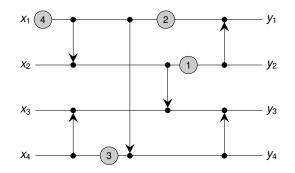




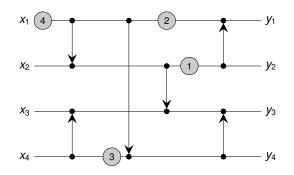




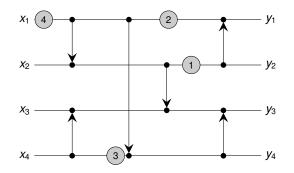




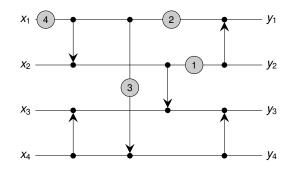




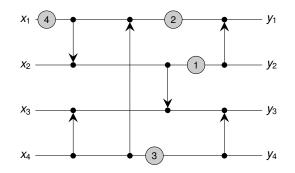




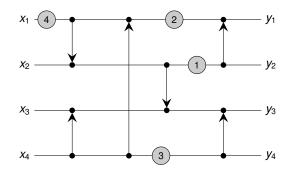




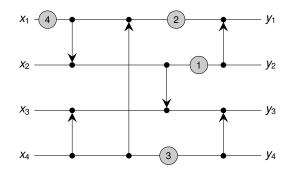




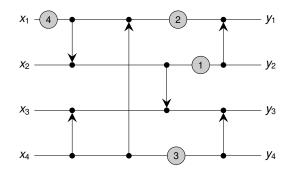




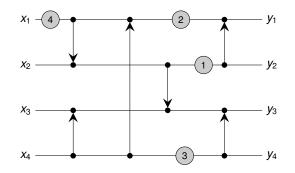




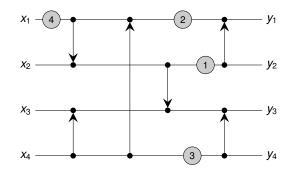




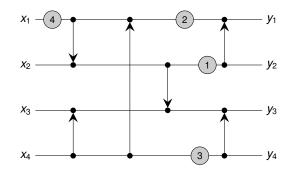




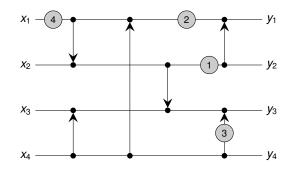




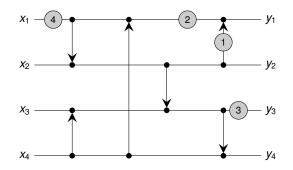




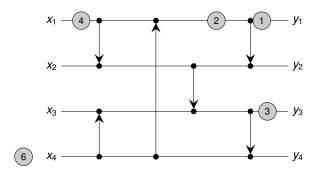




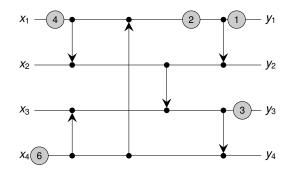




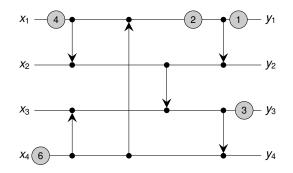




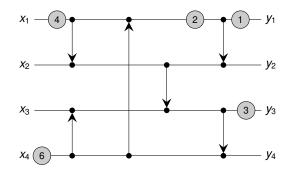




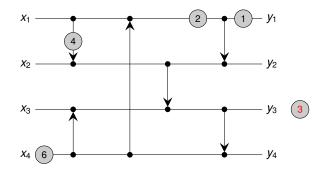




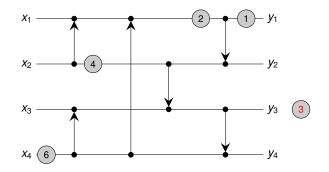




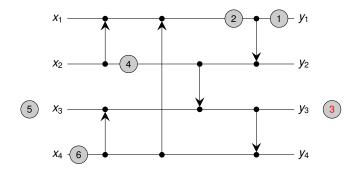




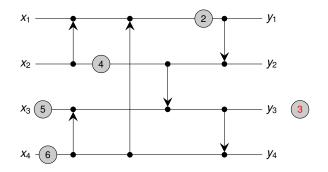




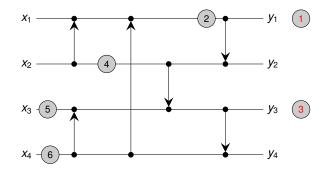




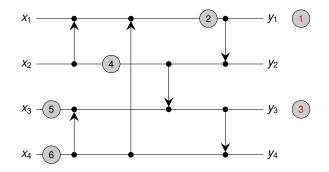




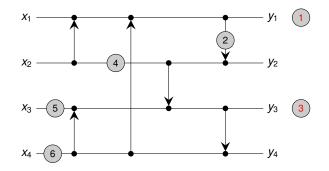




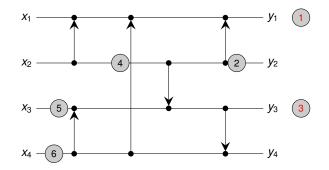




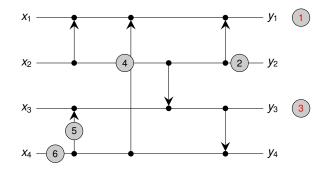




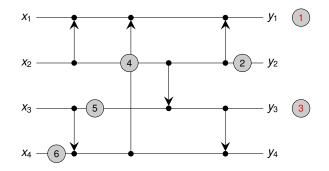




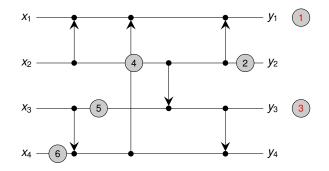




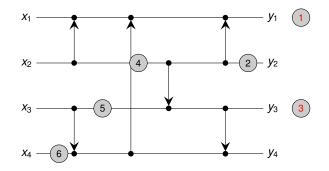




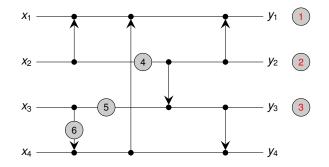




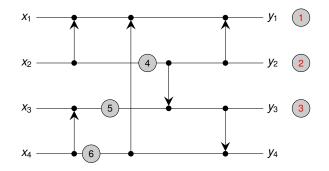




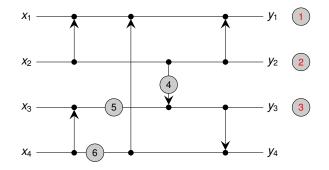




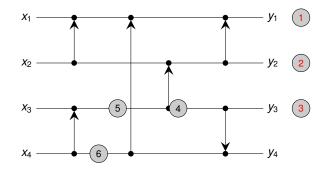




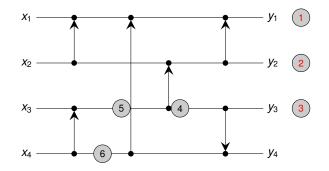




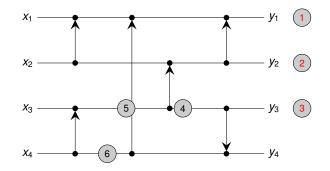




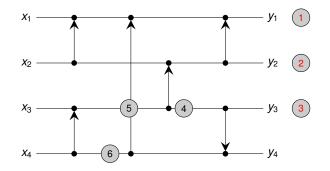




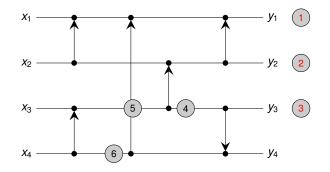




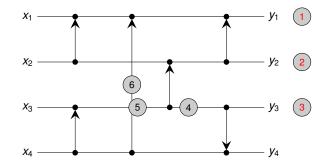




