I. Course Intro and Sorting Networks

Thomas Sauerwald

Easter 2016



Outline

Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Counting Networks

Load Balancing on Graphs



IB Complexity Theory



IA Algorithms

IB Complexity Theory

- I. Sorting Networks (Sorting, Counting, Load Balancing)
- II. Matrix Multiplication
- 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
- VIII. Approximation Algorithms: MAX-CUT Problem (if time permits)

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

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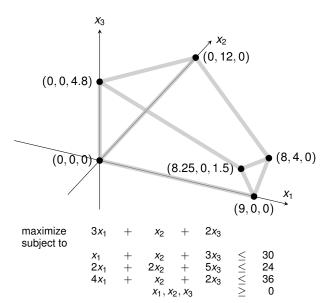
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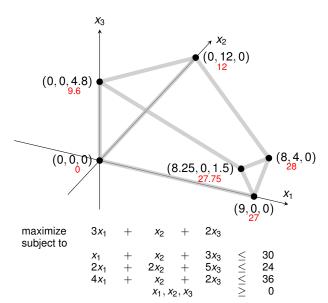
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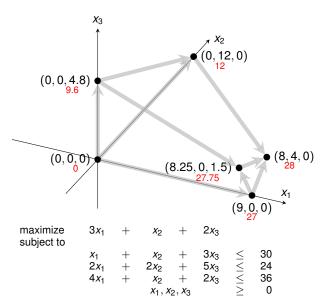




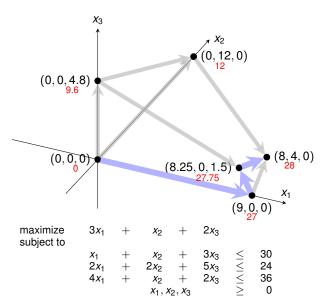














SOLUTION OF A LARGE-SCALE TRAVELING-SALESMAN PROBLEM*

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, 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_{IJ} used representing road distances as taken from an atlas.



Travelling Salesman Problem: The 42 (49) Cities

- 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

- Carson City, Nev. Los Angeles, Calif.
- Phoenix, Ariz.
- Santa Fe, N. M.
- 22. Denver, Colo. Chevenne, Wyo.
- 24. Omaha, Neb.
- 25. Des Moines, Iowa
- 26. Kansas City, Mo.
- 27. Topeka, Kans. 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.
- 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.

TABLE I

ROAD DISTANCES BETWEEN CITIES IN ADJUSTED UNITS

The figures in the table are mileages between the two specified numbered cities, less 11. 49 21 15 divided by 17, and rounded to the nearest integer. 61 62 21 48 60 16 17 18 59 60 15 20 26 17 10 62 66 20 25 31 22 15 40 44 50 41 35 24 20 12 108 117 66 71 77 68 61 51 46 13 145 149 104 108 114 106 99 88 84 63 14 | 181 185 140 144 150 142 135 124 120 99 85 15 187 191 146 150 156 142 137 130 125 105 90 81 41 10 16 | 161 170 120 124 130 115 110 104 105 90 142 146 101 104 111 97 91 85 86 75 174 178 133 138 143 129 123 117 118 107 93 101 72 69 19 18 186 142 143 140 130 126 124 128 118 20 164 165 120 123 124 106 106 105 110 104 86 97 71 93 82 62 42 45 22 77 60 117 122 77 80 83 68 62 61 50 48 34 28 82 42 23 114 118 73 78 84 69 63 57 59 36 4.3 77 72 27 34 28 29 22 23 35 69 105 102 4 I 27 19 21 14 29 40 77 114 111 84 47 78 116 112 84 66 29 32 77 115 110 83 63 97 85 119 115 88 66 98 33 36 30 48 34 45 QI 59 85 119 115 88 66 98 79 71 96 130 126 98 75 98 85 46 56 61 57 62 53 59 34 38 43 49 60 71 103 141 136 109 90 115 99 81 53 51 63 75 106 142 140 112 93 126 108 88 60 43 38 22 26 32 36 44 49 63 76 87 120 155 160 123 100 123 100 86 62 71 86 97 126 160 155 128 104 128 113 90 67 76 82 60 75 62 78 89 121 159 155 127 108 136 124 101 81 50 31 25 32 41 46 64 83 90 130 164 160 133 114 146 134 111 85 59 42 44 51 60 66 83 102 110 147 185 179 155 133 159 146 122 98 105 107 79 52 71 93 98 136 172 172 148 126 158 147 124 121 97 99 71 65 36 47 69 53 73 96 99 137 176 178 151 131 163 159 135 108 102 103 73 67 64 35 26 18 34 36 46 51 82 62 53 59 66 45 38 45 27 15 6 55 58 63 83 105 109 147 186 188 164 144 176 182 161 134 119 116 86 84 88 101 108 88 80 86 92 61 61 66 84 111 113 150 186 192 166 147 180 188 167 140 124 119 90 87 90 94 107 114 77 86 92 98 80 74 77 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41

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

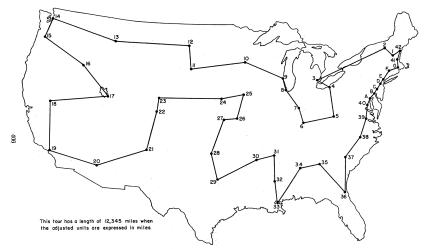


Fig. 16. The optimal tour of 49 cities.



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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!

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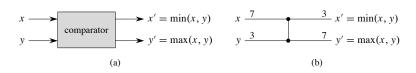


Figure 27.1 (a) A comparator with inputs x and y and outputs x' and y'. (b) The same comparator, drawn as a single vertical line. Inputs x = 7, y = 3 and outputs x' = 3, y' = 7 are shown.

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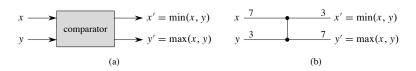


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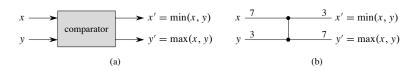


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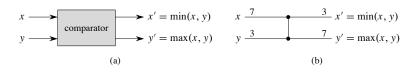


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Convention: use the same name for both a wire and its value.

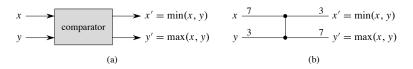


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A sorting network is a comparison network which works correctly (that is, it sorts every input)

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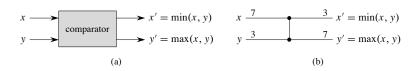
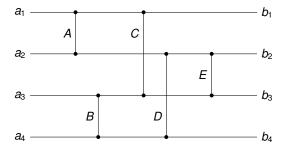
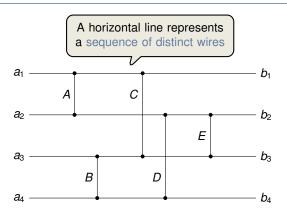


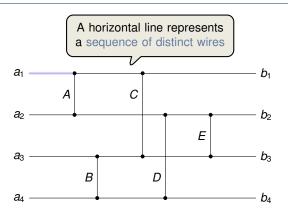
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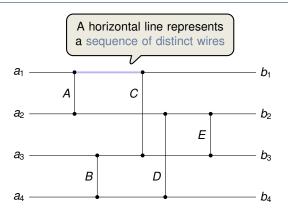




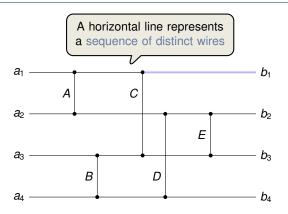




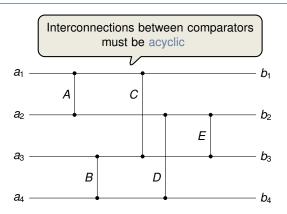




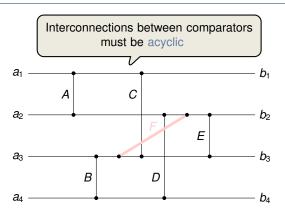




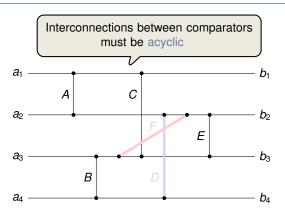




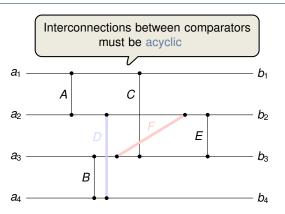




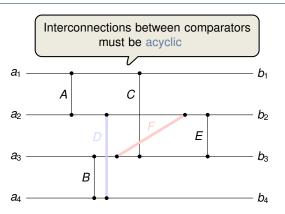




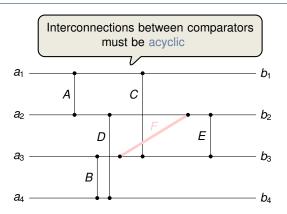




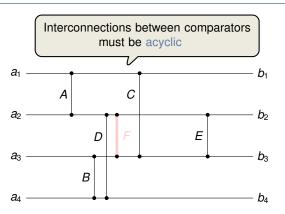




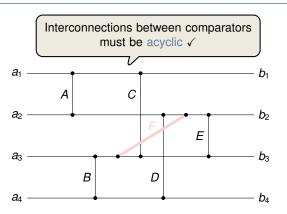




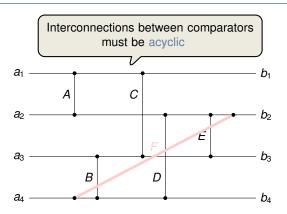




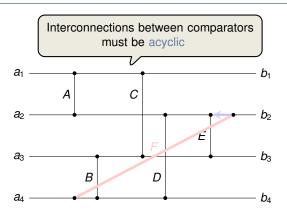




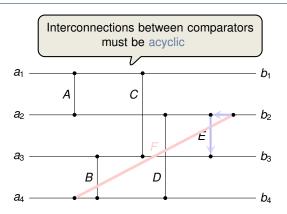




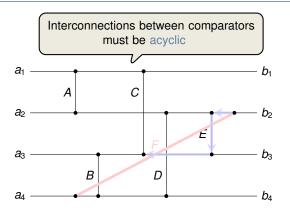




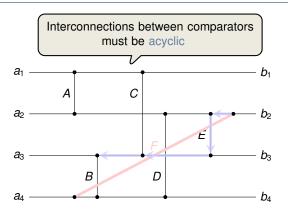




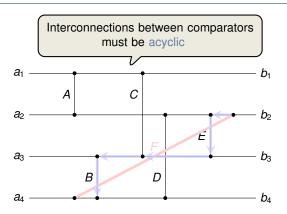




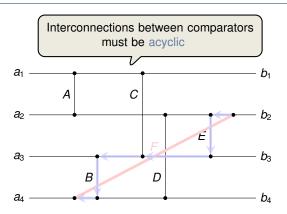




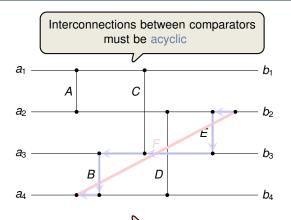




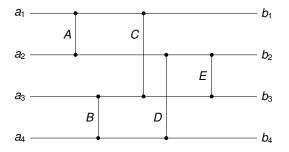




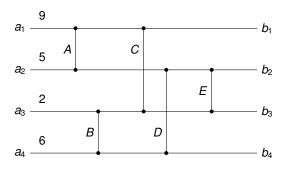




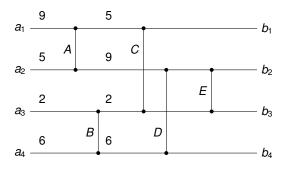
Tracing back a path must never cycle back on itself and go through the same comparator twice.



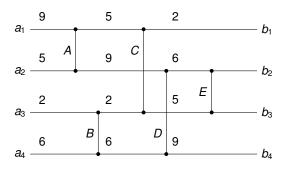




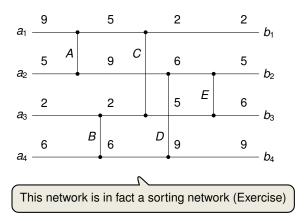




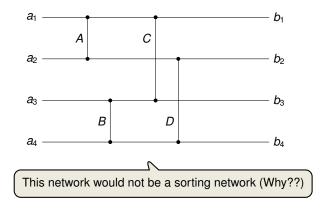




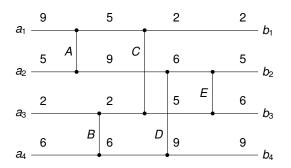




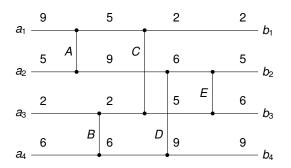








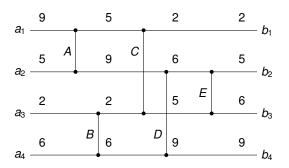




Depth of a wire:

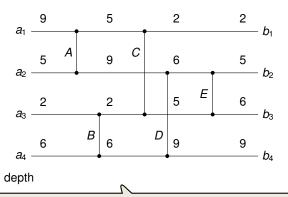
Input wire has depth 0



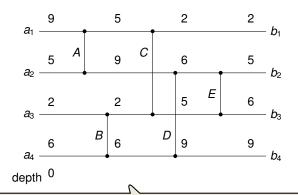


- Input wire has depth 0
- If a comparator has two inputs of depths d_x and d_y , then outputs have depth max $\{d_x, d_y\} + 1$

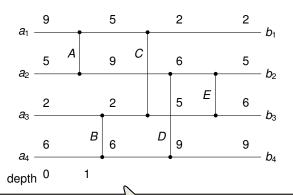




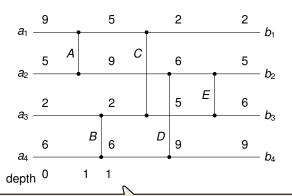
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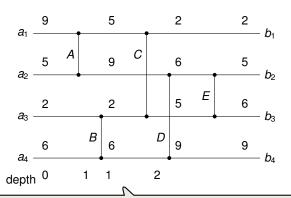
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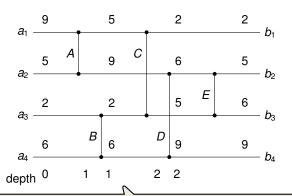
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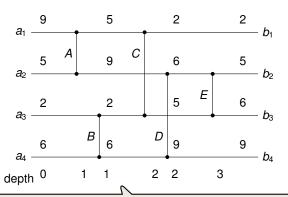
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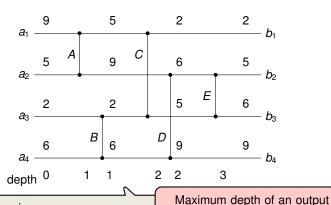
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Depth of a wire:

- Input wire has depth 0
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wire equals total running time

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



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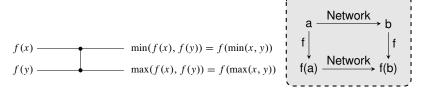


Figure 27.4 The operation of the comparator in the proof of Lemma 27.1. The function f is monotonically increasing.

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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

Theorem 27.2 (Zero-One Principle) -

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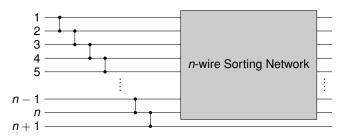
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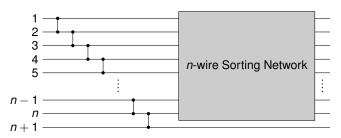
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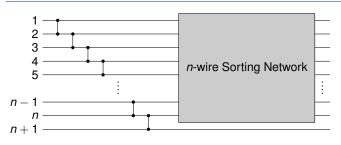
- Since the network places a_i before a_i, by the previous lemma
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- But $f(a_i) = 1$ and $f(a_i) = 0$, which contradicts the assumption that the network sorts all sequences of 0's and 1's correctly



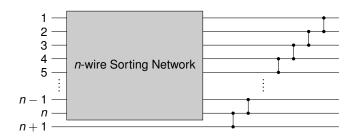
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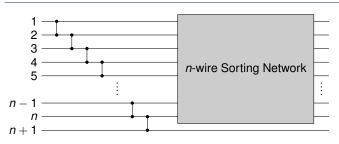
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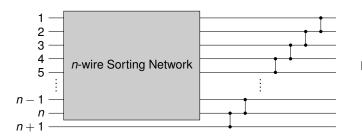
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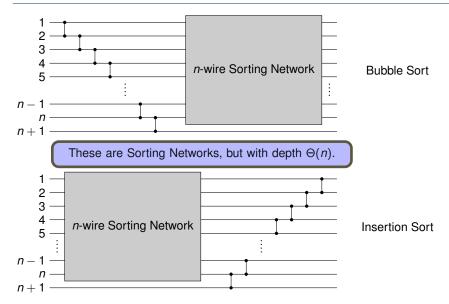
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Bubble Sort



Insertion Sort



Outline

Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Counting Networks

Load Balancing on Graphs

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.



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- ⟨6,9,4,2,3,5⟩
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- ⟨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 -

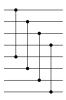
- Half-Cleaner

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.

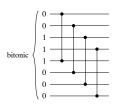
We always assume that n is even.



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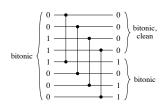


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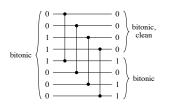


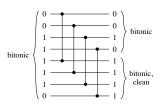
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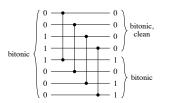
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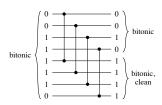
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Lemma 27.3

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.







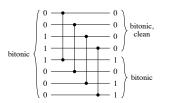
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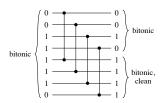
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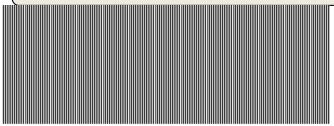
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W.l.o.g. assume that the input is of the form $0^i 1^j 0^k$, for some $i, j, k \ge 0$.



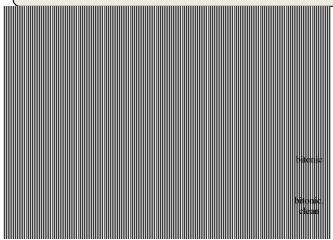
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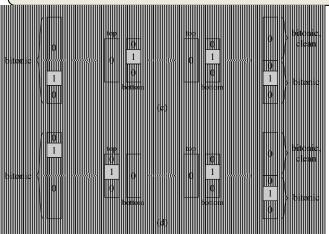
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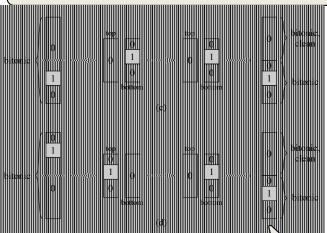
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This suggests a recursive approach, since it now suffices to sort the top and bottom half separately.

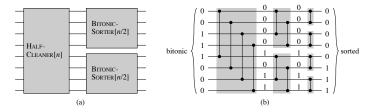


Figure 27.9 The comparison network BITONIC-SORTER[n], shown here for n = 8. (a) The recursive construction: HALF-CLEANER[n] followed by two copies of BITONIC-SORTER[n/2] that operate in parallel. (b) The network after unrolling the recursion. Each half-cleaner is shaded. Sample zero-one values are shown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

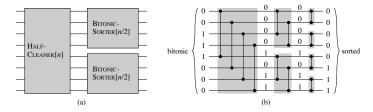


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$$D(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ D(n/2) + 1 & \text{if } n = 2^k. \end{cases}$$



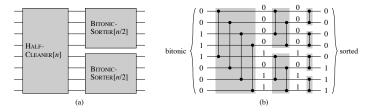


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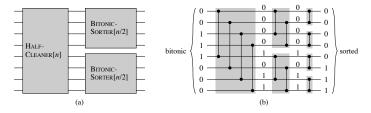


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BITONIC-SORTER[n] has depth log n and sorts any zero-one bitonic sequence.



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



• Given two sorted sequences $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2} \rangle$ and $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, \dots, a_n \rangle$



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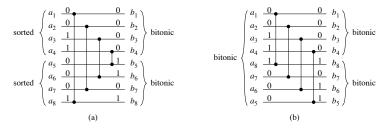


Figure 27.10 Comparing the first stage of MERGER[n] with HALF-CLEANER[n], for n=8. (a) The first stage of MERGER[n] transforms the two monotonic input sequences $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n/2 \rangle$ and $\langle a_n/2+1, a_n/2+2, \ldots, a_n \rangle$ into two bitonic sequences $\langle b_1, b_2,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



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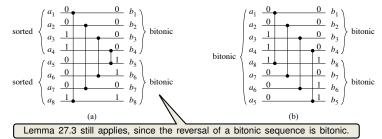


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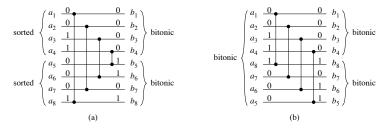


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- We know it suffices to bitonically sort $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_{n/2+1} \rangle$
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[n] compares i and n/2 + i
- \Rightarrow First part of MERGER[n] compares inputs i and n-i for $i=1,2,\ldots,n/2$
 - Remaining part is identical to BITONIC-SORTER[n]

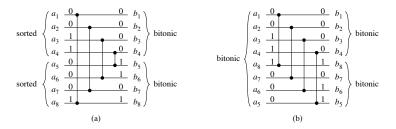


Figure 27.10 Comparing the first stage of MERGER[n] with HALF-CLEANER[n], for n=8. (a) The first stage of MERGER[n] transforms the two monotonic input sequences $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2} \rangle$ and $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, \dots, a_n \rangle$ into two bitonic sequences $\langle b_1, b_2,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

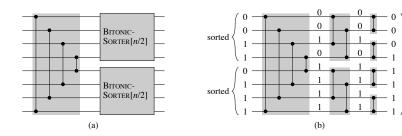
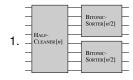


Figure 27.11 A network that merges two sorted input sequences into one sorted output sequence. The network MERGER[n] can be viewed as BITONIC-SORTER[n] with the first half-cleaner altered to compare inputs i and n-i+1 for $i=1,2,\ldots,n/2$. Here, n=8. (a) The network decomposed into the first stage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

sorted

Main Components -

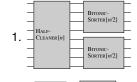
- 1. BITONIC-SORTER[n]
 - sorts any bitonic sequence
 - depth log n

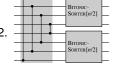




Main Components -

- 1. BITONIC-SORTER[n]
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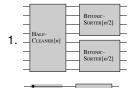


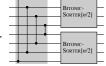




Main Components

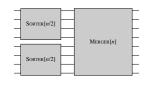
- 1. BITONIC-SORTER[n]
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Batcher's Sorting Network

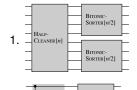
- SORTER[n] is defined recursively:
 - If n = 2^k, use two copies of SORTER[n/2] to sort two subsequences of length n/2 each. Then merge them using MERGER[n].
 - If n = 1, network consists of a single wire.

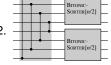




Main Components

- 1. BITONIC-SORTER[n]
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Batcher's Sorting Network

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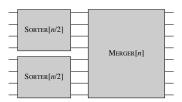
SORTER[n/2]

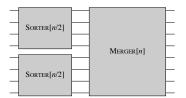
MERGER[n]

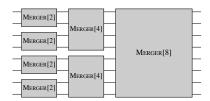
SORTER[n/2]

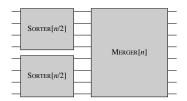
can be seen as a parallel version of merge sort

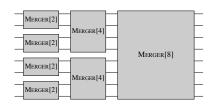


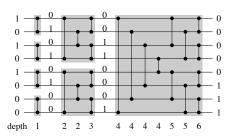




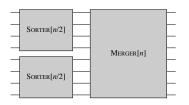


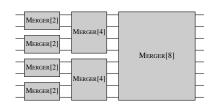


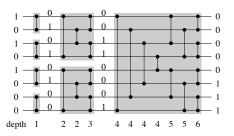






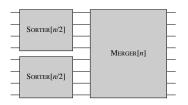


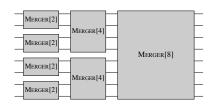


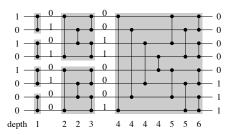


Recursion for D(n):

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



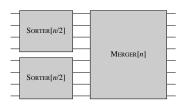


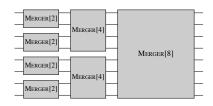


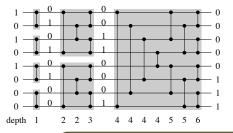
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Solution: $D(n) = \Theta(\log^2 n)$.







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



Ajtai, Komlós, Szemerédi (1983)

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



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Quite elaborate construction, and involves huges constants.



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 $b_{n/2+1}, \ldots, b_n$.

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Perfect halver of depth $\log_2 n$ exist \rightsquigarrow yields sorting networks of depth $\Theta((\log n)^2)$

A Glimpse at the AKS Network

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Approximate Halver ———

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

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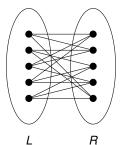
We will prove that such networks can be constructed in constant depth!



Expander Graphs -

- *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,

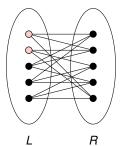
$$|\textit{N}(\textit{S})| > \min\{\mu \cdot |\textit{S}|, \textit{n}/2 - |\textit{S}|\}$$



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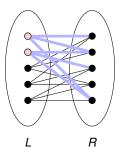
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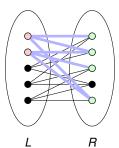
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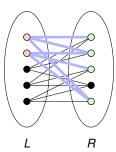
Expander Graphs

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

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- For every subset $S \subseteq V$ being in one part,

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

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

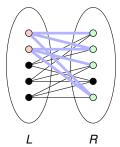


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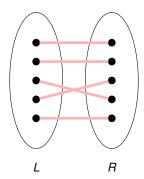
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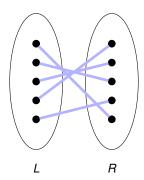
Expander Graphs:

- 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

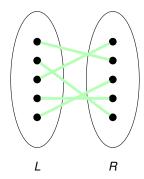




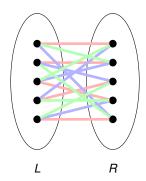




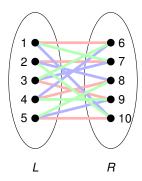




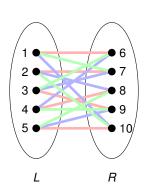


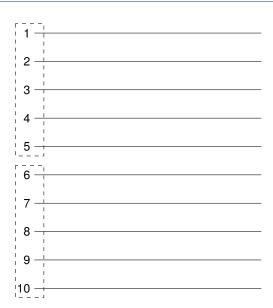




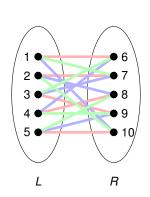


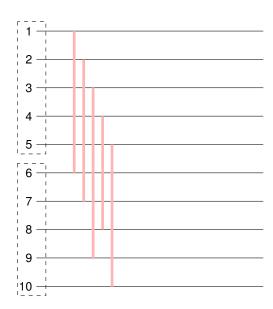




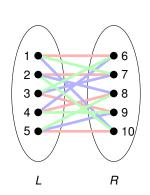


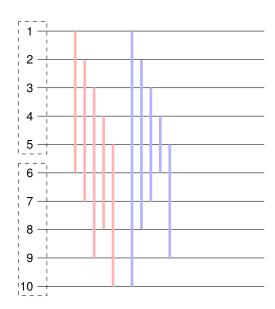




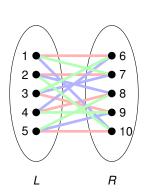


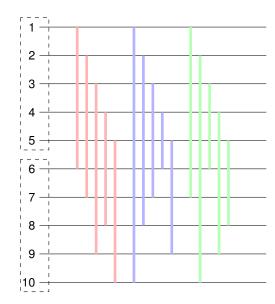




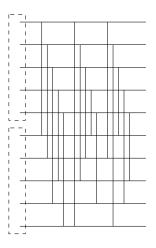






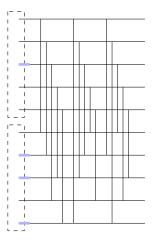




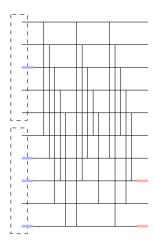


Proof:

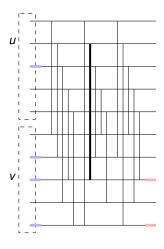
X := keys with the k smallest inputs



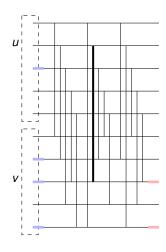
- X := keys with the k smallest inputs
- Y := wires in lower half with k smallest outputs



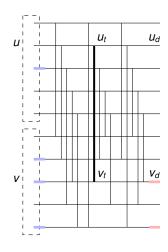
- X := keys with the k smallest inputs
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- For every $u \in N(Y)$: \exists comparat. $(u, v), v \in Y$



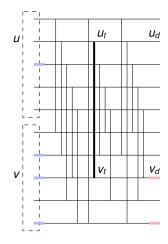
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- Let u_t, v_t be their keys after the comparator Let u_d, v_d be their keys at the output



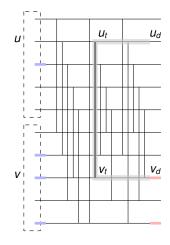
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- Note that $v_d \in X$

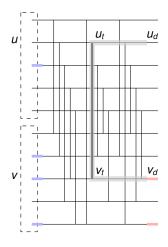


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- Further: $u_d \le u_t \le v_t \le v_d \Rightarrow u_d \in X$
- Since *u* was arbitrary:

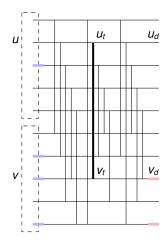
$$|Y|+|N(Y)|\leq k.$$



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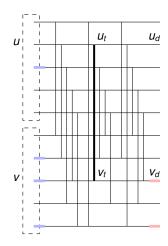


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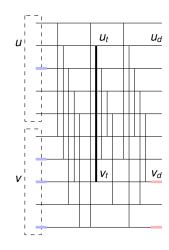


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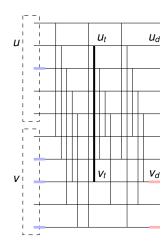
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- Further: $u_d \le u_t \le v_t \le v_d \Rightarrow u_d \in X$
- Since u was arbitrary:

$$|Y| + |N(Y)| < k.$$

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

= $\min\{(1 + \mu)|Y|, n/2\}.$



Proof:

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- Y := wires in lower half with k smallest outputs
- For every $u \in N(Y)$: \exists comparat. $(u, v), v \in Y$
- Let u_t, v_t be their keys after the comparator
 Let u_d, v_d be their keys at the output
- Note that $v_d \in X$
- Further: $u_d \le u_t \le v_t \le v_d \Rightarrow u_d \in X$
- Since u was arbitrary:

$$|Y| + |N(Y)| < k.$$

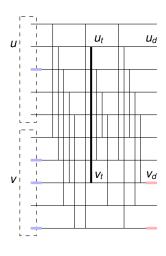
• Since *G* is a bipartite (n, d, μ) -expander:

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

= $\min\{(1 + \mu)|Y|, n/2\}.$

Combining the two bounds above yields:

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



Proof:

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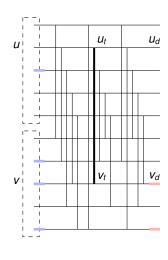
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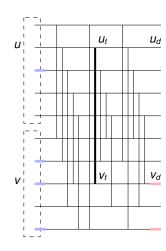
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■ Same argument \Rightarrow at most $\epsilon \cdot k$, $\epsilon := 1/(\mu + 1)$, of the k largest input keys are placed in $b_1, \ldots, b_{n/2}$.



- typical application of expander gaphs 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)

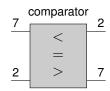
"The AKS sorting network is **galactic**: it needs that n be larger than 2⁷⁸ or so to finally be smaller than Batcher's network for n items."



Siblings of Sorting Network

Sorting Networks –

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



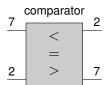
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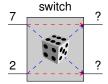
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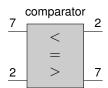
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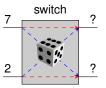
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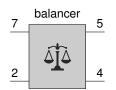
- creates a random permutation of *n* items
- special case of Permutation Networks

Counting Networks ———

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







Outline

Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Counting Networks

Load Balancing on Graphs

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 -

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,...)

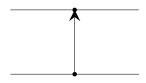


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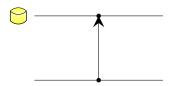


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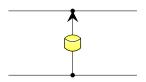


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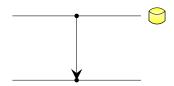


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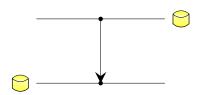


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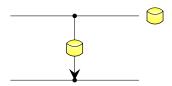


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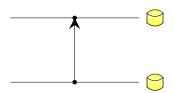


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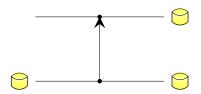


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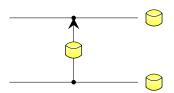


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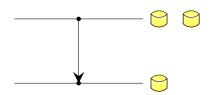


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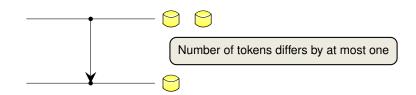


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Bitonic Counting Network

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:

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

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

Facts

Let x_1, \ldots, x_n and y_1, \ldots, 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 $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right]$
- 2. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, then $x_i = y_i$ for i = 1, ..., n.
- 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 $j \neq i$.

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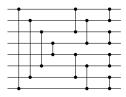
Key Lemma

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 .

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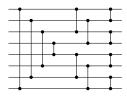
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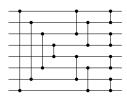
Proof (by induction on *n* being a power of 2)

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

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- *n* > 2:

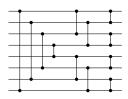
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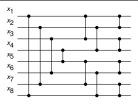
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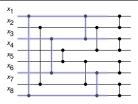
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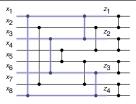
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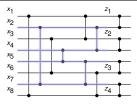
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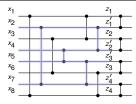
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- n > 2: Let $z_1, \ldots, z_{n/2}$ and $z'_1, \ldots, z'_{n/2}$ be the outputs of the MERGER[n/2] subnetworks
- IH $\Rightarrow z_1, \dots, z_{n/2}$ and $z'_1, \dots, z'_{n/2}$ have the step property

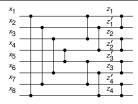
Facts

Let x_1, \ldots, x_n and y_1, \ldots, 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 $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right]$

2. If
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$$
, then $x_i = y_i$ for $i = 1, ..., n$.

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 $j \neq i$.



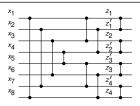
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Facts

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- 2. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, then $x_i = y_i$ for i = 1, ..., n.
- 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 $j \neq i$.



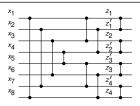
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- F1 \Rightarrow Z = $\lceil \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_i \rceil + \lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=n/2+1}^{n} x_i \rfloor$ and Z' = $\lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_i \rfloor + \lceil \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=n/2+1}^{n} x_i \rceil$

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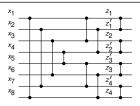


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- 2. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, then $x_i = y_i$ for i = 1, ..., n.
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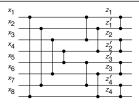


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- Case 1: If Z = Z', then F2 implies the output of MERGER[n] is $y_i = z_{1+\lfloor (i-1)/2 \rfloor} \checkmark$

Facts

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

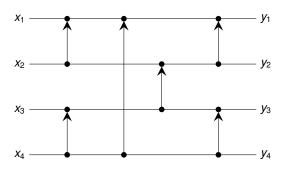
- 1. We have $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right]$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right]$
- 2. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, then $x_i = y_i$ for i = 1, ..., n.
- 3. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i + 1$, then $\exists ! \ j = 1, 2, ..., n$ with $x_j = y_j + 1$ and $x_i = y_i$ for $j \neq i$.

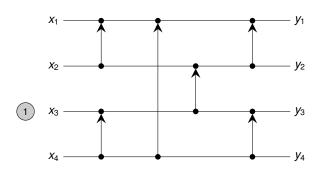


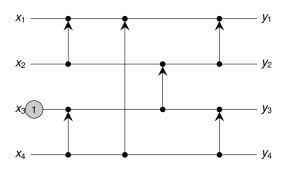
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- n > 2: Let $z_1, \ldots, z_{n/2}$ and $z'_1, \ldots, z'_{n/2}$ be the outputs of the MERGER[n/2] subnetworks
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- Case 1: If Z = Z', then F2 implies the output of MERGER[n] is $y_i = z_{1+\lfloor (i-1)/2 \rfloor} \checkmark$
- Case 2: If |Z Z'| = 1, F3 implies $z_i = z_i'$ for i = 1, ..., n/2 except a unique j with $z_j \neq z_j'$.

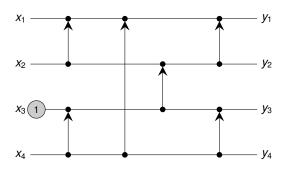
 Balancer between z_i and z_i' will ensure that the step property holds.

Bitonic Counting Network in Action (Asychnronous Execution)

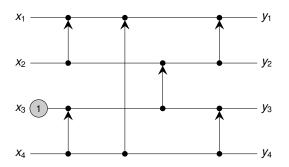




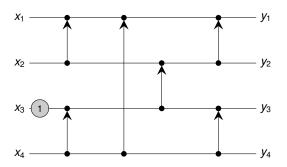




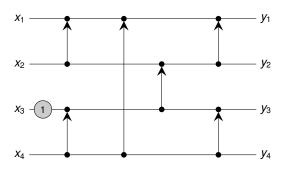


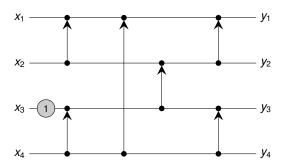


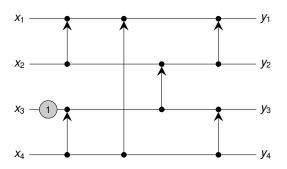


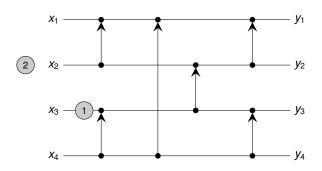




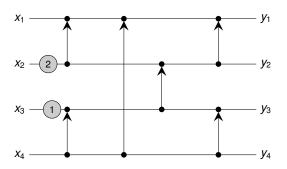


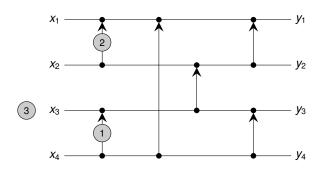


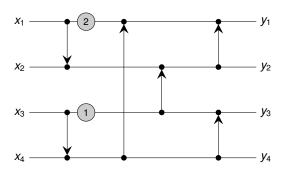


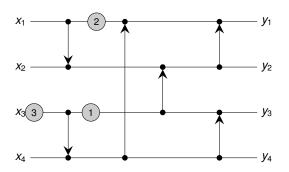




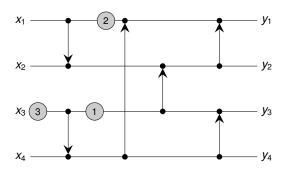




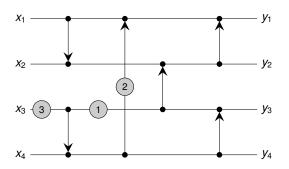




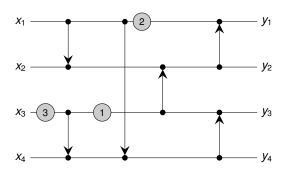




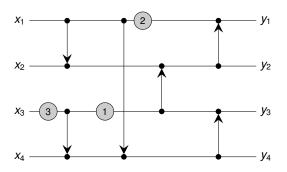




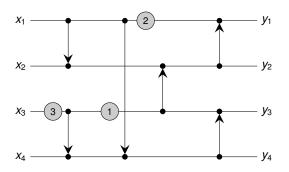




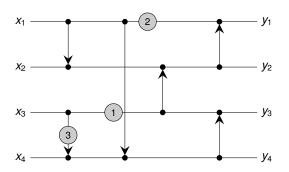




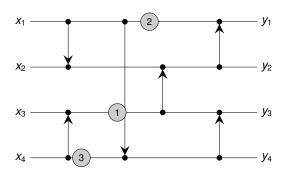




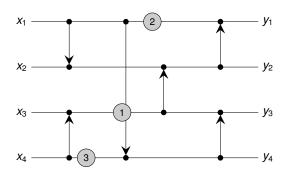




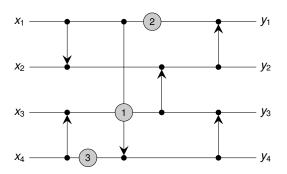




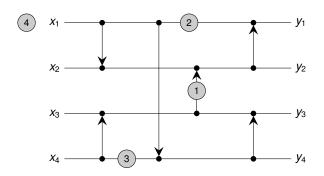




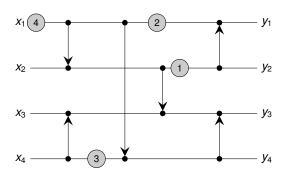




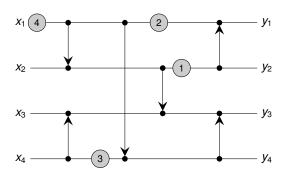




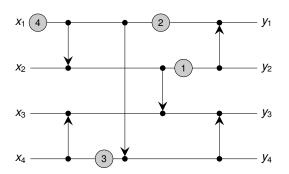




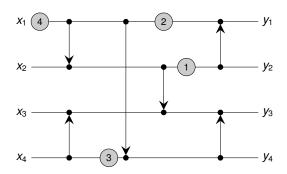


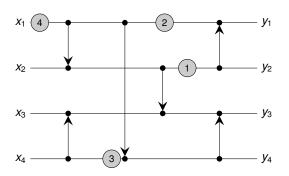




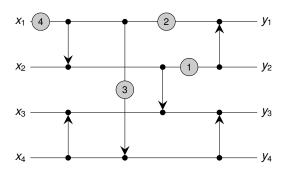




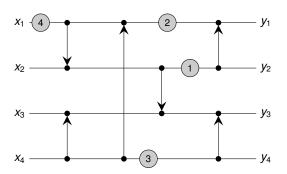




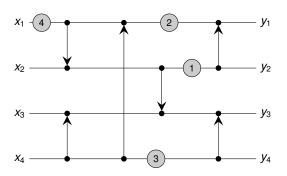




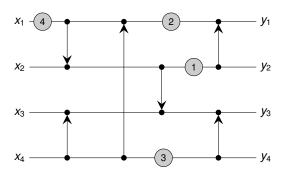




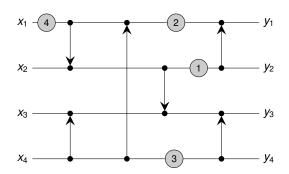


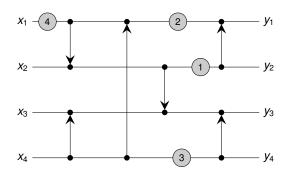


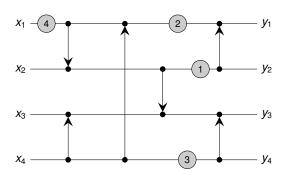




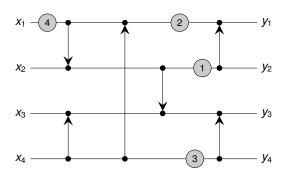




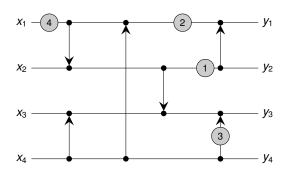




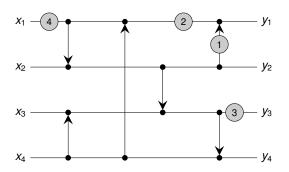




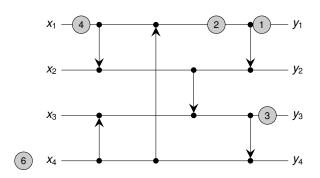




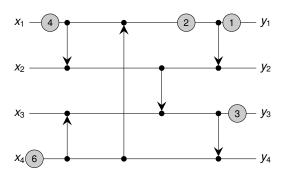




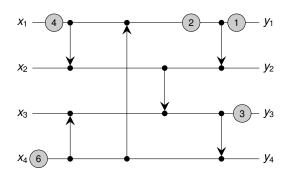


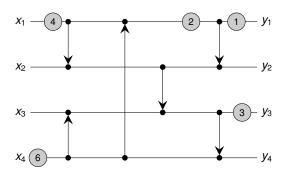




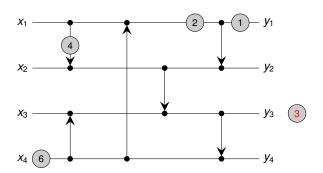




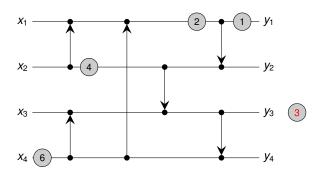




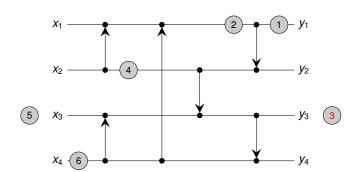


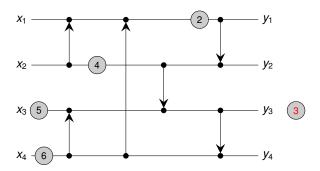


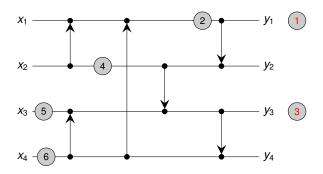


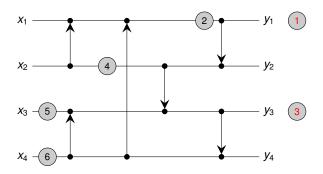


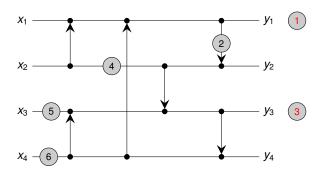


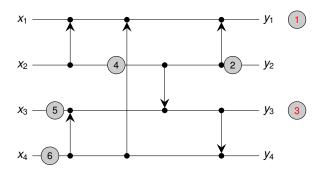


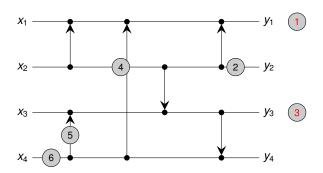


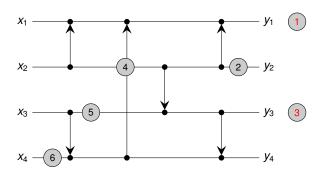


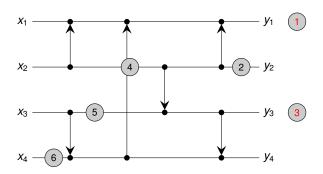




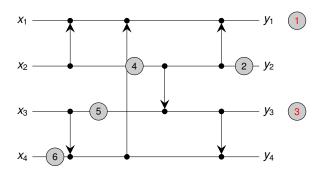




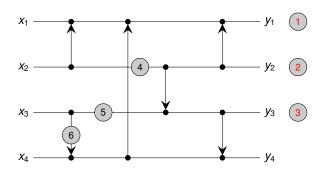


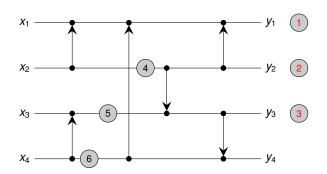


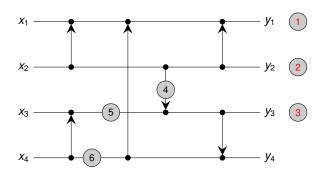


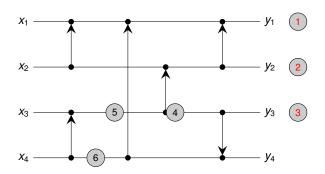


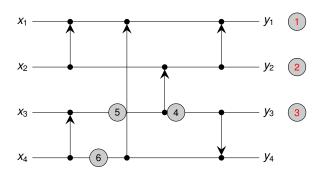




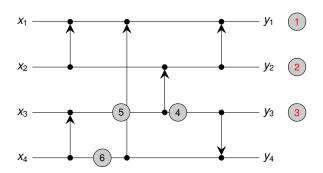


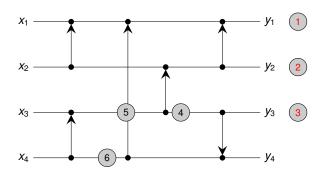


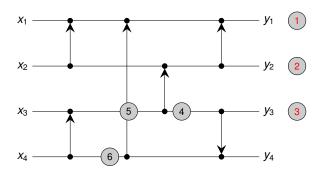




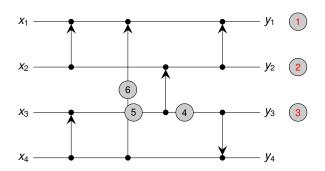


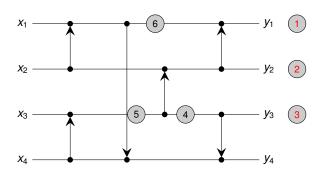


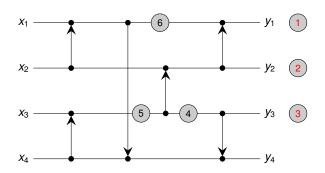


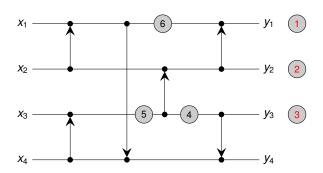


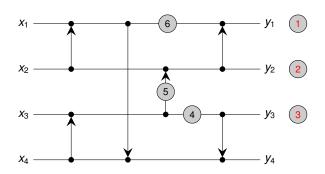


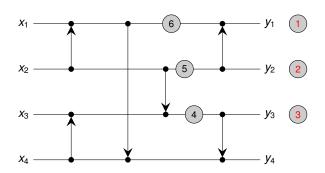


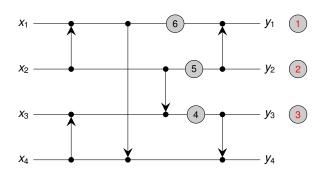


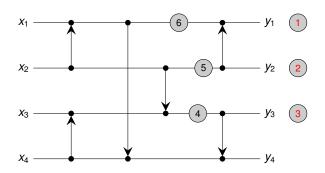


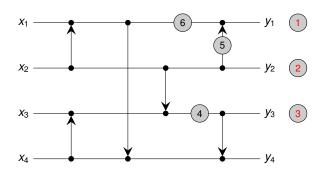


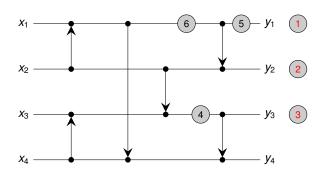


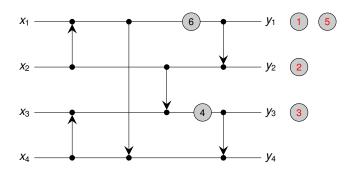




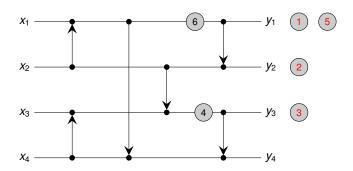




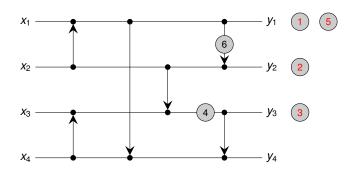


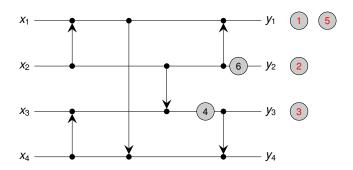


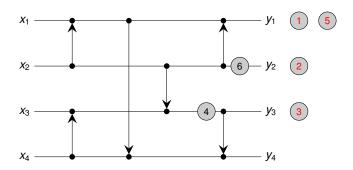


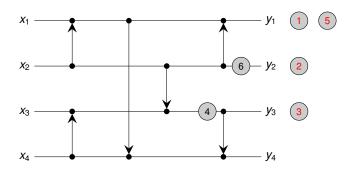


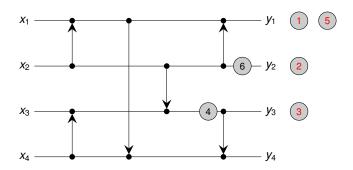


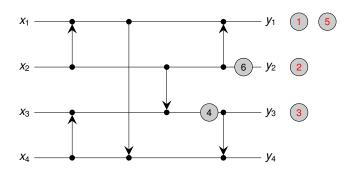




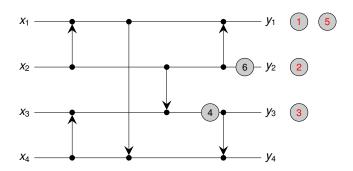




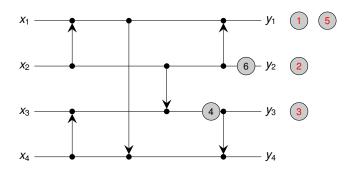




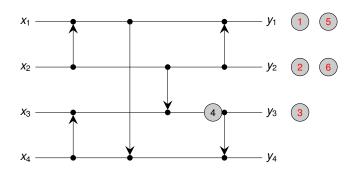


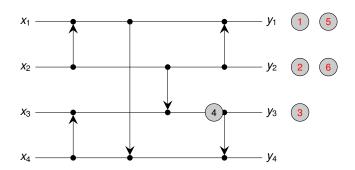


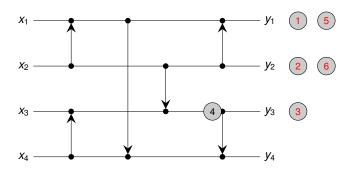


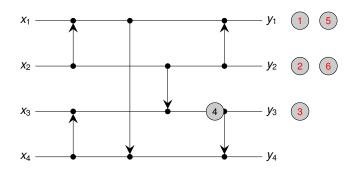


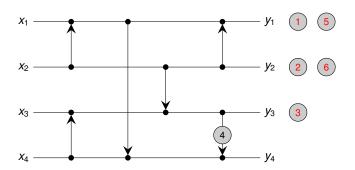


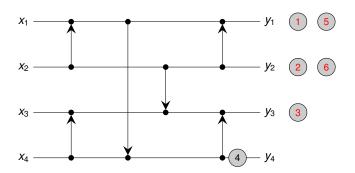


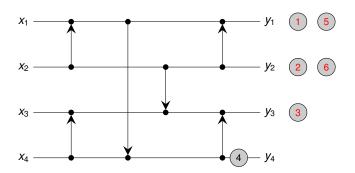


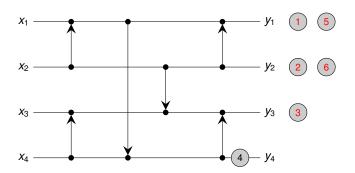


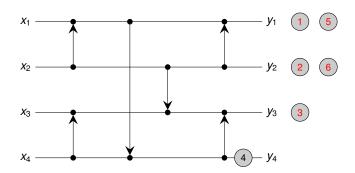


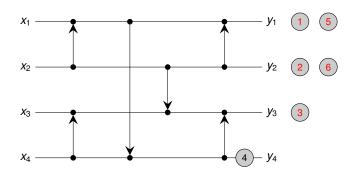


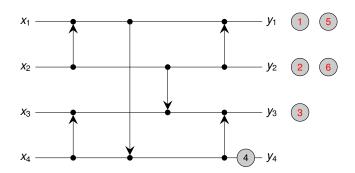


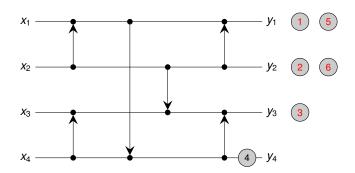


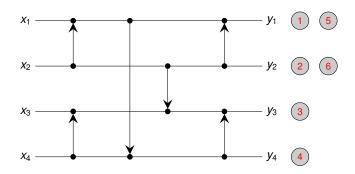


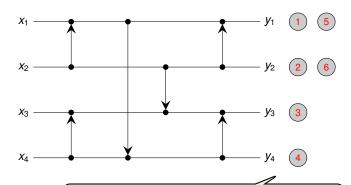






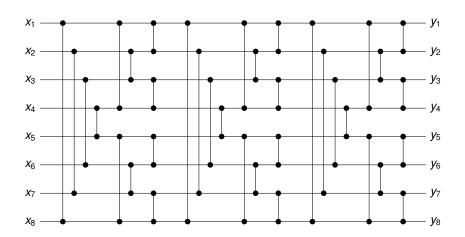






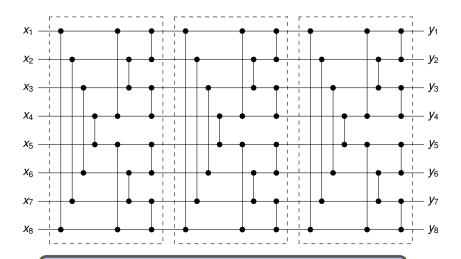
Counting can be done as follows: Add **local counter** to each output wire i, to assign consecutive numbers i, i + n, $i + 2 \cdot n$, . . .

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





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



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



Counting vs. Sorting —

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



The converse is not true!

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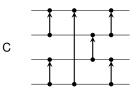


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Proof.

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



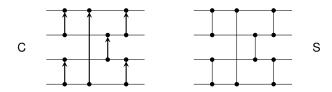


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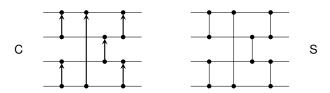




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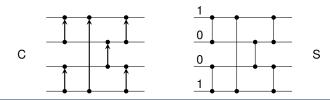




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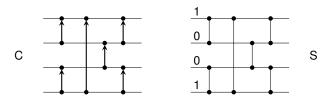




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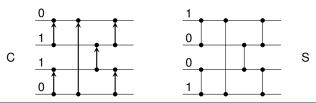




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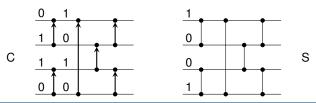




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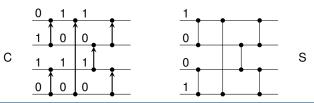


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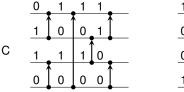


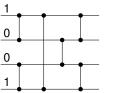
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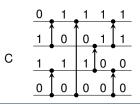


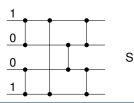
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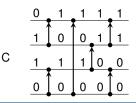


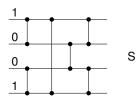
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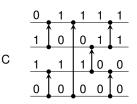


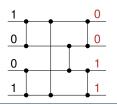
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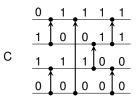


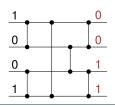
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- C is a counting network ⇒ all ones will be routed to the lower wires
- S corresponds to C ⇒ all zeros will be routed to the lower wires
- By the Zero-One Principle, S is a sorting network.





S

Outline

Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

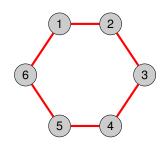
Batcher's Sorting Network

Counting Networks

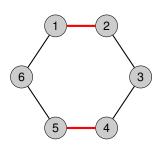
Load Balancing on Graphs



Communication Models: Diffusion vs. Matching

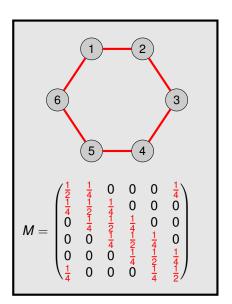


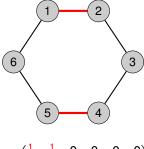
$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$





Communication Models: Diffusion vs. Matching





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- \overline{x} denotes the average load



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Metrics -

•
$$\ell_2$$
-norm: $\Phi^t = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^t - \overline{x})^2}$

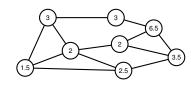
- makespan: maxⁿ_{i-1} x^t_i
- discrepancy: $\max_{i=1}^{n} x_i^t \min_{i=1}^{n} x_i$.

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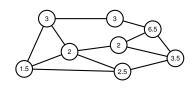


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For this example:

$$\Phi^t = \sqrt{0^2 + 0^2 + 3.5^2 + 0.5^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 1.5^2 + 0.5^2} = \sqrt{17}$$

•
$$\max_{i=1}^{n} x_i^t = 6.5$$

$$-\max_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{t} - \min_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{t} = 5$$

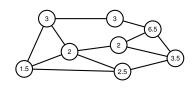


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- $\max_{i=1}^{n} x_i^t = 6.5$
- $\max_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{t} \min_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{t} = 5$



Diffusion Matrix -

Given an undirected, connected graph G=(V,E) and a diffusion parameter $\alpha>0$, the diffusion matrix M is defined as follows:

$$M_{ij} = egin{cases} lpha & ext{if } (i,j) \in E, \ 1 - lpha \deg(i) & ext{if } i = j, \ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

How to pick α for a d-regular graph?

- $\alpha = \frac{1}{d}$ may lead to oscillation (if graph is bipartite)
- $\alpha = \frac{1}{d+1}$ ensures convergence
- $\alpha = \frac{1}{2d}$ ensures convergence (and all eigenvalues of M are non-negative)

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First-Order Diffusion: Load vector x^t satisfies

$$x^t = M \cdot x^{t-1}.$$



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Given an undirected, connected graph G=(V,E) and a diffusion parameter $\alpha>0$, the diffusion matrix M is defined as follows:

$$M_{ij} = egin{cases} lpha & ext{if } (i,j) \in E, \ 1 - lpha \deg(i) & ext{if } i = j, \ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Further let $\gamma(M) := \max_{\mu_i \neq 1} |\mu_i|$, where $\mu_1 = 1 > \mu_2 \ge \cdots \ge \mu_n \ge -1$ are the eigenvalues of M.

This can be also seen as a random walk on *G*!

First-Order Diffusion: Load vector x^t satisfies

$$\mathbf{x}^t = \mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{t-1}$$
.



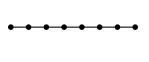


$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$$





2D grid

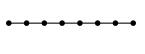


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 $\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n}$

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2D grid

3D grid



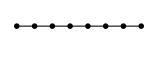
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$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$$
 $\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n}$ $\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n^{2/3}}$

2D grid

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Hypercube



$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{\log n}$$

3D grid

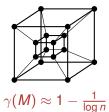


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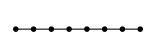
Random Graph





$$\gamma(M) < 1$$





$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$$

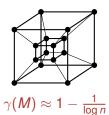




3D grid

$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$
 $\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n^{2/3}}$

Hypercube



Random Graph



$$\gamma(M) < 1$$

Complete Graph



$$\gamma(M) \approx 0$$



2D grid

3D grid





$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$$

$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$
 $\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{n^{2/3}}$

Hypercube

Random Graph

Complete Graph





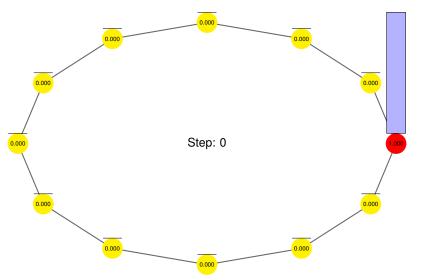


$$\gamma(M) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{\log n}$$
 $\gamma(M)$

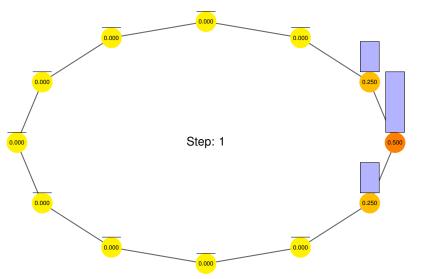
$$\gamma(M) < 1$$
 $\gamma(M) \approx 0$

 $\gamma(M) \in (0,1]$ measures connectivity of G

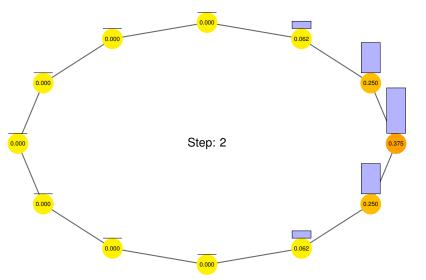




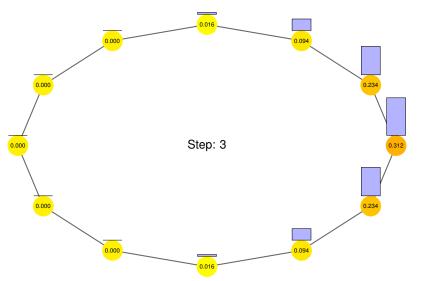




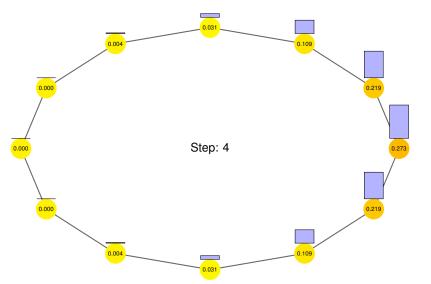




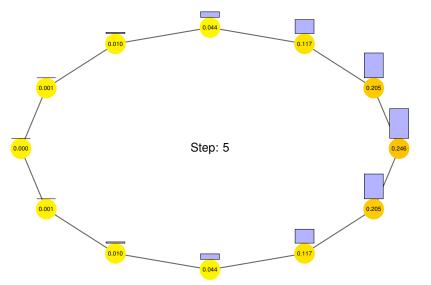




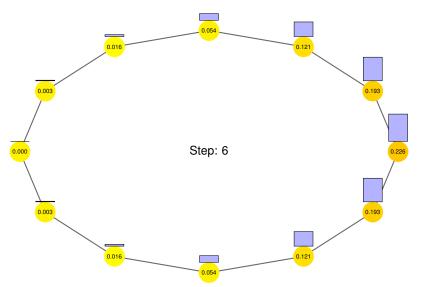




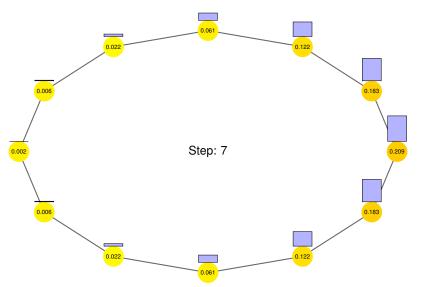




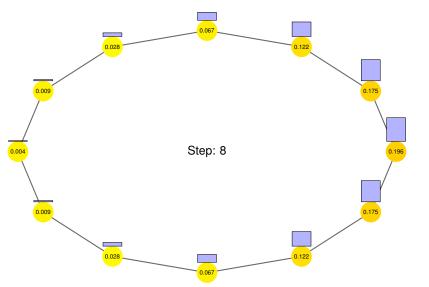




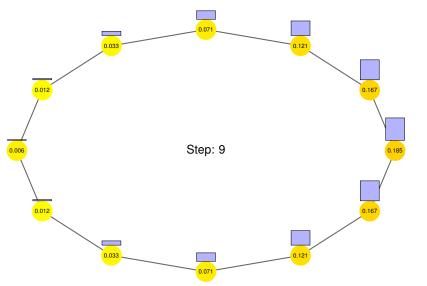




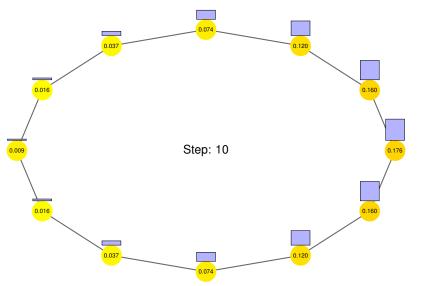




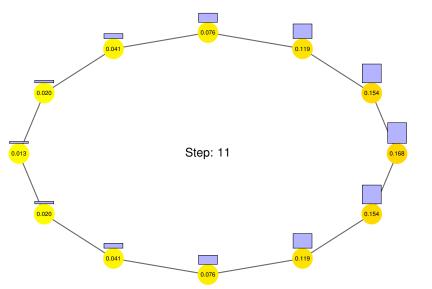




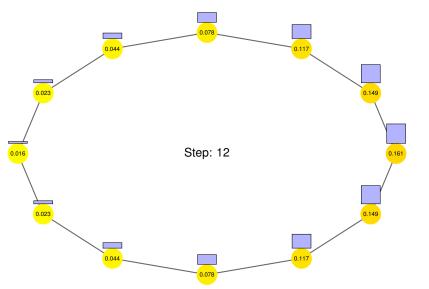




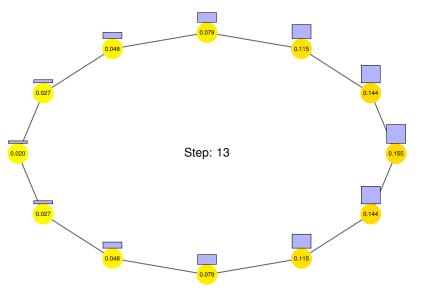




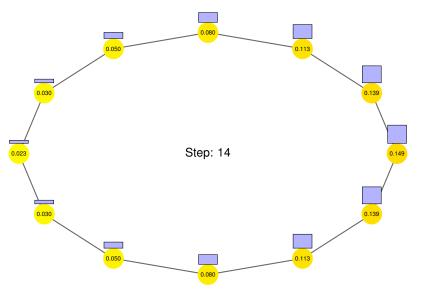




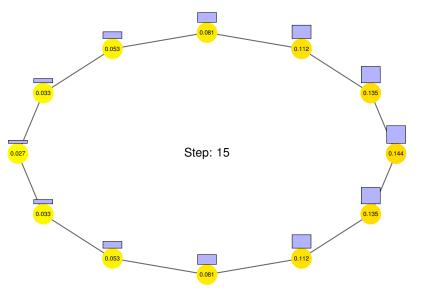




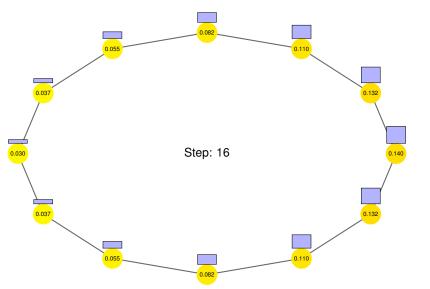




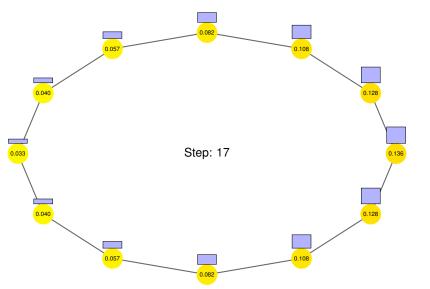




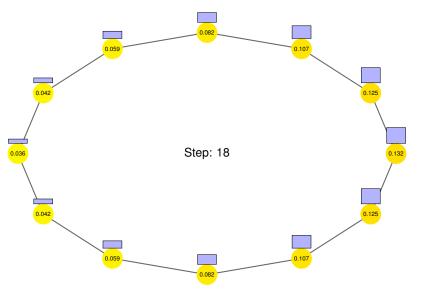




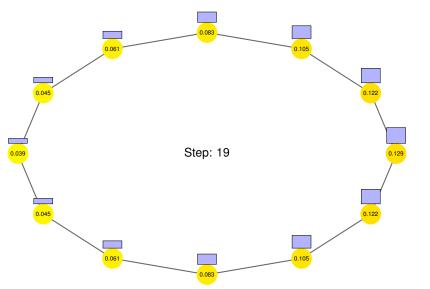




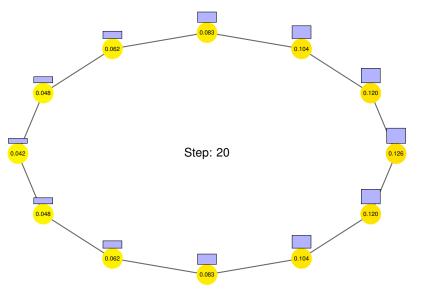




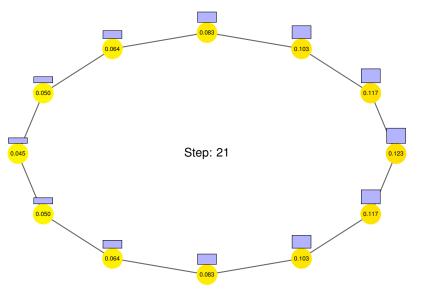




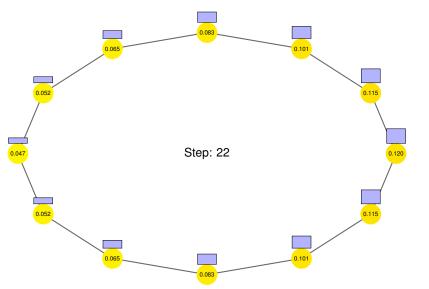




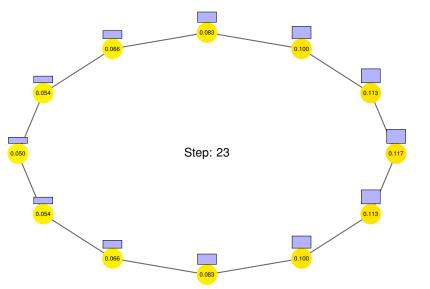




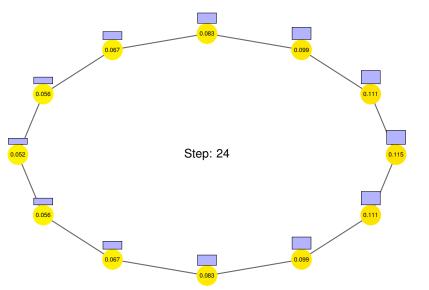




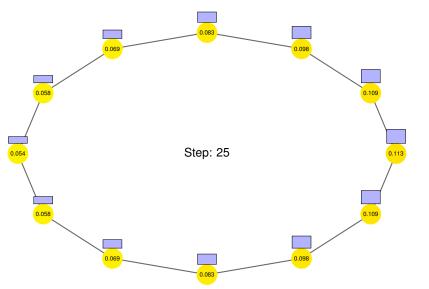




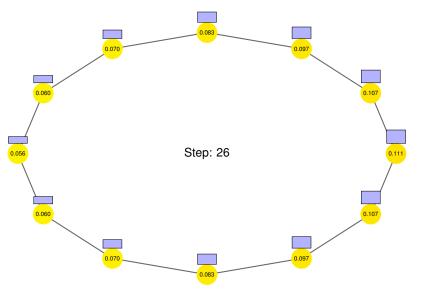




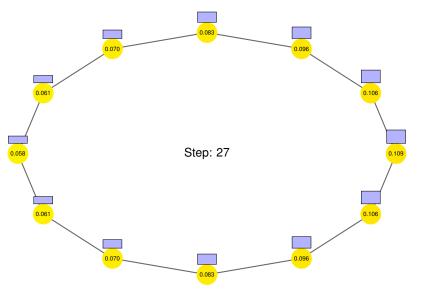




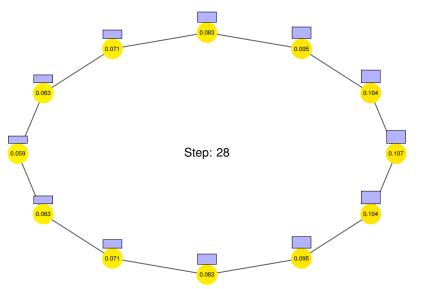




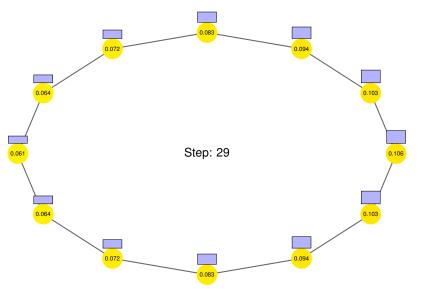




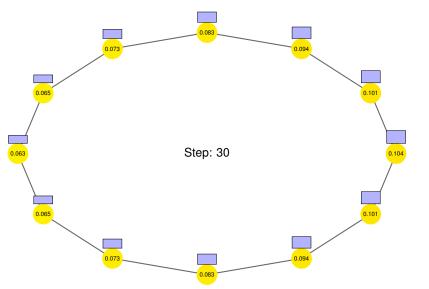




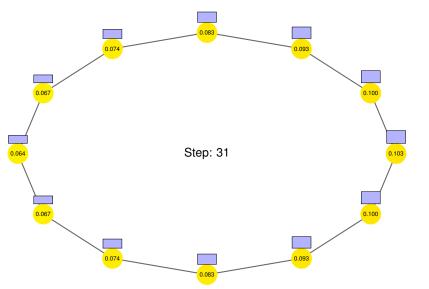




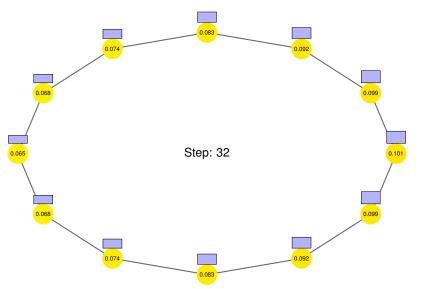




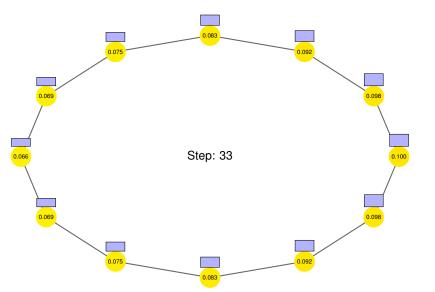




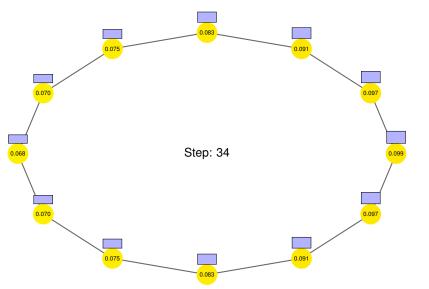




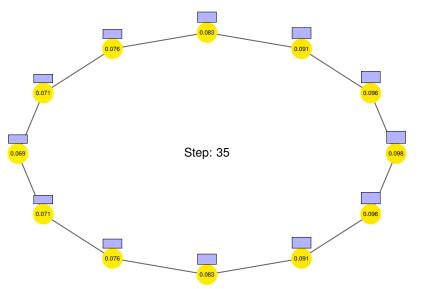




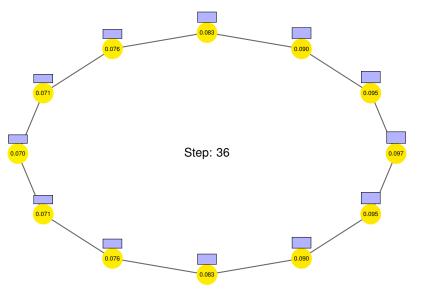




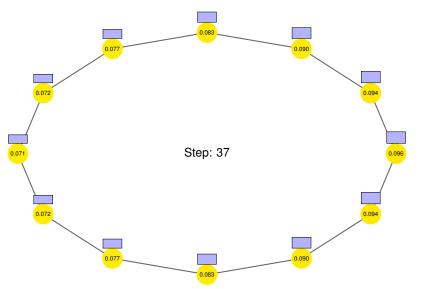




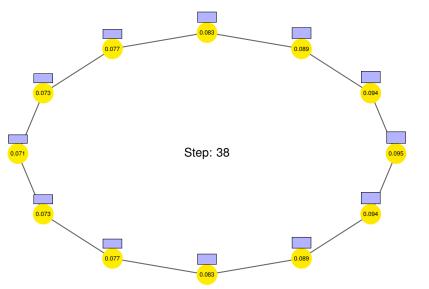




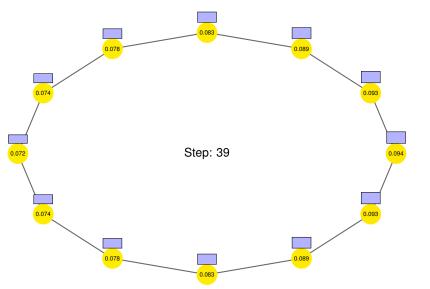




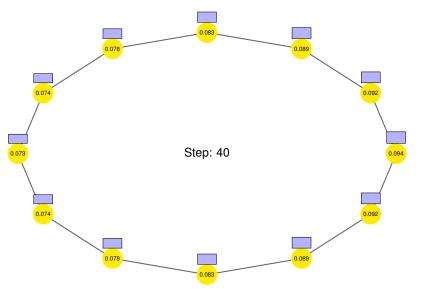




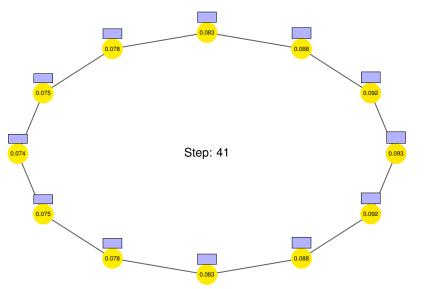




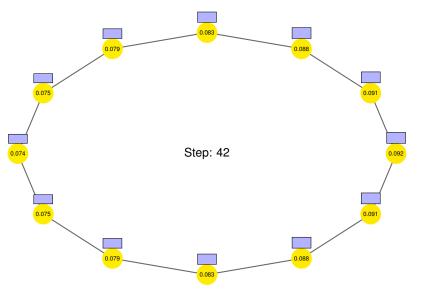




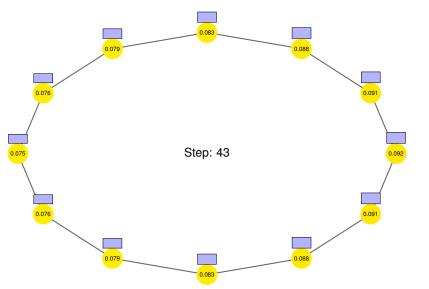




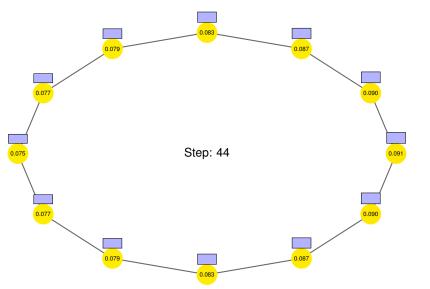




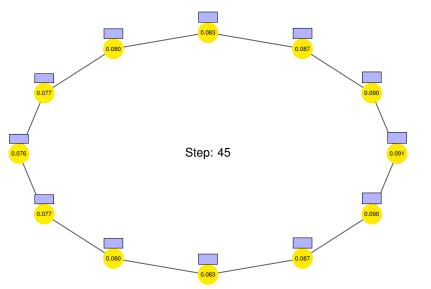




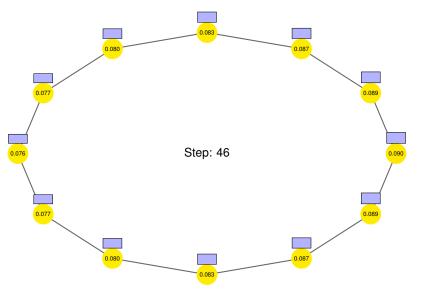




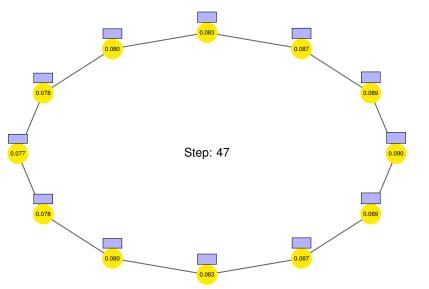




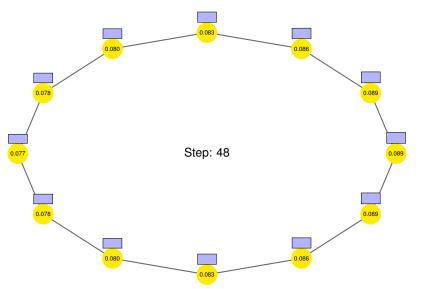




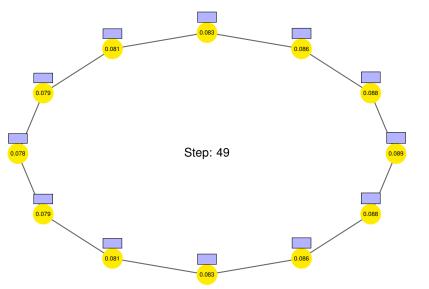




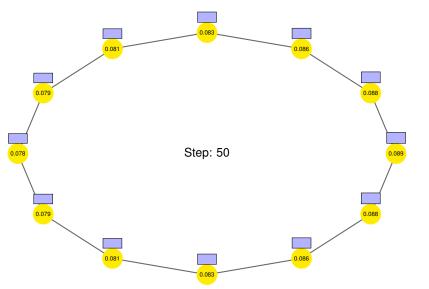














Lemma

Let $\gamma(M):=\max_{\mu_i\neq 1}|\mu_i|$, where $\mu_1=1>\mu_2\geq\cdots\geq\mu_n\geq -1$ are the eigenvalues of M. Then for any iteration t,

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 $e^{t+1} = Me^t$

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Taking norms and using that the v_i's are orthogonal.

$$\|e^{t+1}\|_2^2 = \|Me^t\|_2^2$$



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Proof:

- Let $e^t = x^t \overline{x}$, where \overline{x} is the column vector with all entries set to \overline{x}
- Express e^t through the orthogonal basis given by the eigenvectors of M:

$$e^t = \alpha_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \cdot \mathbf{v}_n = \sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_i.$$

• For the first order diffusion scheme, e^t is orthogonal to v_1

$$e^{t+1} = Me^t = M \cdot \left(\sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_i v_i\right) = \sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_i \mu_i v_i.$$

Taking norms and using that the v_i's are orthogonal,

$$\|\boldsymbol{e}^{t+1}\|_{2}^{2} = \|\boldsymbol{M}\boldsymbol{e}^{t}\|_{2}^{2} = \sum_{i=2}^{n} \alpha_{i}^{2} \mu_{i}^{2} \|\boldsymbol{v}_{i}\|_{2}^{2} \leq \gamma^{2} \sum_{i=2}^{n} \alpha_{i}^{2} \|\boldsymbol{v}_{i}\|_{2}^{2} = \gamma^{2} \cdot \|\boldsymbol{e}^{t}\|_{2}^{2} \qquad \Box$$



Lemma

For any eigenvalue μ_i , $1 \le i \le n$, there is an initial load vector x^0 so that

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How close can it be made to the idealised case?