

# Master Thesis

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February 2021

## 1 Introduction

A sorting network is a formal representation of a sorting algorithm that for any inputs generates monotonically increasing outputs. A sorting network is formed by  $n$  channels each of them carrying one input, which are connected pairwise by comparators. A comparator compares the inputs from its 2 channels and outputs them sorted to the same 2 channels. A comparator network is a sorting network if for any input sequence the output is always the sorted sequence. What makes sorting networks special is their high parallelization capacity, we can create parallel layers of comparators as long as none of them is part of the same input channel at once.

The creation of optimal sorting networks can be divided in 2 tasks. Finding sorting networks with less comparators, also called size optimization. And finding sorting networks with less parallel layers, also called depth optimization. In this thesis we will focus in the size optimization.

The search of optimal size sorting networks involves to test all comparator networks of a given size. For example to prove the optimality of the sorting network with 11 inputs and 35 comparators we should consider  $55 = (11 \times 10)/2$  possibilities to place each comparator in 2 out of 11 channels. Therefore the search space is of  $55^{35} \approx 9 \times 10^{60}$  comparator networks.

This problem can only be addressed by using symmetry breaking rules to trim the search space. For this matter first I implemented the method used in [4] called generate and prune. This method is formed by 2 phases. In the generate phase, starting with a one comparator network it iteratively creates new networks with one comparator more in all possible positions. In the prune phase the redundant networks (networks equivalent to others in the set) are removed. This way the search space is reduced to  $2.2 \times 10^{37}$  to around  $3.3 \times 10^{21}$  for the 9 inputs network.

In the first part of this thesis, focused in improving the implementation using modern programming languages and reducing the memory and CPU consumption. This itself allowed to reproduce the same results than in [4] with only 10 hours of compute time in a 64 cores computer more modest than the one used in [4] which took one week of computing. However, when trying to address the next open problem, this itself is not enough. Due to the combinatory explosion it would be necessary around a year of computing time in this computer to find a solution for the 11 input problem. This led to the second part of this thesis where I apply heuristics to the generate and prune method. During the test of heuristic I discovered without prove a method that allows to discover nets with the same size than all the already best size networks until 13 inputs. For 14 inputs and above again the sets are too big to be tested in the available hardware.

The combination of heuristic functions with generate and prune has dealt promising results, finding networks of the same size than the state of the art smallest networks in the interval 3-16. In the following chapters I will state with further details the work performed in this master thesis.

## 2 Sorting networks preliminaries

A comparator network with  $n$  inputs is a sequence of comparators, each comparator is formed by a tuple of channels  $C = (i_1, j_1); \dots; (i_k, j_k)$  where  $(1 \leq i_l < j_l \leq n)$ . We name size,  $S(n)$ , to the number of comparators the network has. An input  $\bar{x} = x_1 \dots x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$  outputs the network as follows:  $\bar{x}_0 = \bar{x}$  for  $0 < l \leq k$ ,  $x^l$  is a permutation of  $\bar{x}^{l-1}$  exchanging  $\bar{x}_{i_l}^{l-1}$  and  $\bar{x}_{j_l}^{l-1}$  if  $\bar{x}_{i_l}^{l-1} > \bar{x}_{j_l}^{l-1}$ . A comparator network is a sorting network if for any  $n$  inputs the outputs are the ascending ordered sequence. The reason we take only binary sequences is because of the zero-one principle[3] which states that a comparator network orders all sequences in  $\{0, 1\}$  if and only if it sorts all sequences in any ordered set such as the integers set. This also allows to test if a comparator network is a sorting network without testing  $n!$  combination of sequences. If a comparator network tests all the binary sequences in  $1-n$  it is enough to state that it is indeed a sorting network.