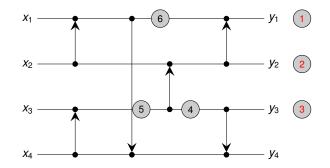




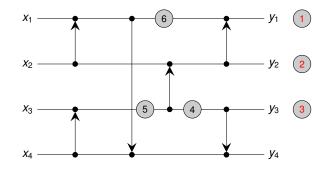




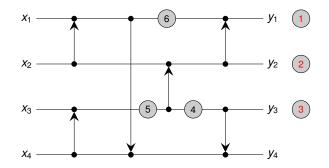




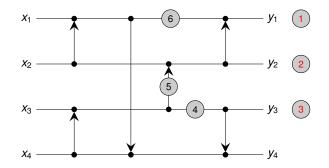




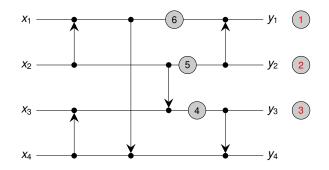




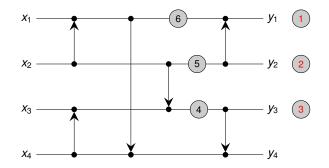




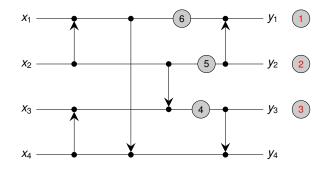




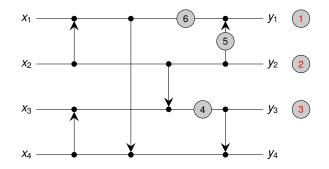




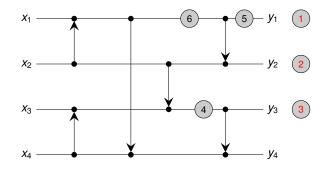




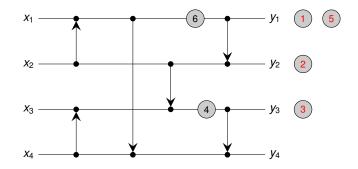




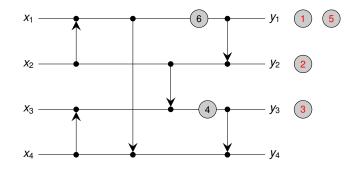




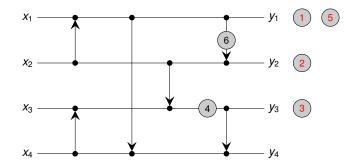




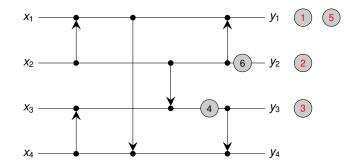




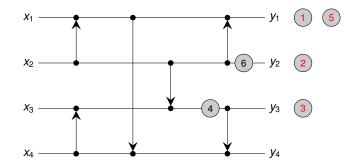




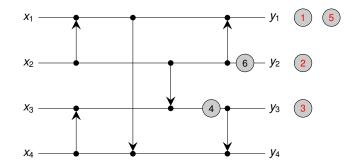




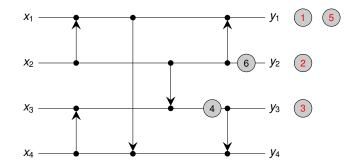




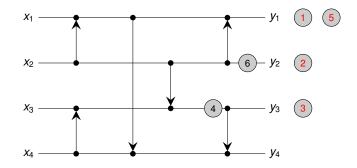




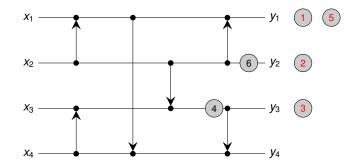




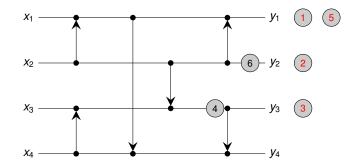




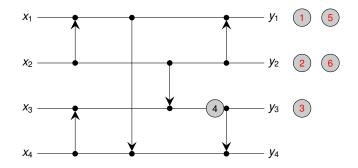




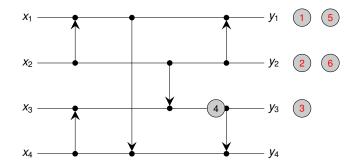




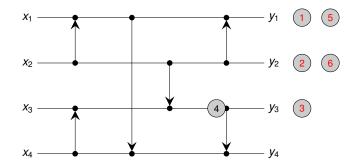




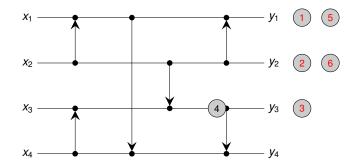




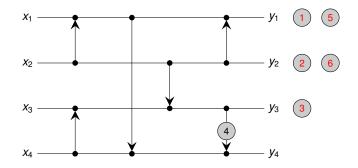




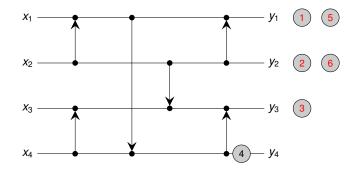




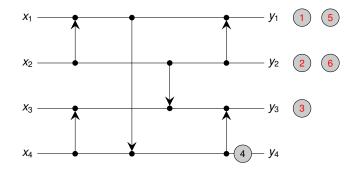




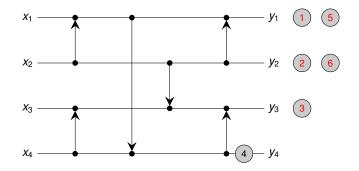




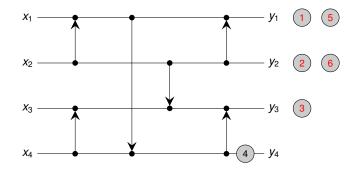




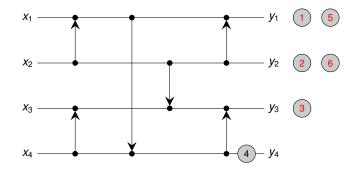




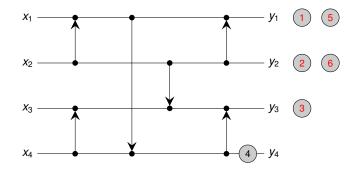




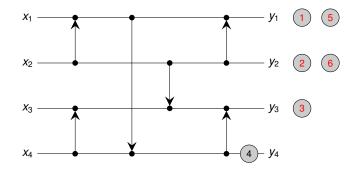




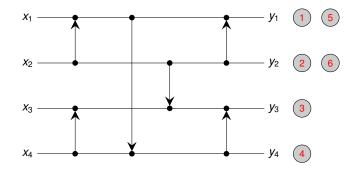




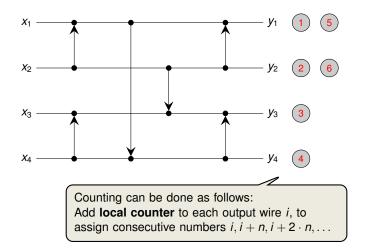




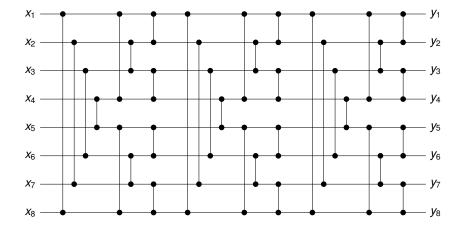






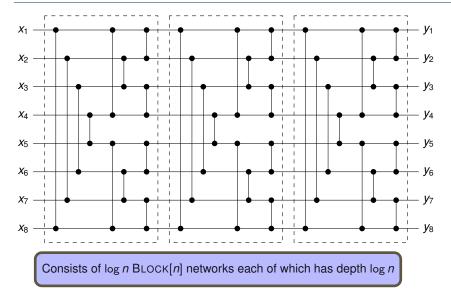








A Periodic Counting Network [Aspnes, Herlihy, Shavit, JACM 1994]





— 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!
