





Massively Parallel Algorithms Parallel Sorting

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Sorting using Spaghetti in O(1) (?)

- Is O(n) really the lower bound for sorting?
- Consider the following thought experiment:
 - B. For each number x in the list, cut a spaghetto to length $x \rightarrow \text{list} = \text{bundle of spaghetti & unary repr.}$
 - C. Hold the spaghetti loosely in your hand and tap them on the kitchen table \rightarrow takes O(1)!
 - D. Lower your other hand from above until it meets with a spaghetto this one is clearly the longest
 - E. Remove this spaghetto and insert it into the front of the output list
 - F. Repeat
- If we could use this mechanical computer, then sorting would be O(1)







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- Insertion sort:
 - Considers only one element at a time
- Quicksort:
 - Yes, some parallelism at lower levels of the recursion tree
 - But, would need *median* as a pivot element \rightarrow hard to find
 - Otherwise, random pivot element causes varying sub-array sizes
- Heapsort:
 - Only one element at a time
 - Heap (= recursive data structure) is difficult on mass.-parallel architecture
- Radix sort:
 - Yes, we've seen that already, works well
 - But, can handle only fixed-length numbers



Assumptions



- In this chapter, we will always assume that $n = 2^k$
- Elements can have any type, for which there is a comparison operator



Sorting Networks



- Informal definition of comparator networks:
 - Consist of a bundle of "wires"
 - Each wire *i* carries a data element *D_i* (e.g., float) from left to right
 - Two wires can be connected vertically by a comparator
 - If D_i > D_j ∧ i < j (i.e., wrong order), then D_i and D_j are swapped by the comparator before they move on along the wires



- Observation: every comparator network is data independent, i.e., the arrangement of comparators and the running time are always the same!
- Goal: find a "small" comparator network that performs sorting for any input \rightarrow sorting network











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Definition (monotone function):

Let A, B be two sets with a total ordering relation,

and let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a mapping.

f is called monotone iff

$$orall a_1$$
, $a_2 \in A$: $a_1 \leq a_2 \Rightarrow f(a_1) \leq f(a_2)$

Lemma:

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be monotone. Then, f and min commute, i.e.

$$\forall a_1, a_2 \in A : f(\min(a_1, a_2)) = \min(f(a_1), f(a_2))$$

Analogously for the max.

Proof:

Case 1:
$$a_1 \le a_2 \Rightarrow f(a_1) \le f(a_2)$$

 $\min(a_1, a_2) = a_1$, $\min(f(a_1), f(a_2)) = f(a_1)$
 $f(\min(a_1, a_2)) = f(a_1) = \min(f(a_1), f(a_2))$

Case 2: $a_2 < a_1 \rightarrow \text{analog}$





• Extension of $f: A \rightarrow B$ to sequences over A and B, resp.:

$$f(a_0,\ldots,a_n)=f(a_0),\ldots,f(a_n)$$

Lemma:

Let *f* be a monotone mapping and \mathcal{N} a comparator network. Then \mathcal{N} and *f* commute, i.e.

$$\forall n \forall a_0, \ldots, a_n : \mathcal{N}(f(a)) = f(\mathcal{N}(a))$$



Proof:

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- Let $a = (a_0, \ldots, a_n)$ be a sequence
- Notation: we write a comparator connecting wire *i* and *j* like so:
 [*i* : *j*](*a*)



• Now the following is true:

$$[i:j](f(a)) = [i:j](f(a_0), \dots, f(a_n))$$

= $(f(a_0), \dots, \underbrace{\min(f(a_i), f(a_j))}_{i}, \dots, \underbrace{\max(f(a_i), f(a_j))}_{j}, \dots, f(a_n))$
= $(f(a_0), \dots, f(\min(a_i, a_j)), \dots, f(\max(a_i, a_j)), \dots, f(a_n))$
= $f(a_0, \dots, \min(a_i, a_j), \dots, \max(a_i, a_j), \dots, a_n)$
= $f([i:j](a))$





Theorem (the 0-1 principle):

Let \mathcal{N} be a comparator network. Now, if \mathcal{N} sorts *every* sequence of 0's and 1's, then it also sorts *every* sequence of arbitrary elements!





- Proof (by contradiction):
 - Assumption: \mathcal{N} sorts all 0-1 sequences, but does not sort sequence a
 - Then $\mathcal{N}(a) = b$ is not sorted correctly, i.e. $\exists k : b_k > b_{k+1}$
 - Define $f: A \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ as follows:

$$f(c) = egin{cases} 0, & c < b_k \ 1, & c \geq b_k \end{cases}$$

• Now, the following holds:

$$f(b) = f(\mathcal{N}(a)) = \mathcal{N}(f(a)) = \mathcal{N}(a')$$

where a' is a 0-1 sequence.