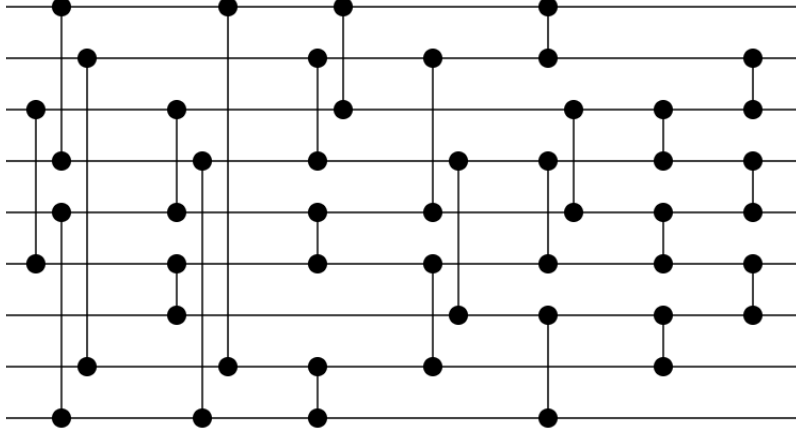


Figure 1: Size 8 sorting network

As stated before the creation of sorting networks with optimal size is the problem of finding networks with the smallest possible set of comparators. Until this date optimal size sorting networks exist for  $n \leq 12$ , in [1] Floyd and Knuth found optimal size sorting networks for  $n \leq 8$ . In [4] the optimal size networks for  $n = 9$  and  $n = 10$  are proved and [2] proves the optimal size networks for  $n = 11$  and  $n = 12$  using SAT encoders. The following lemma [5] is used to establish lower size bounds:

**Lemma 2.1**  $Size(n + 1) \geq Size(n) + \log_2 n$  for all  $n \geq 1$

Using the above lemma the sizes of  $S(10)$  was implied from  $S(9)$  in [4] and the size of  $S(12)$  was implied from  $S(11)$  in [2].

The method followed in this thesis is same than the one used in [4]. It makes use of the symmetries present in comparator networks to reduce the search space. These symmetries are formed by the permutation of channels. Given a comparator network  $C = c_1; c_2; \dots; c_k$  with size  $n$  where  $c = (i_t; j_t)$  with  $i \leq j \leq n$  and a permutation  $\pi$ .  $\pi(C)$  is the sequence  $\pi(c_1); \dots; \pi(c_k)$ . We call  $\pi(C)$  a generalized comparator network. This networks have the same properties than comparator networks with the exception that  $i_t$  can be bigger than  $j_t$ . In [3] an algorithm to convert any generalized sorting network to a standard sorting network with same size and depth is proposed.

To prove the size of  $S(n)$  we need to create a finite set of comparator networks that contains a sorting network. In the naive approach this set is all the comparator networks with  $n$  channels. In the next section I will explain how to reduce this set exploiting the symmetries in comparator networks.

### 3 Generate and Prune

As we have seen before, our objective is to generate a complete set for all the comparator networks with  $n$  channels and  $k$  comparators. To do that we start in the empty net and consecutively we add a new comparator in all possible ways. We call this complete set  $R_k^n$  in the naive approach adding a comparator in all possible positions deals to  $n*(n-1)/2$  comparator networks, as we have to repeat this step  $k$  times we end with  $(n*(n-1)/2)^k$  comparator networks. For  $k = 9$ ,  $R_{25}^9 \approx 3*10^{38}$  making this approach infeasible to compute. To reduce the search space the method Generate and Prune is introduced in [4] this algorithms take advantage of the symmetries in comparator networks. To explain the generate and prune approach we should introduce the next definition.

**Definition 3.1** *Given 2 comparator networks  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  and a permutation of the outputs  $\pi$  we say that  $C_a$  subsumes  $C_b$  if it exists any  $\pi(\text{outputs}(C_a)) \subseteq \text{outputs}(C_b)$ .*

**Lemma 3.2** *Given 2 comparator networks  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  if  $C_a$  subsumes  $C_b$  if there is a sorting network of the type  $C_b \cup C$  with size  $k$ , there is also a sorting network of the type  $C_a \cup C'$  with size  $k$ .*

The previous lemma implies that we can create a complete set of comparator networks while discarding the nets that are subsumed by any other net in the naive complete set. This is the base of the generate and prune algorithms. Starting with the empty set  $R_0^n$ , which corresponds to a comparator network with no comparators. The algorithms generate and prune work in the following way:

- Generate: Given the set  $R_k^n$  extends it to the set  $N_k^n + 1$  by adding a one extra comparator to each element in the previous set in any possible way.
- Prune: Given the set  $N_k^n + 1$  creates the set  $R_{k+1}^n$  removing any net subsumed by those nets that are not removed.

### 4 Generate and Prune Implementation

In this section we explain how to implement the generate and prune methods and some optimizations that can be applied to these algorithms and the subsumption tests.

## 4.1 Representation of comparator networks

To represent a comparator network we just need an array of comparators. However, as we explained before for the subsumption operation we need to apply permutations to the outputs. So, we choose to represent the comparator network together with its set of outputs. This allows to speed also the generation of this outputs when adding a new comparator as we will only need to apply the new comparator to the binary sequences of the previous outputs. Finally, in order to apply some optimizations that we will explain in the next subsections we need to store 2 more matrices and 1 array of size  $(n \times n)$  and  $n$  respectively (take into account that the matrices can be stored as a 1 dimension array and use bit operations to access to the matrix positions). The first 2 arrays store the positions where any output contains a 0 and a 1 and we call these 2 matrices  $W^0$  and  $W^1$  they are partitioned by the number of zeroes or ones. The last array contains the number of sequences with  $k$  1s in the outputs given  $k = 0, 1 \dots n$  and we call it  $S_k^1$ .

**Table 1** Comparator network outputs partitioned by number of 1s

number of 1s	0	1	2	3
$C_1$	0000	0001 1000	1010 1100	1011 1110
$C_2$	0000	1000 0010	1010 1100	1110 1101
$C_3$	0000	0010 0100 1000	0110 1010 1100	1110

To improve the memory usage as much as possible and make it more computationally efficient, the outputs array is implemented as an array of  $2^n$  bits where a position is set to 1 if the output is set and 0 otherwise. This allows to represent the outputs with only 512 bits in the case of  $n = 9$ . This also allows to generate the outputs very fast by the use of bitwise operations that are way faster in modern programming languages.

## 4.2 Subsume test implementation

The subsumption test involves searching for a permutation of the outputs where  $\pi(\text{outputs}(C_1)) \subseteq \text{outputs}(C_2)$  that can involve in the worst case the check of  $n!$  permutations. In the case of  $n=9$   $n! = 362880$ . However, in many cases it is not necessary to test any permutation to prove that a net does not subsume other.

First we look at the  $S_k^1$  array. If we take a look at the array in previous figure, we can see that the number of outputs with  $X$  1s in  $C_1$  is smaller than the one in  $C_2$  given this it is clear that  $C_1$  will not subsume  $C_2$ . Because a permutation of the outputs of  $C_1$  will never be a subset of the outputs of  $C_2$ . More formally we can define this as the following lemma.

**Lemma 4.1** *Given 2 comparator networks  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  with  $n$  channels and their arrays containing the number of sequences with  $k$  1s  $S1_k^1$  and  $S2_k^1$ . If for any  $k \geq 0 \leq n$ ,  $S1_k^1 > S2_k^1$   $C_1$  does not subsume  $C_2$ .*

In [4] they state that 70% of the subsumption tests are discarded on application of previous lemma.

If we look again to the outputs in the figure above, in the column that contains the outputs with  $X$  number of 1s we can also notice that  $C_1$  does not subsume  $C_2$ . That's because the digit 0 appears only in  $X$  positions in the sequences in  $C_1$  while in  $Y$  positions in the sequences of  $C_2$  and that will stay the same given any permutation. More formally it can be expressed in the following lemma:

**Lemma 4.2** *Given 2 comparator networks  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  with  $n$  channels with their arrays  $W^x$ ,  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $0 \leq k \leq n$  we denote  $P_k^x$  to the number of positions that  $x$  appears in  $k$  partition of  $W^x$ . If  $P^x(C_a, k) > P^x(C_b, k)$  then  $C_a$  does not subsume  $C_b$ .*

In [4] they state that 15% of the subsumption tests that are not discarded on application of Lemma 4.1 are discarded on application of Lemma 4.2.

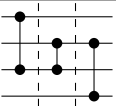
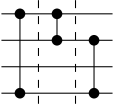
If the subsumption test is not discarded in application of previous lemmas, there is no other way than trying to find a permutation that satisfies the condition of  $\pi(\text{outputs}(C_a)) \subseteq \text{outputs}(C_b)$  as we stated before the running time of this is  $n!$  in the case that  $C_a$  does not subsume  $C_b$ . However, in many cases we can avoid lots of checks by using the  $W^0$  and  $W^1$  arrays. Which leads to the following lemma:

**Lemma 4.3** *Given 2 comparator networks  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  with  $n$  channels with their*

arrays  $W^x$ ,  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $0 \leq k \leq n$ . If it exists a permutation  $\pi(\text{outputs}(C_a)) \subseteq \text{outputs}(C_b)$  then  $\pi(W^x(C_a, k)) \subseteq (W^x(C_b, k))$ .

The above lemma allows us in practice to skip thousands of permutations. This way we can implement the permutation generation with a backtracking algorithm that avoids expanding branches that cannot lead to a feasible solution.

As an example we have the next 2 Comparator networks represented by their comparators pairs  $C_1 = [(2, 4), (2, 3), (1, 3)]$  and  $C_2 = [(1, 4), (3, 4), (1, 3)]$ . Now we represent the outputs of these networks partitioned by their number of 1s (we discard the trivial outputs with all ones and all zeroes).

<b>Table 2</b> Comparator network outputs partitioned by number of 1s			
<b>number of 1s</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
$C_1$ 	0010 1000	0110 1010 1100	0111 1110
$C_2$ 	0010 0100 1000	0101 0110 1010 1100	0111 1101 1110

With these partitioned sets we can create their  $W^x$  matrices. Which allow us to know in which positions the outputs contain a zero or a 1.

<b>Table 3</b> W matrices partitioned by number of 1s or 0s			
<b>number of 1s or 0s</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
$W1^0$	1111	1111	1001
$W1^1$	1110	1110	1111
$W2^0$	1111	1111	1011
$W2^1$	1110	1111	1111

The above matrices show the positions that  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  appears in the Outputs array of the comparator network. If there is a 0 in certain position it means that  $x$  doesn't appear in that position in the outputs array. For example, if we look

at the partition with 3 zeroes in the  $W1^0$  matrix we see that 0 only appears in the positions 1 and 4.

Combining the information of these 4 matrices we can obtain another matrix that will tell us the forbidden positions for the permutations. We call this matrix  $P$ , each row refers to an index  $0, ..n$  in the outputs, if there is a 0 in a specific position it means that the permutation cannot contain that number in that specific position. To create the positions matrix we iterate the elements in both  $W$  matrices for  $C_1$ . If there is a 1 in that position for any of the matrices we check if there is also a 1 in the correspondent matrices of  $C_2$ , in that case that position is allowed and we set it to 1. For the given comparator networks we obtain the following positions matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If we look carefully into the matrix, we can see that the 3rd column contains only zeroes. So, no index is allowed in the third position. This way we can say that  $C_1$  does not subsume  $C_2$  without trying any of the permutations. This applies also to the case that a row is all zeroes, which means that the bit in that position cannot be permuted to any of the other positions. This matrix allows to speed up the subsume operation and avoid expanding permutations that will not lead to a solution.

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**Algorithm 1** Generate

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```

result  $\leftarrow \emptyset$ 
N  $\leftarrow$  networks
C  $\leftarrow$  comparators
for n in N do
  for c in C do
     $n' \leftarrow n \cup c$ 
    if  $n'$  is not redundant then
       $result \leftarrow result \cup n'$ 
    end if
  end for
   $n' \leftarrow$ 
end for
return result

```

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**Algorithm 2** Prune

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```
 $R \leftarrow \emptyset$   
 $N \leftarrow \text{networks}$   
for  $n$  in  $N$  do  
  for  $r$  in  $R$  do  
    if  $r$  subsumes  $n$  then  
       $\text{subsumed} \leftarrow \text{true}$   
      break  
    end if  
    if  $n$  subsumes  $r$  then  
       $R \leftarrow R \setminus r$   
    end if  
  end for  
  if  $\text{subsumed}$  is false then  
     $R \leftarrow R \cup n$   
  end if  
end for  
return  $R$ 
```

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**Algorithm 3** Parallel Prune

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```
 $N \leftarrow \text{networks}$   
 $C \leftarrow \text{Divide}(N)$  {Divide N in as many Clusters as processor}  
Each processor performs:  
Prune( $C_i$ )  
for  $c$  in  $C$  do  
  Remove( $c, C \setminus c$ )  
end for  
return  $N$ 
```

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**Algorithm 4** Remove

---

```
 $\text{result} \leftarrow \emptyset$   
 $N_i \leftarrow \text{networks}$   
 $N_j \leftarrow \text{networks}$   
for  $n_i$  in  $N_i$  do  
  for  $n_j$  in  $N_j$  do  
    if  $n_i$  subsumes  $n_j$  then  
       $N_j \leftarrow N_j \setminus n_j$   
    end if  
  end for  
end for  
return  $N_j$ 
```

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## 5 Subsume Implementations

### 5.1 Permutations Enumeration

### 5.2 Bigraph Perfect Matchings

## 6 Heuristics

In the following table I compare the sets for n=9 of both implementations:

k	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
R9k	1	3	7	20	59	208	807	3415	14,343	55,951	188,730	480,322	854,638
R9k'	1	2	3	7	13	22	41	77	136	229	302	403	531

k	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
R9k	914,444	607,164	274,212	94,085	25,786	5699	1107	250	73	27	8	1
R9k'	586	570	519	413	314	230	179	123	57	24	8	1

Sorting networks with reduced population sets:

size	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
100 comparators	25	30	35	39	48	53	59	63
250 comparators	25	30	35	39	48	53	59	63
500 comparators	25	29	35	39	48	53	59	61
1000 comparators	25	29	35	39	48	51	59	61
5000 comparators	25	29	35	39	47	51	57	60
Best actual size	25	29	35	39	45	51	56	60

## 7 Conclusion

## References

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