Counting vs. Sorting If a network is a counting netw	vork, then it is also a sorting network.



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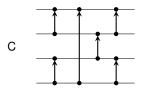


- Counting vs. Sorting -

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Proof.

• Let C be a counting network, and S be the corresponding sorting network



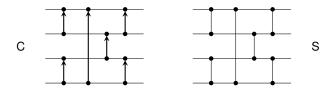


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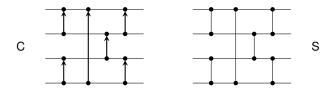




Counting vs. Sorting -

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

- Let C be a counting network, and S be the corresponding sorting network
- Consider an input sequence $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to S

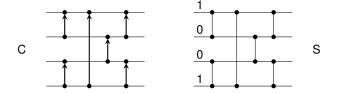




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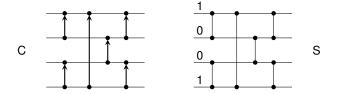




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- Consider an input sequence $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to S
- Define an input $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to *C* by $x_i = 1$ iff $a_i = 0$.

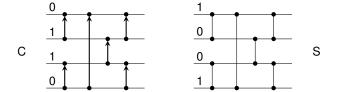




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- Define an input $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to C by $x_i = 1$ iff $a_i = 0$.
- C is a counting network \Rightarrow all ones will be routed to the lower wires

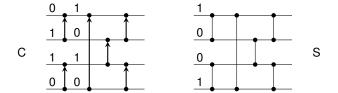




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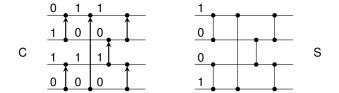




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- Let C be a counting network, and S be the corresponding sorting network
- Consider an input sequence $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to S
- Define an input $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to C by $x_i = 1$ iff $a_i = 0$.
- C is a counting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

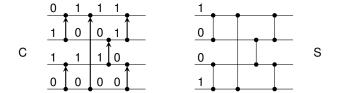




- Counting vs. Sorting -

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

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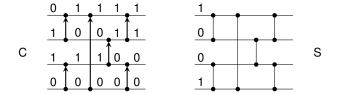




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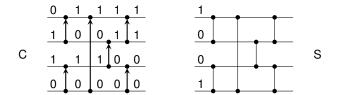




- Counting vs. Sorting -

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

- Let *C* be a counting network, and *S* be the corresponding sorting network
- Consider an input sequence $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to S
- Define an input $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ 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

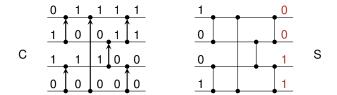




- Counting vs. Sorting

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

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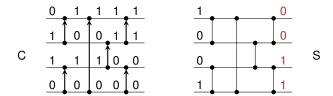




- Counting vs. Sorting

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

- Let C be a counting network, and S be the corresponding sorting network
- Consider an input sequence $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to S
- Define an input $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to *C* by $x_i = 1$ iff $a_i = 0$.
- C is a counting network ⇒ 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.







Exercise: Consider a network which is a sorting network, but not a counting network.

Hint: Try to find a simple network with 4 wires that corresponds to a basic sequential sorting algorithm.