- But: f(b) is not sorted, because $f(b_k) = 1$ and $f(b_{k+1}) = 0$
- Therefore, $\mathcal{N}(a')$ is not sorted as well, in other words, we have constructed a 0-1 sequence that is not sorted correctly by \mathcal{N} .

Batcher's Odd-Even-Mergesort

- In the following, we'll always assume that the length *n* of a sequence $a_0,...,a_{n-1}$ is a power of 2, i.e., $n = 2^k$
- First of all, we define the sub-routine "odd-even merge":

```
oem (a_0, ..., a_{n-1}):
precondition: a_0, \dots, a_{n_2-1} and a_{n_2}, \dots, a_{n-1} are both sorted
postcondition: a_0, ..., a_{n-1} is sorted
if n = 2:
                                                                                                (1)
      compare [a_0:a_1]
if n > 2:
      \bar{a} \leftarrow a_0, a_2, \dots, a_{n-2} // = even sub-sequence
      \hat{\mathbf{a}} \leftarrow \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{n-1}
                                                // = odd sub-sequence
       \overline{b} \leftarrow \text{oem}(\overline{a})
       \hat{b} \leftarrow oem(\hat{a})
                                                                                                 (2)
      copy \ \overline{b} \rightarrow a_0, a_2, \dots, a_{n-2}
      copy \hat{b} \rightarrow a_1, a_3, \dots, a_{n-1}
      for i \in \{1, 3, 5, ..., n-3\}
                                                                                                 (3)
             compare [a_i : a_{i+1}]
```



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- Proof of correctness:
 - By induction and the 0-1-principle
 - Base case: n = 2
 - Induction step: $n = 2^k$, k > 1
 - Consider a 0-1-sequence a₀,...,a_{n-1}
 - Write it in two columns
 - Visualize 0 = white, 1 = grey
 - Obviously: both ā and â consist of two sorted halves → preconditon of *oem* is met



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 In loop (3), these comparisons are made, and there can be only 3 cases:

 Afterwards, one of these two situations has been established:

- Result: the output sequence is sorted
- Conclusion:

every 0-1-sequence (meeting the preconditions) is sorted correctly

• Running time (sequ.) :
$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \frac{n}{2} - 1 \in O\left(n \log n\right)$$







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• The complete general sorting-algorithm:

```
oemSort(a_0, ..., a_{n-1}):
if n = 1:
    return
a_0, ..., a_{n/2}-1 \leftarrow oemSort(a_0, ..., a_{n/2}-1)
a_{n/2}, ..., a_{n-1} \leftarrow oemSort(a_{n/2}, ..., a_{n-1})
oem(a_0, ..., a_{n-1})
```

• Running time (sequ.): $T(n) \in O(n \log^2 n)$



Optional

Mapping the Recursion on a Massively-Parallel Architecture

- Load data onto the GPU (global memory)
- The CPU executes the following controlling program:

```
oemSort(n):

if n = 1 \rightarrow return

oemSort(n/2)

oem(n, 1)
```

```
oem( n, stride ):
if n = 2:
    launch oemBaseCaseKernel(stride)
    // launches n parallel threads
else:
    oem( n/2, stride*2 )
    launch oemRecursionKernel(stride)
```

• With the stride parameter, we can achieve sorting "in situ"





Optional



• The kernel for line (3) of the original function *oem*():

```
oemRecursionKernel( stride ):
if tid < stride || tid ≥ n-stride:
    output SortData[tid]
else:
    a_i ← SortData[tid]
    a_j ← SortData[ tid+stride ]
    if tid/stride is even:
        output max( a_i, a_j )
    else:
        output min( a_i, a_j )
```

• As usual, *tid* = thread ID = 0, ..., *n*-1





Kernel for line (1) of the function *oem*():

 Reminder: this kernel is executed in parallel for each index *tid* = 0, ..., *n*-1 in a stream





Depth complexity:

$$\frac{1}{2}\log^2 n + \frac{1}{2}\log n$$

• E.g., for 2²⁰ elements this are 210 passes



Bitonic Sorting



Definition "bitonic sequence":

A sequence of numbers $a_0, ..., a_{n-1}$ is bitonic \Leftrightarrow there is an index *i* such that

- $a_0, ..., a_i$ is monotonically increasing, and
- a_{i+1} , ..., a_{n-1} is monotonically decreasing; OR

if there is a cyclic shift of this sequence such that this is the case.

Because of the latter "OR", we understand all index arithmetic in the following modulo n, and/or we assume in the following that the sequence(s) have been cyclically shifted as described above





- Examples of bitonic sequences:
 - 0 2 4 8 10 9 7 5 3 ; 2 4 8 10 9 7 5 3 0 ; 4 8 10 9 7 5 3 0 2 ; …
 - 10 12 14 20 95 90 60 40
 35 23 18 0 3 5 8 9
 - **1**2345
 - •[]
 - 00000111110000; 1111100000111111; 1111100000
 - 1111100000 ; 000011111



- These sequences are NOT bitonic sequences:
 - 123123
 - 123012





Visual representation of bitonic sequences:



- Because of the "modulo" index arithmetic, we can also visualize them on a circle or cylinder:
 - Clearly,
 bitonic sequences
 have exactly
 two inflection
 points







Properties of Bitonic Sequences

- Any sub-sequence of a bitonic sequence is a bitonic sequence
 - More precisely, assume $a_0, ..., a_{n-1}$ is bitonic and we have indices $0 \le i_1 \le i_2 \le ... \le i_m < n$
 - Then, a_{i_0} , a_{i_1} , ..., a_{i_m} is bitonic, too
- If a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} is bitonic, then a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_0 is bitonic, too
- (If we mirror a bitonic sequence "upside down", then the new sequence is bitonic, too)
- A bitonic sequence has exactly one local(!) minimum and one local maximum



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Some Notions and Definitions

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More precise graphical notation of a comparator:



- Definition rotation operator:
 - Let $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, ..., a_{n-1})$, and $j \in [1, n-1]$.

We define the rotation operator R_j acting on **a** as

$$R_j \mathbf{a} = (a_j, a_{j+1}, \ldots, a_{j+n-1})$$





Definition L / U operator:

$$L\mathbf{a} = (\min(a_0, a_{\frac{n}{2}}), \dots, \min(a_{\frac{n}{2}-1}, a_{n-1}))$$
$$U\mathbf{a} = (\max(a_0, a_{\frac{n}{2}}), \dots, \max(a_{\frac{n}{2}-1}, a_{n-1}))$$

Lemma:

The L/U operators are rotation invariant, i.e.

$$L\mathbf{a} = R_{-j}LR_j\mathbf{a}$$
, and $U\mathbf{a} = R_{-j}UR_j\mathbf{a}$.

(Remember that indices are always meant mod *n*)

Proof :

- We need to show that $R_j L \mathbf{a} = L R_j \mathbf{a}$
- This is trivially the case:

$$LR_{j}\mathbf{a} = (\min(a_{j}, a_{j+\frac{n}{2}}), \dots, \min(a_{\frac{n}{2}-1}, a_{n-1}), \dots, \min(a_{j-1}, a_{j-1+\frac{n}{2}})) = \dots$$





- Definition half-cleaner:
 A network that takes a as input and outputs (*La*, *Ua*) is called a half-cleaner.
- The network that realizes a half-cleaner:



- Because of the rotation invariance, we can depict a half-cleaner on a circle:
 - It always produces La and Ua, no matter how a is rotated around the circle!







Theorem 1:

Given a bitonic input sequence **a**, the output of a half-cleaner has the following properties:

- 1. La and Ua are bitonic, too;
- **2.** $\max{La} \le \min{Ua}$



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- The half-cleaner does the following:
 - 1. Shift (only conceptually) the right half of **a** over to the left
 - **2**. Take the point-wise min/max \rightarrow *L***a** , *U***a**
 - 3. Shift Ua back to the right
- Because **a** is bitonic, there can be only one *cross-over point*
- By construction, both La and Ua must have length n/2
- Property 1 follows from the sub-sequence property





The Bitonic Merger

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- The half-cleaner is the basic (and only) building block for the bitonic sorting network!
- The recursive definition of a bitonic merger $BM^{\uparrow}(n)$:
- Input: bitonic sequence of length *n* Output: sorted sequence in ascending order
- Analogously, we can define $BM^{\downarrow}(n)$





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Visualization of the Workings of a Bitonic Merger







Mapping to Massively Parallel Architecture



- We have $n = 2^k$ many "lanes" = threads
- At each step, each thread needs to figure out its partner for compare/ exchange
- This can be done by considering the ID of each process (in binary):
 - At step j, j = 1, ..., k: partner ID = ID obtained by reversing bit (k-j) of own ID
- Example:





The Bitonic Sorter



• The recursive definition of a bitonic sorter $BS^{\uparrow}(n)$:

