



Massively Parallel Algorithms

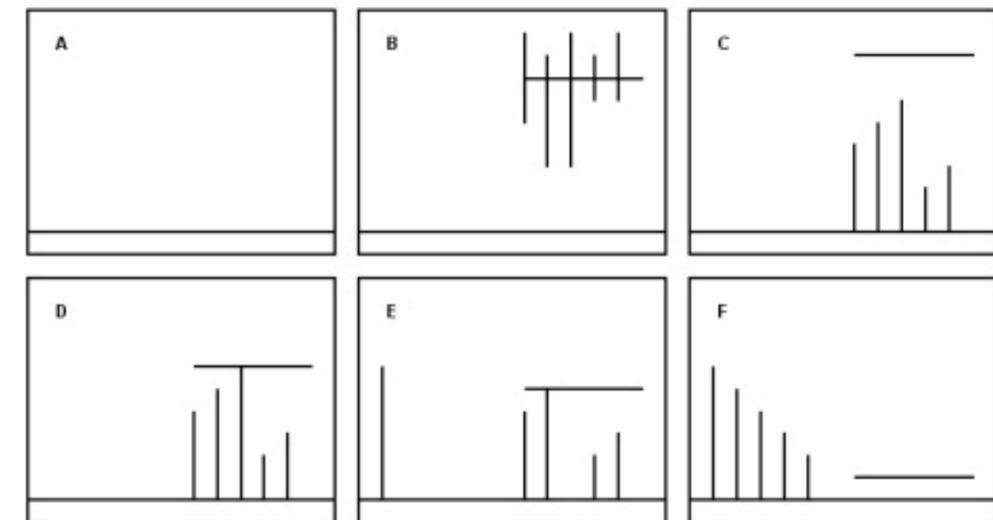
Parallel Sorting



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Sorting using Spaghetti in $O(1)$ (?)

- Is $O(n)$ really the lower bound for sorting?
- Consider the following thought experiment:
 2. For each number x in the list, cut a spaghetti to length x
→ list = bundle of spaghetti & unary repr.
 3. Hold the spaghetti loosely in your hand and tap them on the kitchen table → takes $O(1)$!
 4. Lower your other hand from above until it meets with a spaghetti — this one is clearly the longest
 5. Remove this spaghetti and insert it into the front of the output list
 6. Repeat
- If we could use this *mechanical* computer, then sorting would be $O(1)$, unless you count the extraction, too :-)



Difficulties With Parallel Implementation of Standard Sequential Algorithms

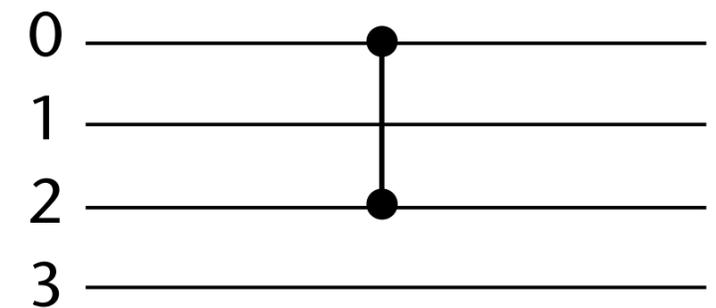
- Insertion sort: considers only one element at a time
- Quicksort:
 - Yes, some parallelism at lower levels of the recursion tree is possible
 - But, would need the *median* as a pivot element → hard to find
 - Otherwise, random pivot element causes very different sub-array sizes
- Heapsort:
 - Only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

Assumptions

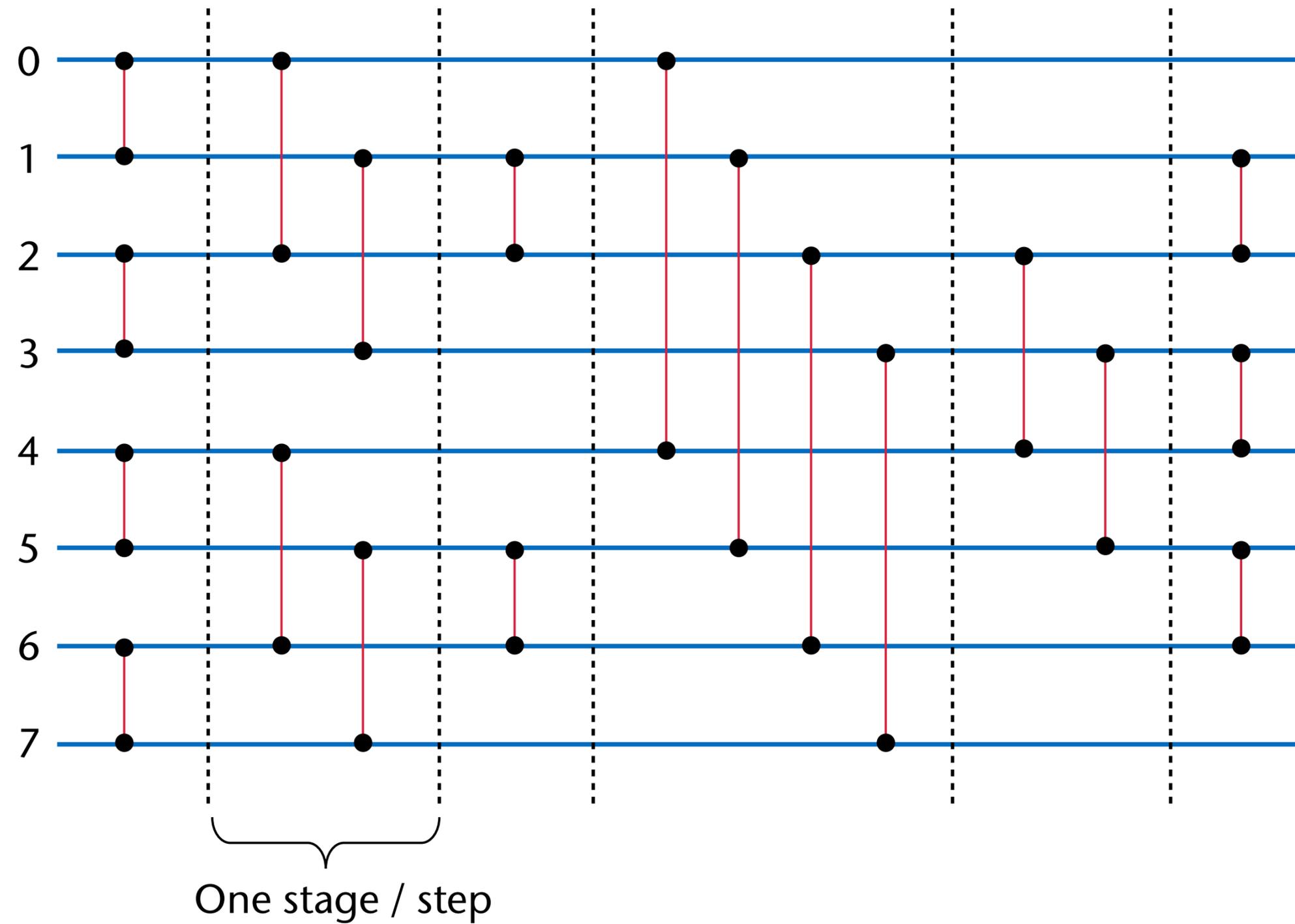
- In this chapter, we will always assume that $n = 2^k$
- Elements can have any type, for which there is a *comparison* operator

Sorting Networks

- Informal definition of **comparator networks**:
 - Consist of a bundle of "wires"
 - Each wire i carries a data element D_i (e.g., floats) from left to right
 - Two wires can be connected vertically by a **comparator**
 - If $D_i > D_j \wedge i < j$ (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
→ **sorting network**



Example



Extension to Sequences

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

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

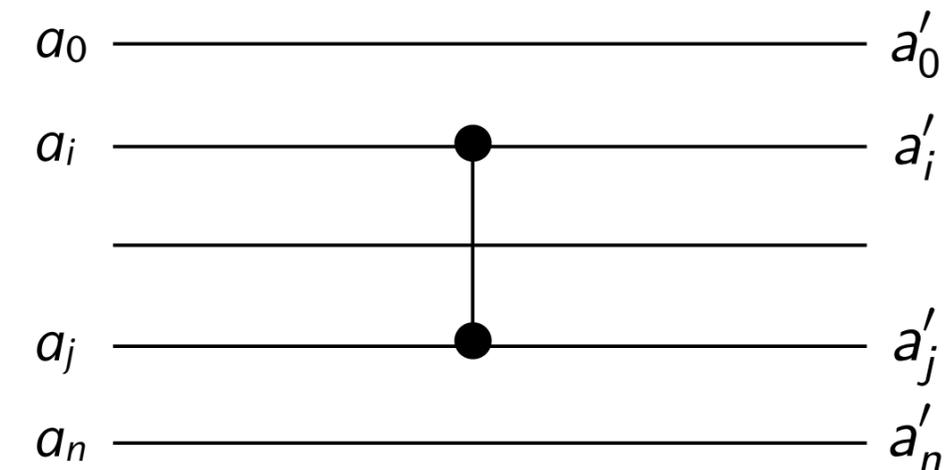
- Commutative Lemma for Comparator Networks:

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

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

Proof

- Let $a = (a_0, \dots, a_n)$ be a sequence
- Notation: we write a comparator connecting wires i and j like so: $a' = [i : j](a)$
- Now the following is true:



$$\begin{aligned}
 [i : j](f(a)) &= [i : j](f(a_0), \dots, f(a_n)) \\
 &= (f(a_0), \dots, \underbrace{\min(f(a_i), f(a_j))}_i, \dots, \underbrace{\max(f(a_i), f(a_j))}_j, \dots, f(a_n)) \\
 &= (f(a_0), \dots, f(\min(a_i, a_j)), \dots, f(\max(a_i, a_j)), \dots, f(a_n)) \\
 &= f(a_0, \dots, \min(a_i, a_j), \dots, \max(a_i, a_j), \dots, a_n) \\
 &= f([i : j](a))
 \end{aligned}$$

- Theorem (**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: $f(c) = \begin{cases} 0, & c < b_k \\ 1, & c \geq b_k \end{cases}$

- Now, the following holds:

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

\uparrow
f monotone, Commut. Lemma

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

[1968]



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

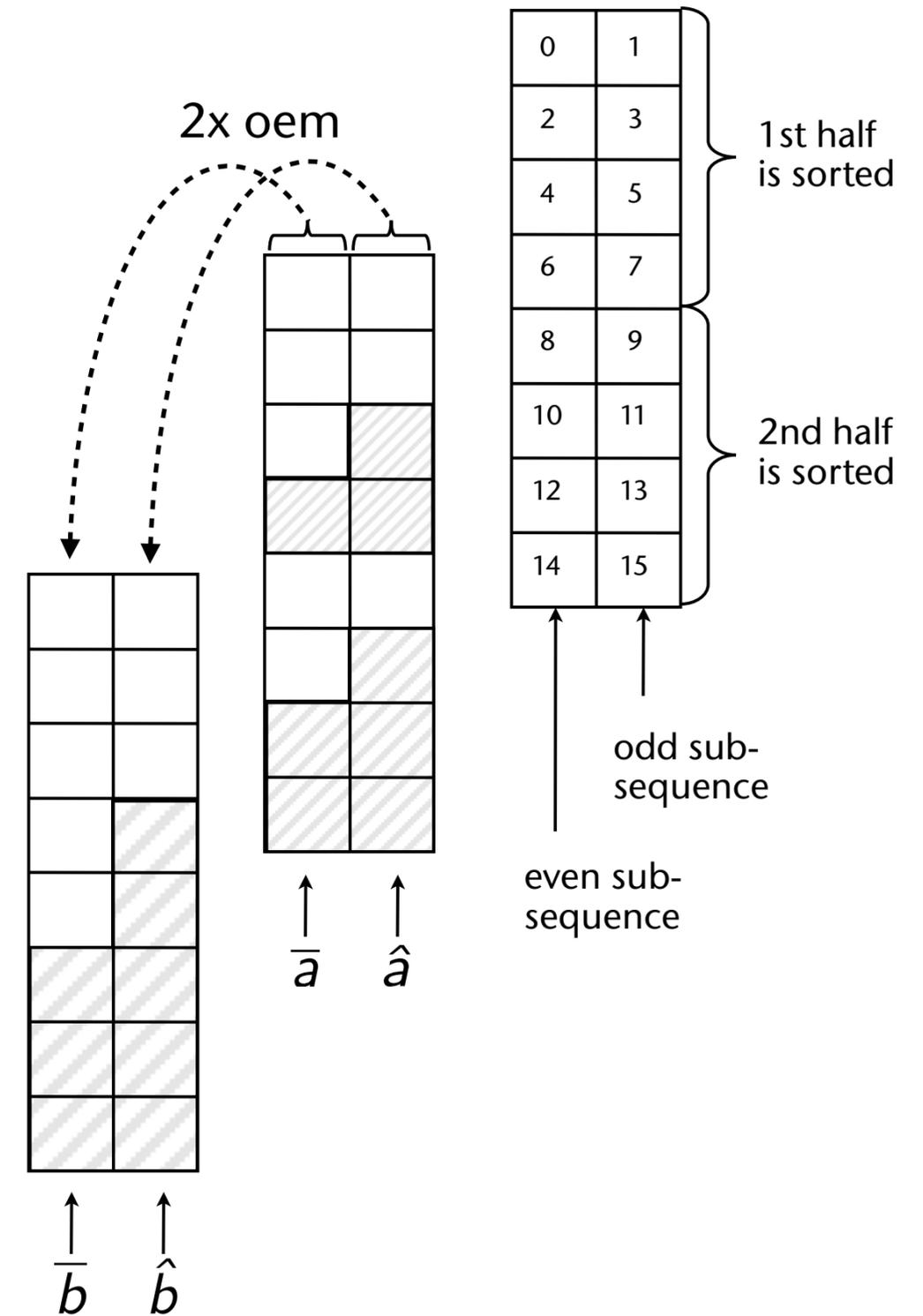
```

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

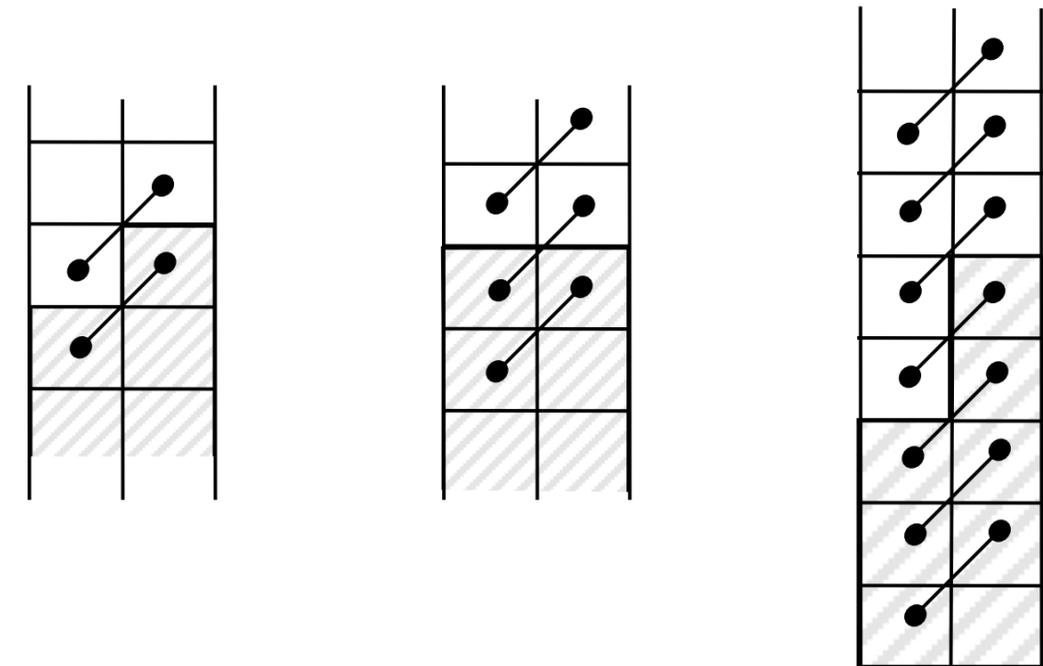
```

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 a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}
- Write it in two columns
- Visualize 0 = white, 1 = grey
- Obviously: both \bar{a} and \hat{a} consist of two sorted halves \rightarrow precondition of **oem** is met
- After line (2) in the algo, we have this situation (the odd sub-sequence can have at most two 1's more than the even sub-sequence)



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



- Afterwards, one of these two situations has been established:

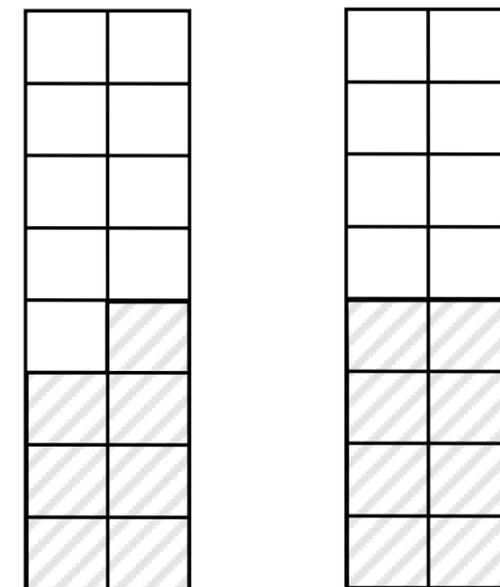
- Result: the output sequence is sorted

- Conclusion:

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

- Running time (sequ.) :

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \frac{n}{2} - 1 \in O(n \log n)$$



- The complete general sorting algorithm:

```
oemSort(a0, ..., an-1) :  
if n = 1:  
    return  
a0, ..., an/2 - 1 ← oemSort(a0, ..., an/2 - 1)  
an/2, ..., an-1 ← oemSort(an/2, ..., an-1)  
oem(a0, ..., an-1)
```

- Running time (sequ.): $T(n) \in O(n \log^2 n)$
- Note: in a real implementation, no copying is done!

Mapping the Recursion to a Massively-Parallel Architecture

Only FYI

- Load data onto the GPU (global memory)
- Each recursion in the sequential `oem` can be mapped to a stride parameter value, so that sorting can be done *in situ*: recursion $i \rightarrow \text{stride} = 2^i$; at that recursion level / iteration, the algo works only on elements that are stride places apart
- The CPU executes the following control program (informal):

```
oemSort(n) :  
if n = 1 → return  
do in parallel:  
    oemSort( lower n/2 )  
    oemSort( upper n/2 )  
oem( n, 1 )
```

```
oem( n, stride ) :  
if n = 2:  
    launch oemBaseCaseKernel(stride)  
    // launch N (not n) threads  
else:  
    oem( n/2, stride*2 )  
    launch oemRecursionKernel(stride)
```

N = total size of input , n = #elements the function will actually look at

Only FYI

- The kernel for line (3) of the original function `oem()`:

```
oemRecursionKernel( stride ):  
if tid < stride || tid ≥ n-stride:  
    output SortData[tid]          // pass through  
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, $tid = \text{thread ID} = 0, \dots, n-1$

Only FYI

- Kernel for line (1) of the function `oem()`:
 - Reminder: this kernel is executed in parallel for each index $tid = 0, \dots, n-1$

```
oemBaseCaseKernel ( stride ):  
i = tid // = thread ID  
if tid/stride is even: // are we on even/odd side?  
    j = i + stride  
else:  
    j = i - stride  
a0 ← SortData[i] // SortData = global array  
a1 ← SortData[j]  
if on even side:  
    SortData[i] = min(a0,a1) // write output back  
else:  
    SortData[i] = max(a0,a1)
```

Only FYI

- Depth complexity:

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

- E.g., for 2^{20} elements this amounts to 210 passes

Bitonic Sorting

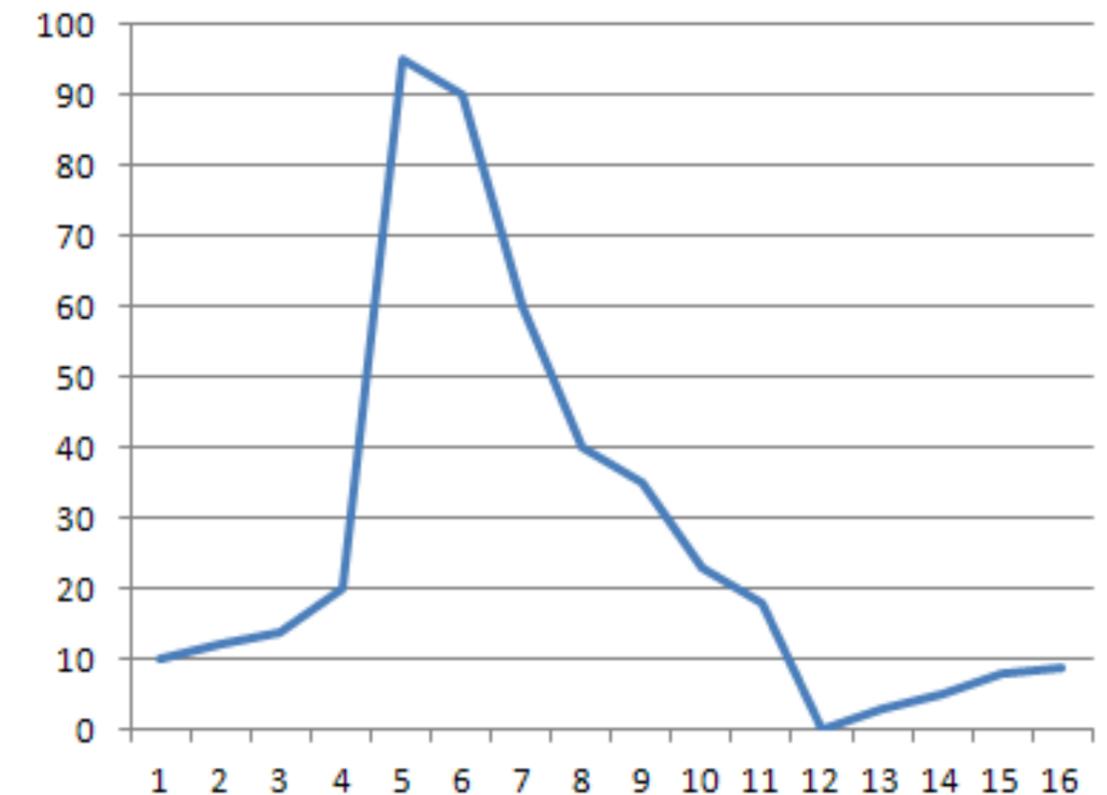
- Definition "**bitonic sequence**":

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

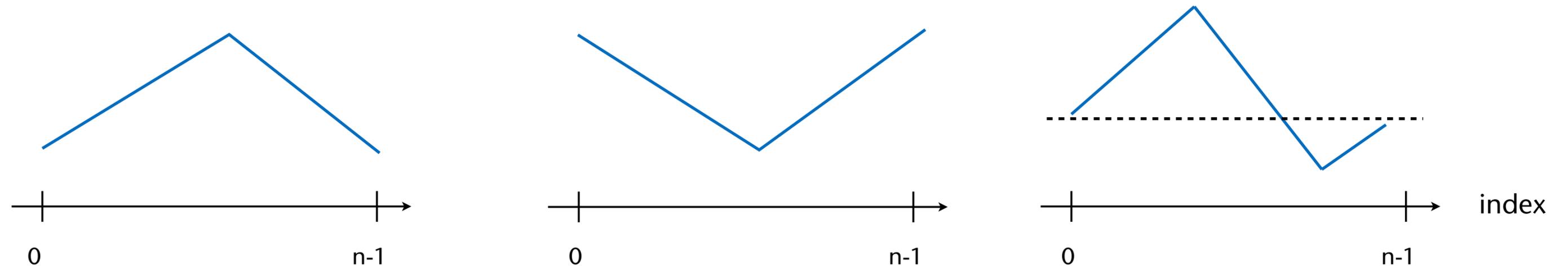
- a_0, \dots, a_i is monotonically increasing, and
 a_{i+1}, \dots, a_{n-1} is monotonically decreasing;
 - OR, if there is a cyclic shift of this sequence such that this is the case.
- Because of the second condition (OR), we understand *all index arithmetic* in the following **modulo n** , and/or we assume in the following that the sequence(s) have been cyclically shifted as described above

Examples of bitonic sequences

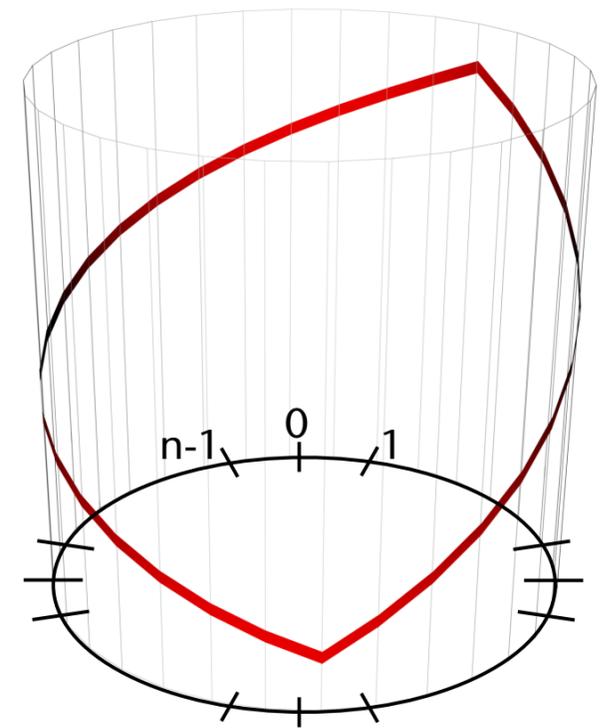
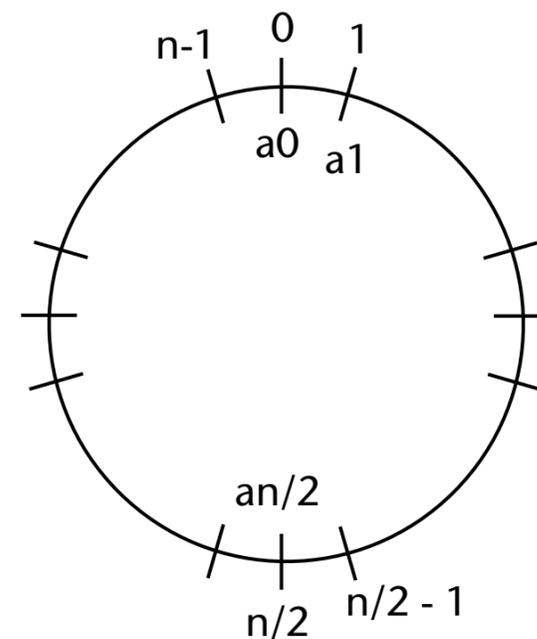
- 0 2 4 8 10 9 7 5 3 ; also: 2 4 8 10 9 7 5 3 0 ; also: 4 8 10 9 7 5 3 0 2 ; ...
- 10 12 14 20 95 90 60 40
35 23 18 0 3 5 8 9
- 1 2 3 4 5
- []
- 00000111110000 ;
111110000011111 ;
1111100000 ; 000011111
- These sequences are **NOT** bitonic sequences:
 - 1 2 3 1 2 3
 - 1 2 3 0 1 2



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 always exactly two inflection points

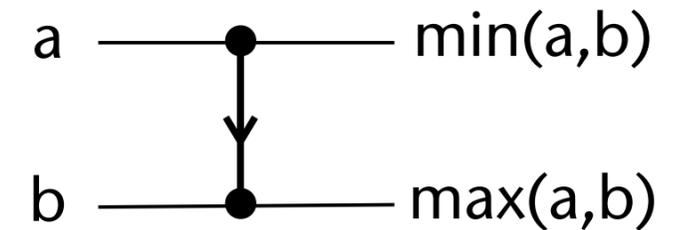


Properties of Bitonic Sequences

- The bitonic property is *invariant* against subset extraction, reversal, flipping
- Any sub-sequence of a bitonic sequence is a bitonic sequence (too)
 - More precisely, assume a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} is bitonic and we consider some indices $0 \leq i_1 \leq i_2 \leq \dots \leq i_m < n$
 - Then, $a_{i_0}, a_{i_1}, \dots, a_{i_m}$ is bitonic, too
- If a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} is bitonic, then a_{n-1}, \dots, 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

Some Notions and Definitions

- More precise graphical notation of a comparator:



- Definition rotation operator:

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

We define the **rotation operator** R_j acting on \mathbf{a} as

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

- 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., for any j

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

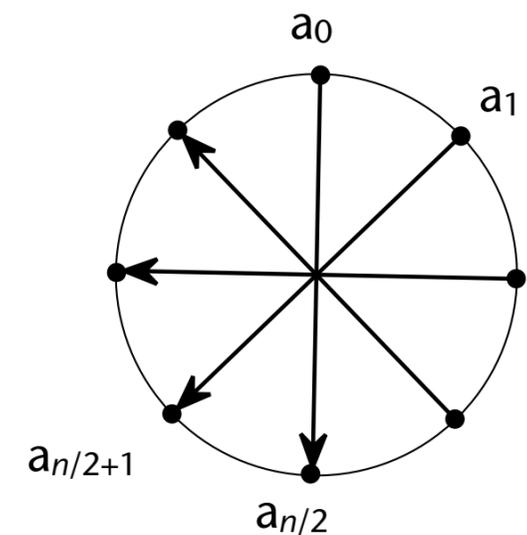
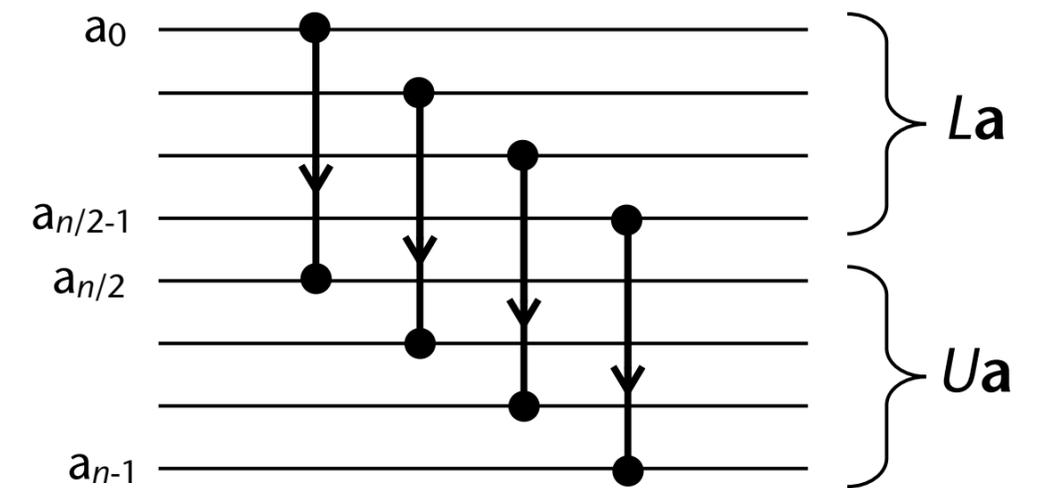
(Remember that indices are always meant mod n)

- Proof :

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

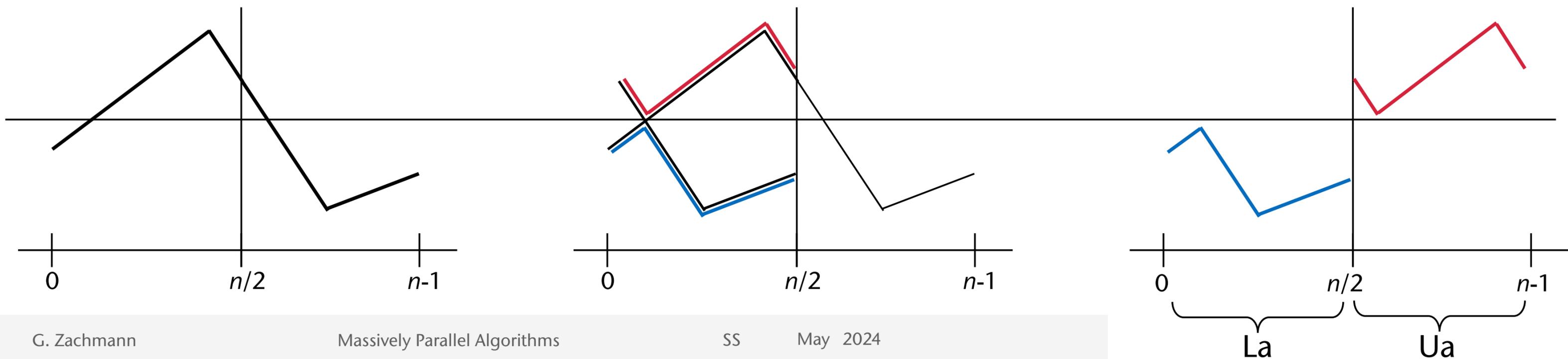
$$LR_j\mathbf{a} = \left(\min(a_j, a_{j+\frac{n}{2}}), \dots, \min(a_{\frac{n}{2}-1}, a_{n-1}), \dots, \min(a_{j-1}, a_{j-1+\frac{n}{2}}) \right) = \dots$$

- Definition **half-cleaner**:
is network that takes \mathbf{a} as input
and outputs $(L\mathbf{a}, U\mathbf{a})$
- The network that realizes a *half-cleaner*
- Because of the rotation invariance, we can
depict a half-cleaner on a circle:
 - It always produces $L\mathbf{a}$ and $U\mathbf{a}$, no matter how \mathbf{a} is
rotated around the circle!



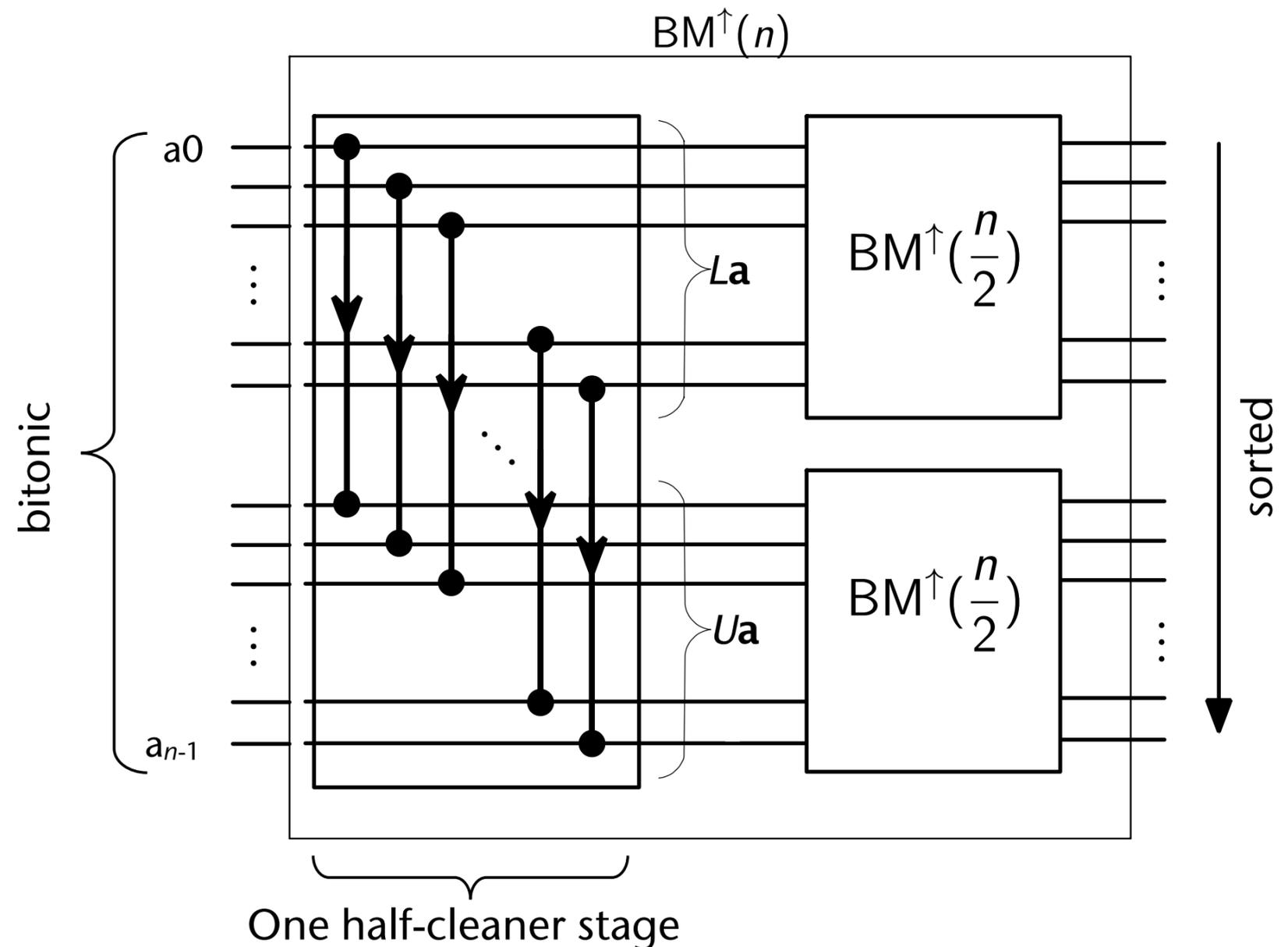
- Theorem 1:
Given a bitonic input sequence \mathbf{a} , the output of a half-cleaner has the following properties:
 1. $L\mathbf{a}$ and $U\mathbf{a}$ are *bitonic*, too;
 2. $\max\{L\mathbf{a}\} \leq \min\{U\mathbf{a}\}$

- 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 U_a back to the right
- Because a is bitonic, there can be only one "cross-over" point
- By construction, both L_a and U_a must have length $n/2$
- Property 1 in theorem 1 follows from the sub-sequence property

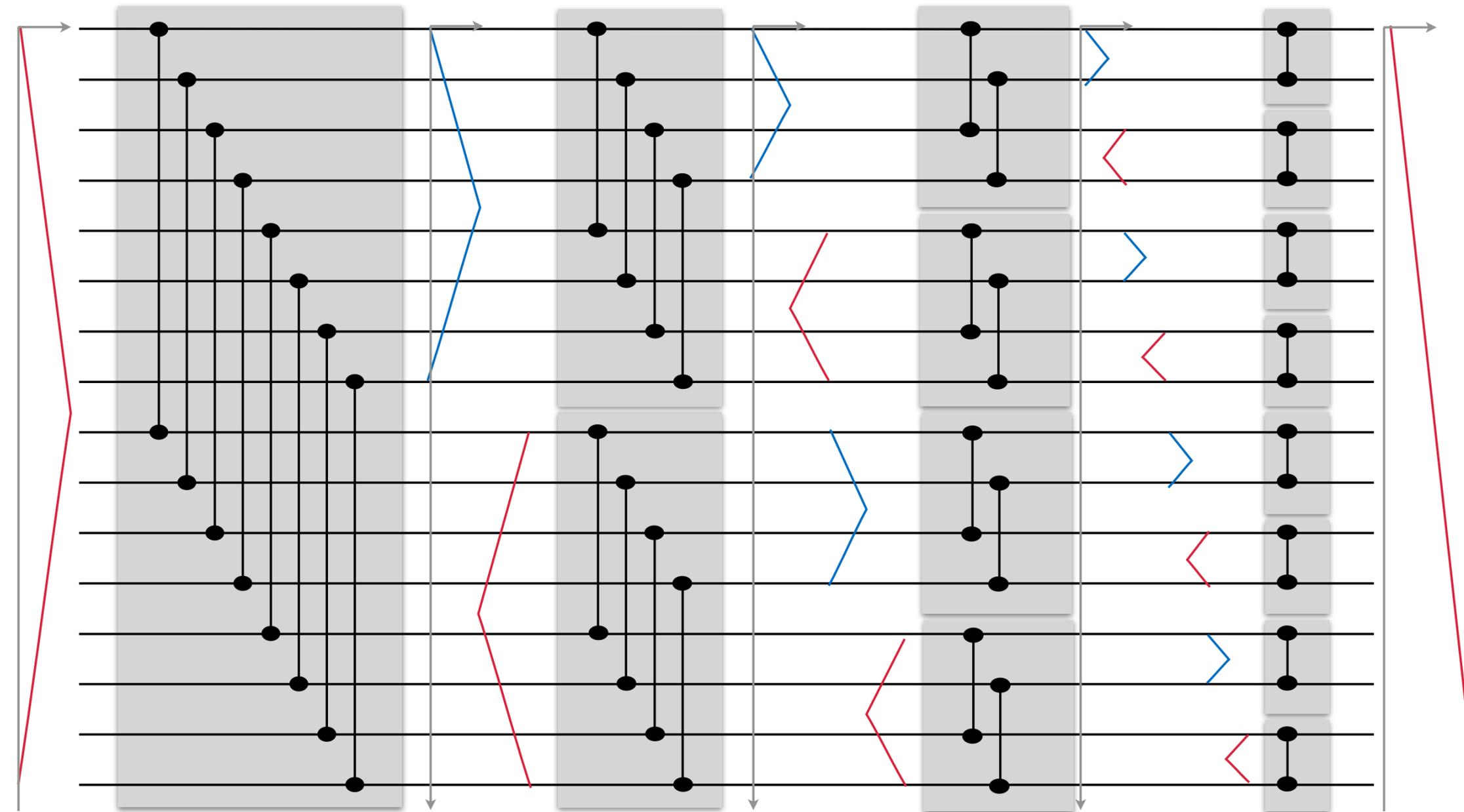


The Bitonic Merger

- 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 $BM^\downarrow(n)$

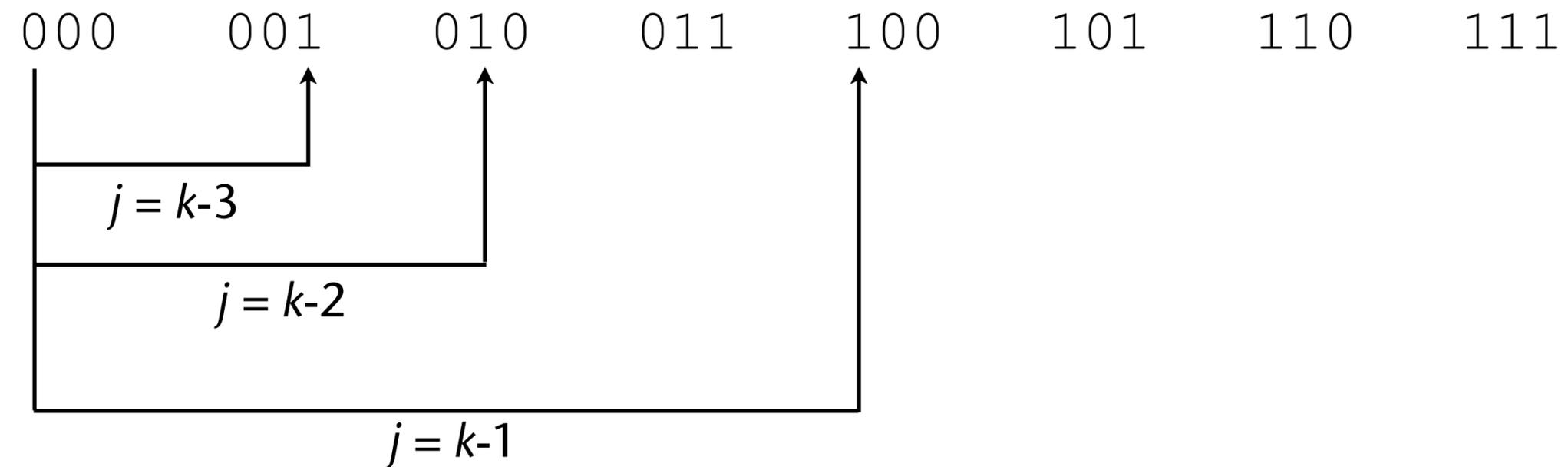


Visualization of a Bitonic Merger



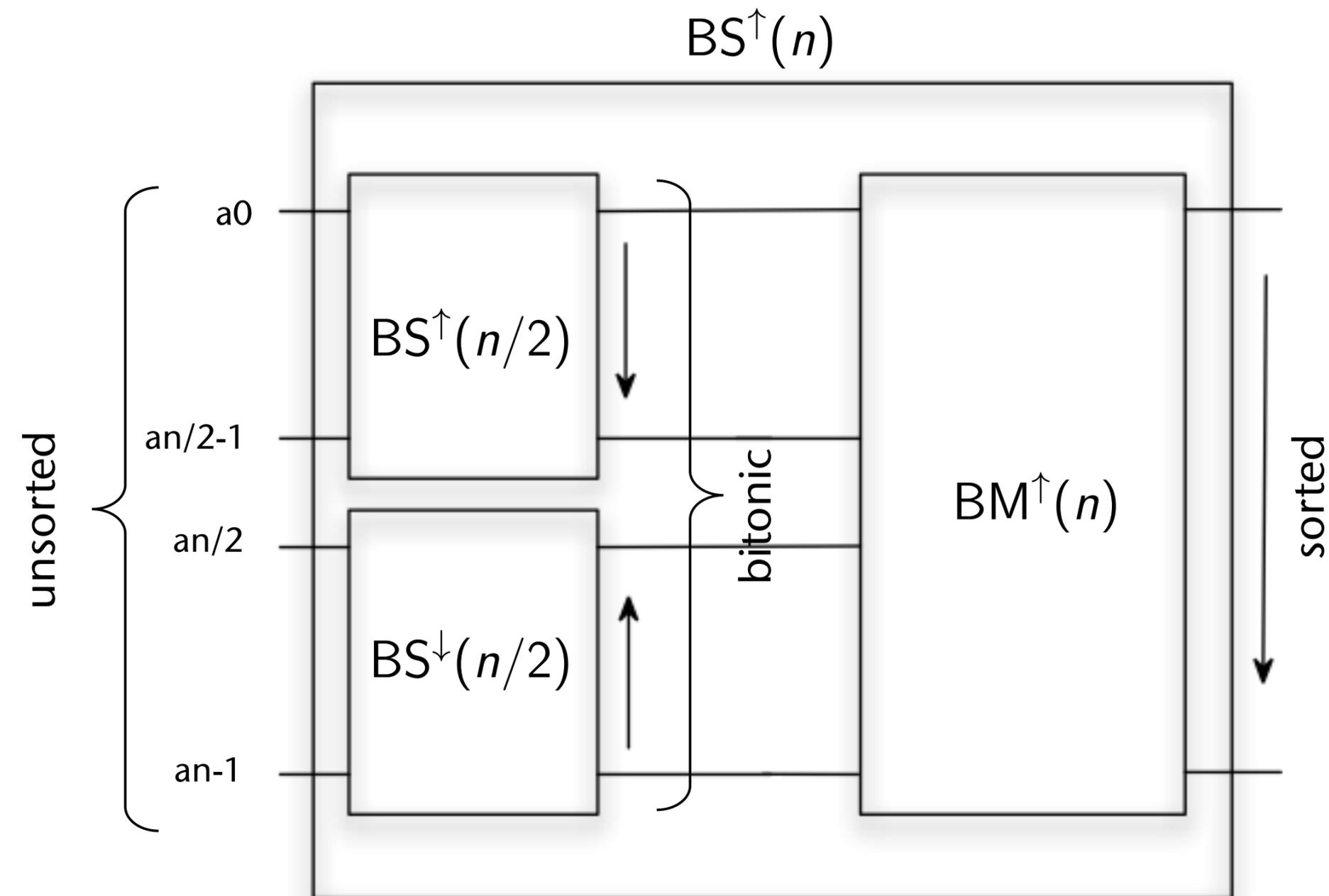
Mapping to a Massively Parallel Architecture

- 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 thread (in binary):
 - At step j , $j = 1, \dots, k$: partner ID = ID obtained by reversing bit $(k-j)$ of own ID
- Example:

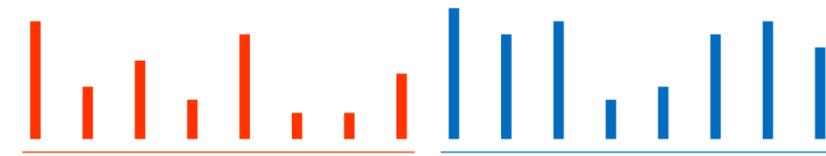


The Bitonic Sorter

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



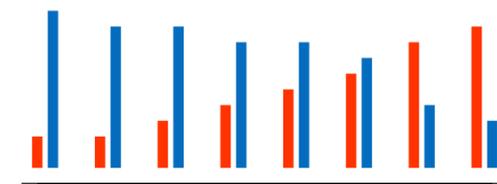
Visualizing Bitonic Sorting



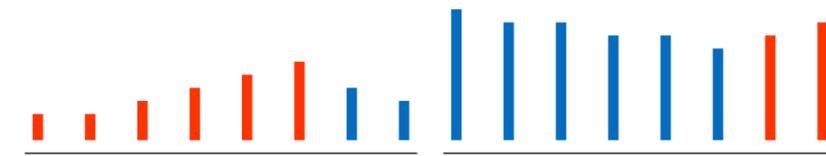
Initial data sequence



1: Sort array halves in opposite directions to achieve a bitonic sequence



2: Overlap and compare the array halves (half-cleaner)



3: Send larger item in each pair to the right

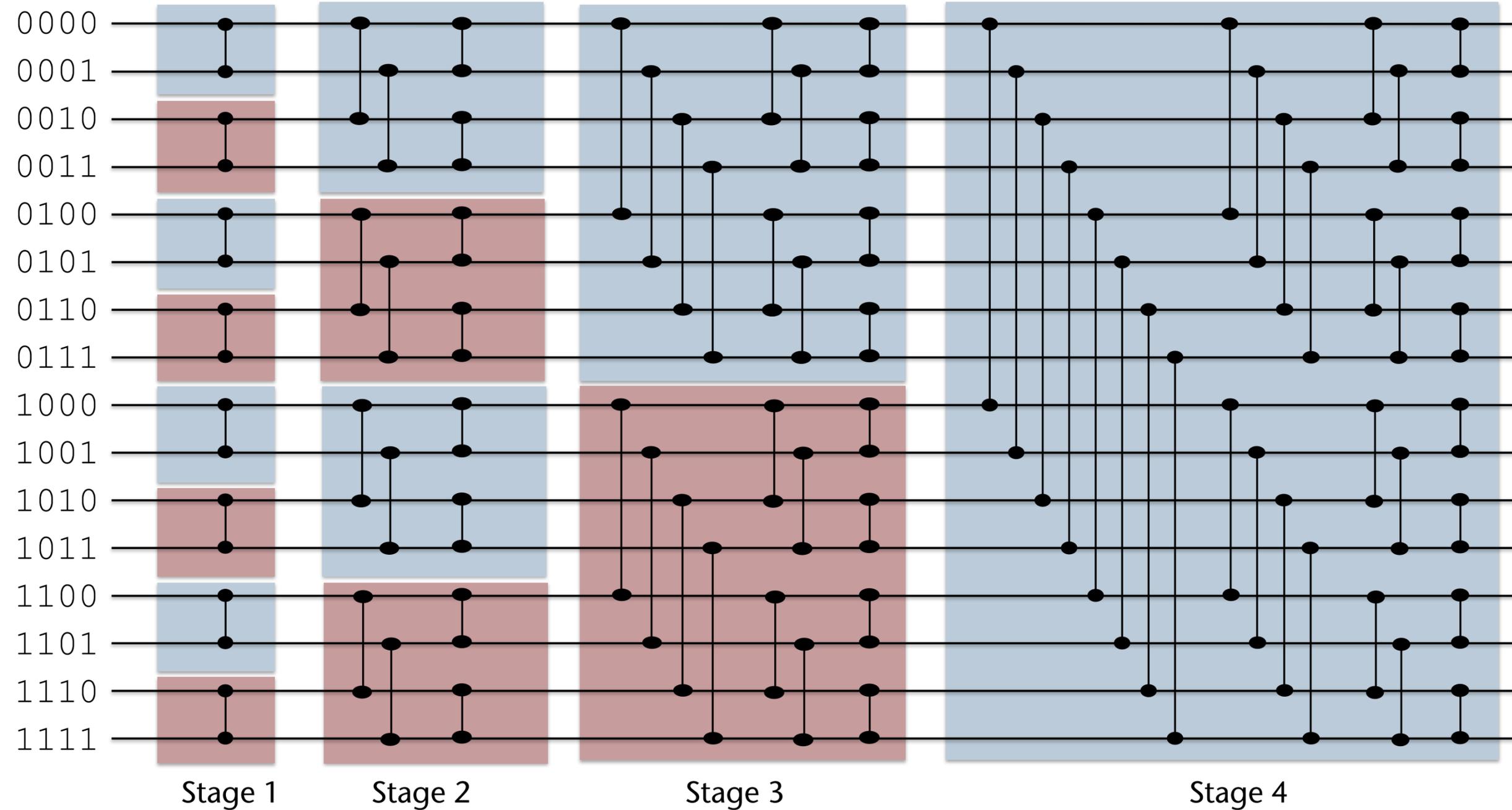


Perform 2 & 3 recursively on each half

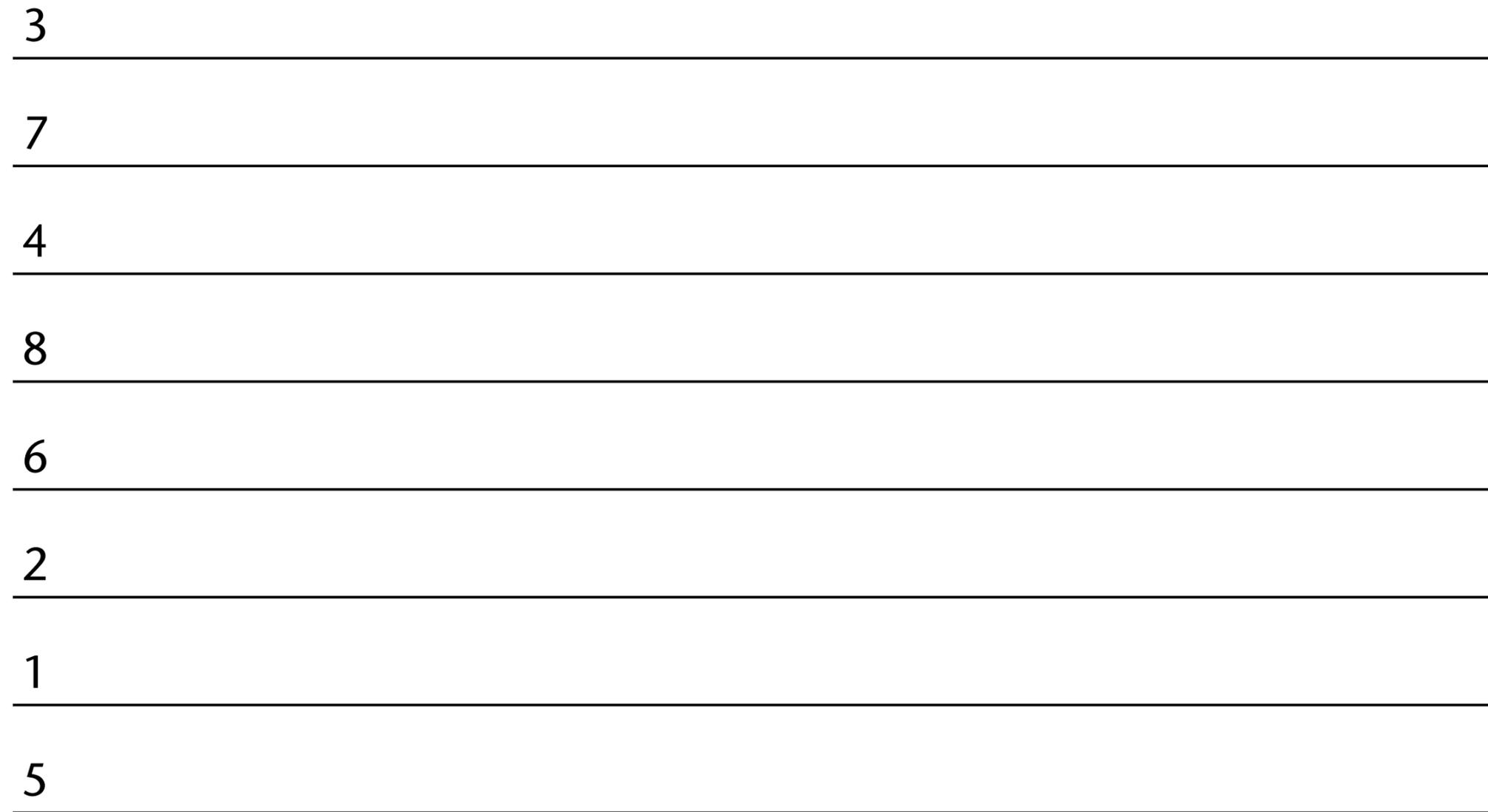
Example Bitonic Sorting Network

Lanes
(threads)

Blue box = low-to-high sorter, red box = high-to-low sorter



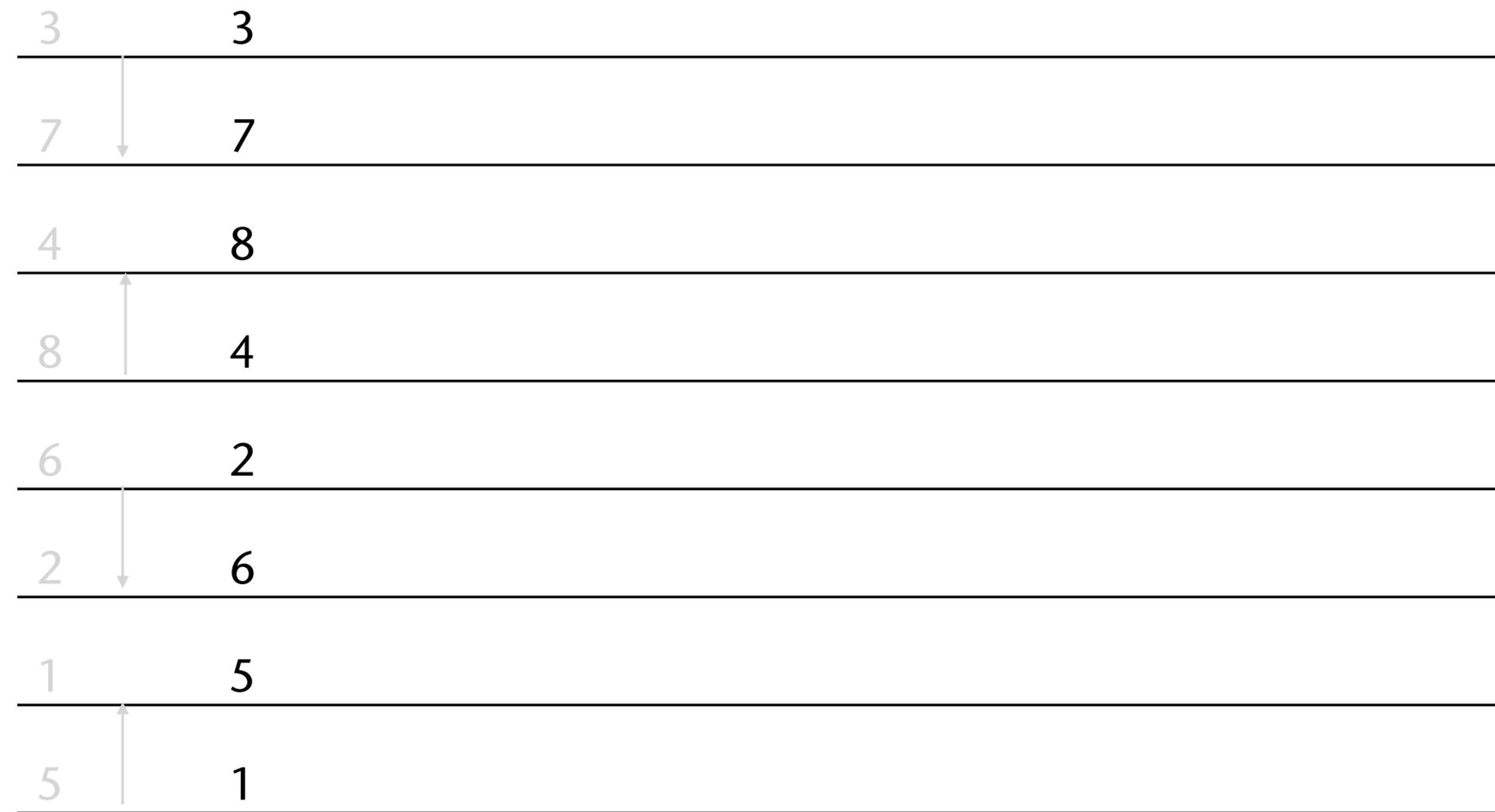
Example Run



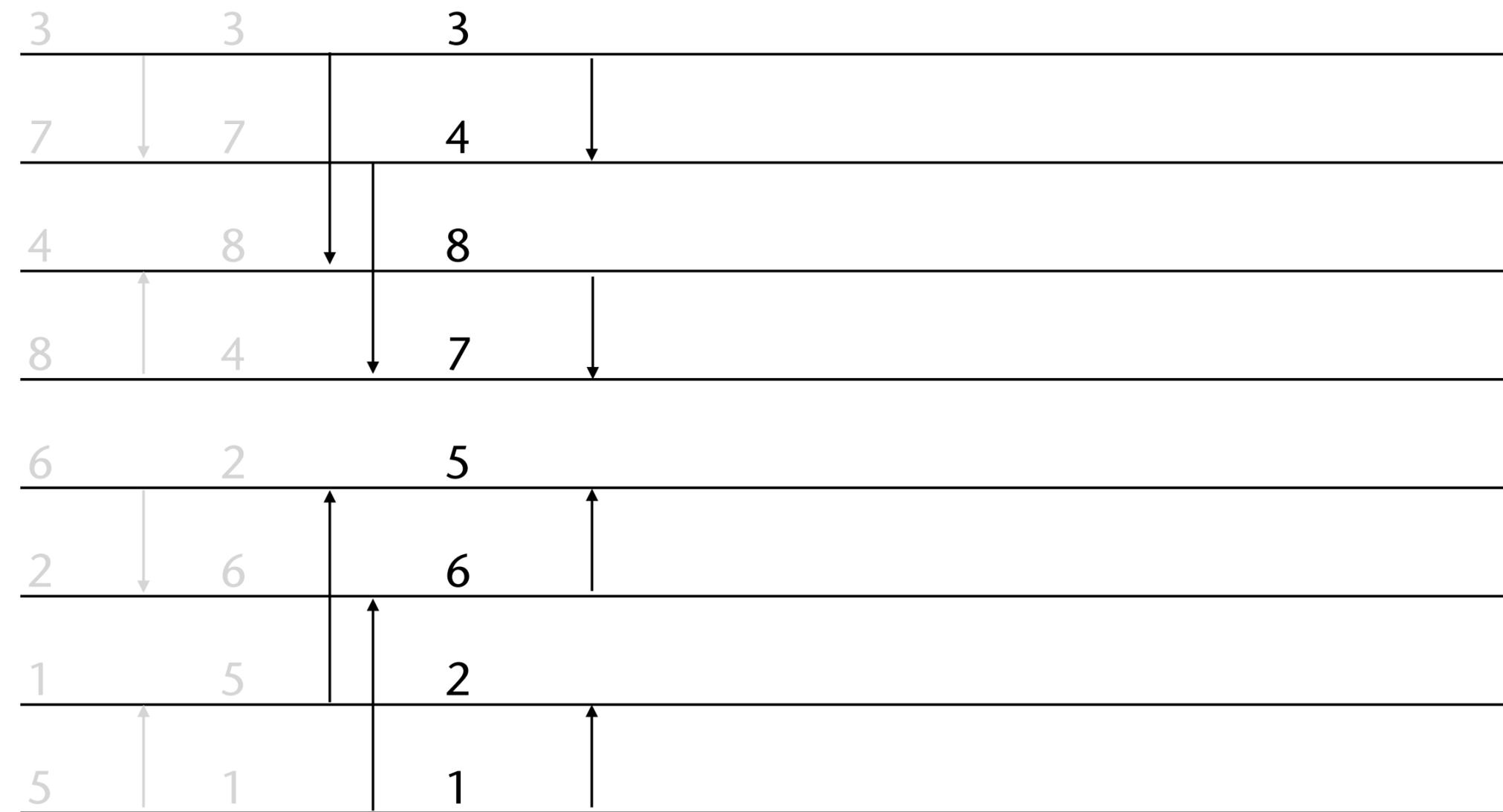
8x monotonic lists: (3) (7) (4) (8) (6) (2) (1) (5)
4x bitonic lists: (3,7) (4,8) (6,2) (1,5)



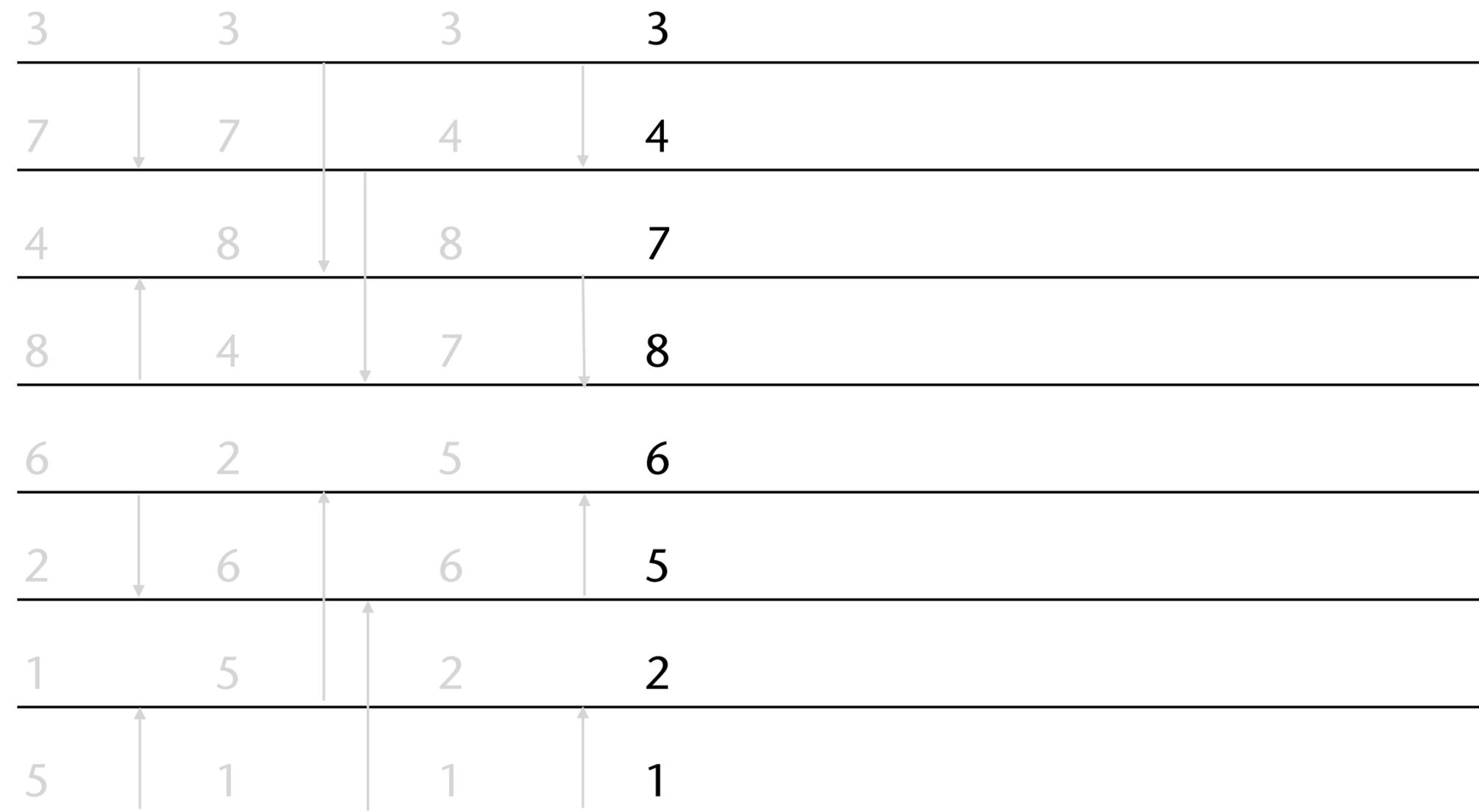
Sort the bitonic lists (each list = 2 elements → trivially bitonic)



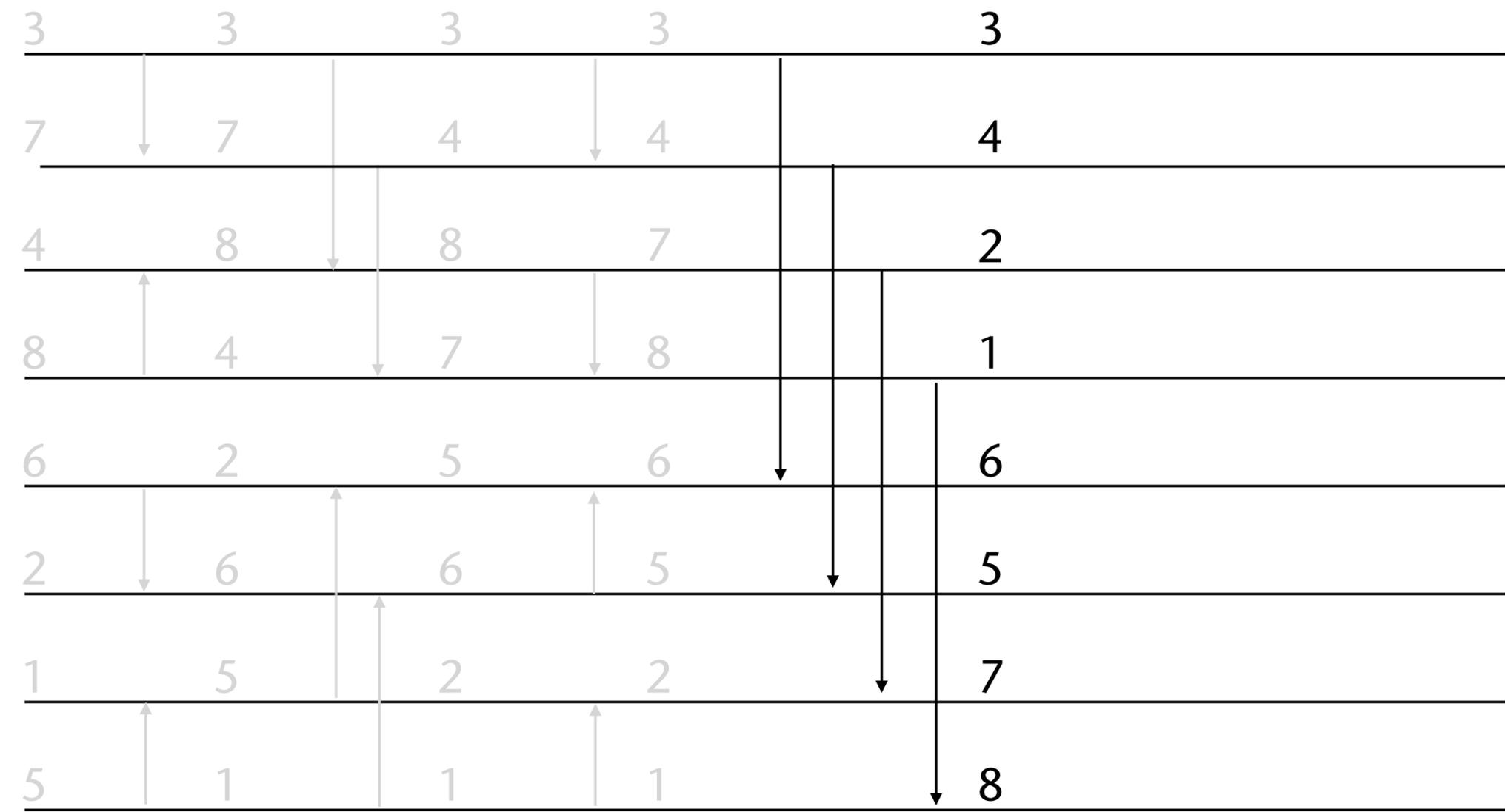
4x monotonic lists: (3,7) (8,4) (2,6) (5,1)
 2x bitonic lists: (3,7,8,4) (2,6,5,1)



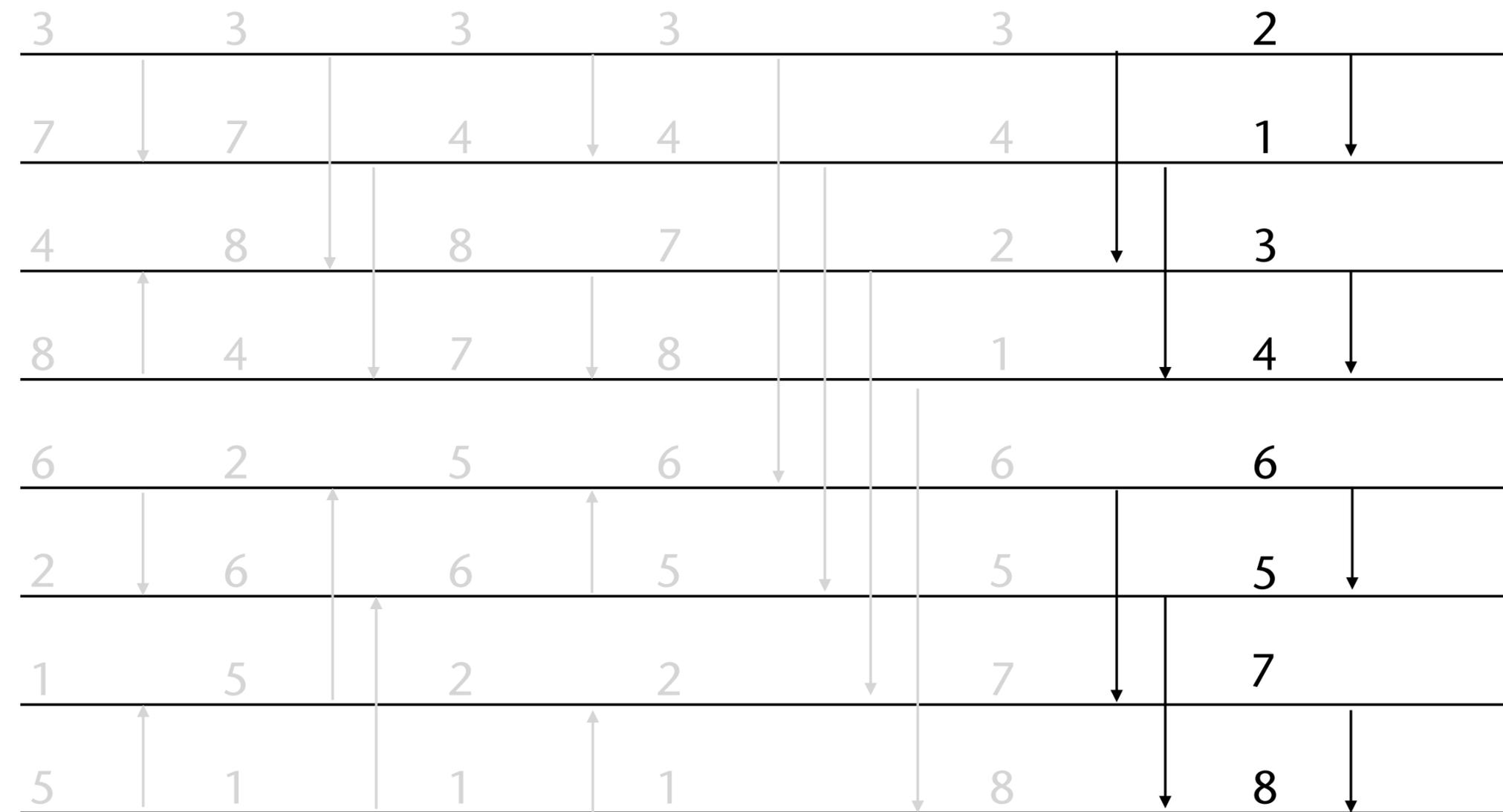
Sort the bitonic lists



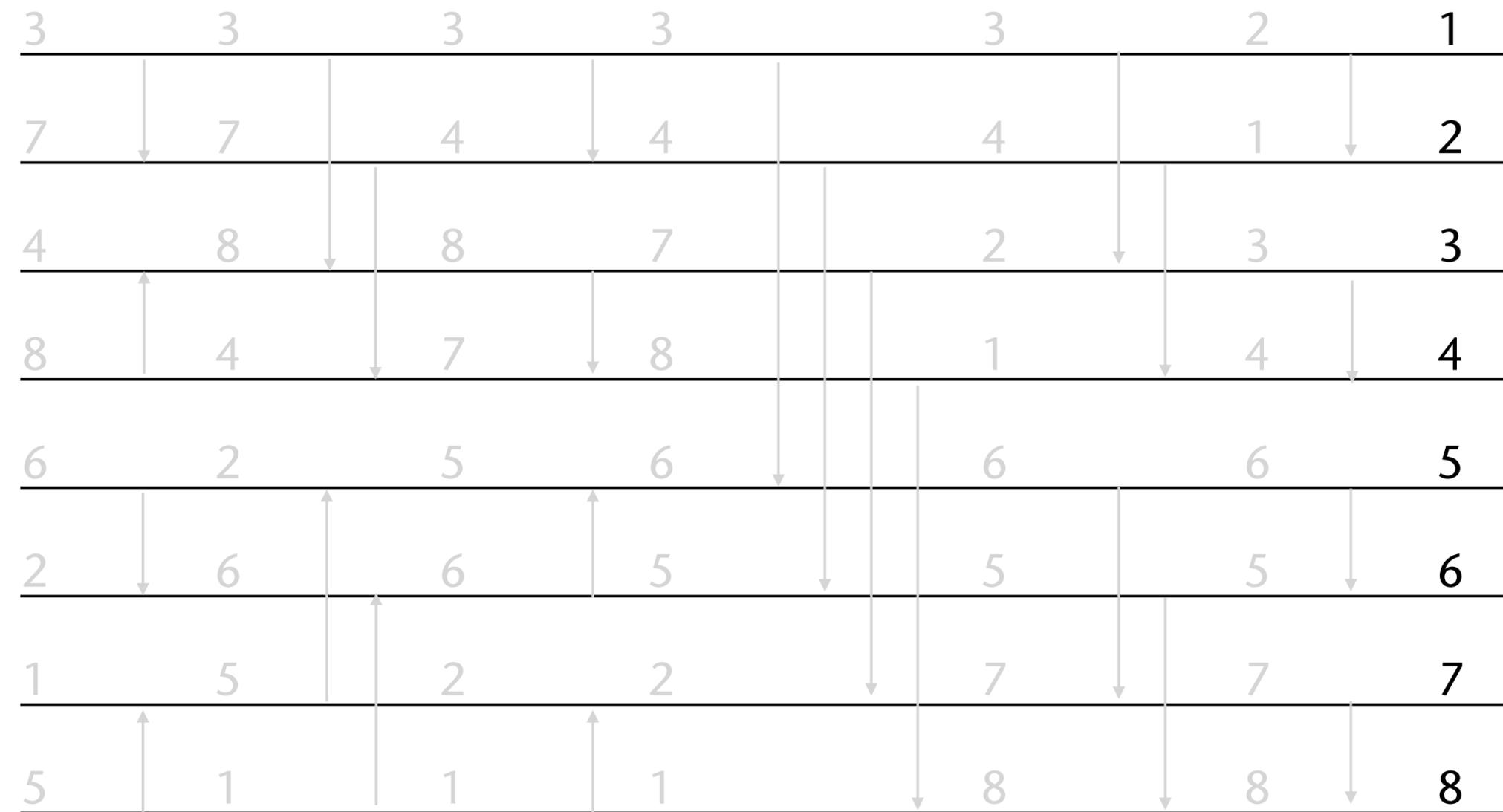
2x monotonic lists: (3,4,7,8) (6,5,2,1)
 1x bitonic list: (3,4,7,8, 6,5,2,1)



Sort the bitonic lists



Sort the bitonic lists



Done!

Complexity of the Bitonic Sorter

- Depth complexity (= parallel time complexity):
 - Bitonic merger: $O(\log n)$
 - Bitonic sorter: $O(\log^2 n)$
- Work complexity of bitonic merger: count #comparators = $C(n)$
 - Recursive equation for C : $C(n) = 2C\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \frac{n}{2}$, with $C(2) = 1$
 - Overall: $C(n) = \frac{1}{2}n \log n$
- Remark: there must be some redundancy in the sorting network, because we know (from merge sort) that n comparisons are sufficient for *merging* two sorted sequences
- Reason for the redundancy? \rightarrow because the network is *data-independent!*

Remarks on Bitonic Sorting

- Probably most well-known parallel sorting algo / network
- Fastest algorithm for "small" arrays
- Lower bound on depth complexity for parallel sorting is

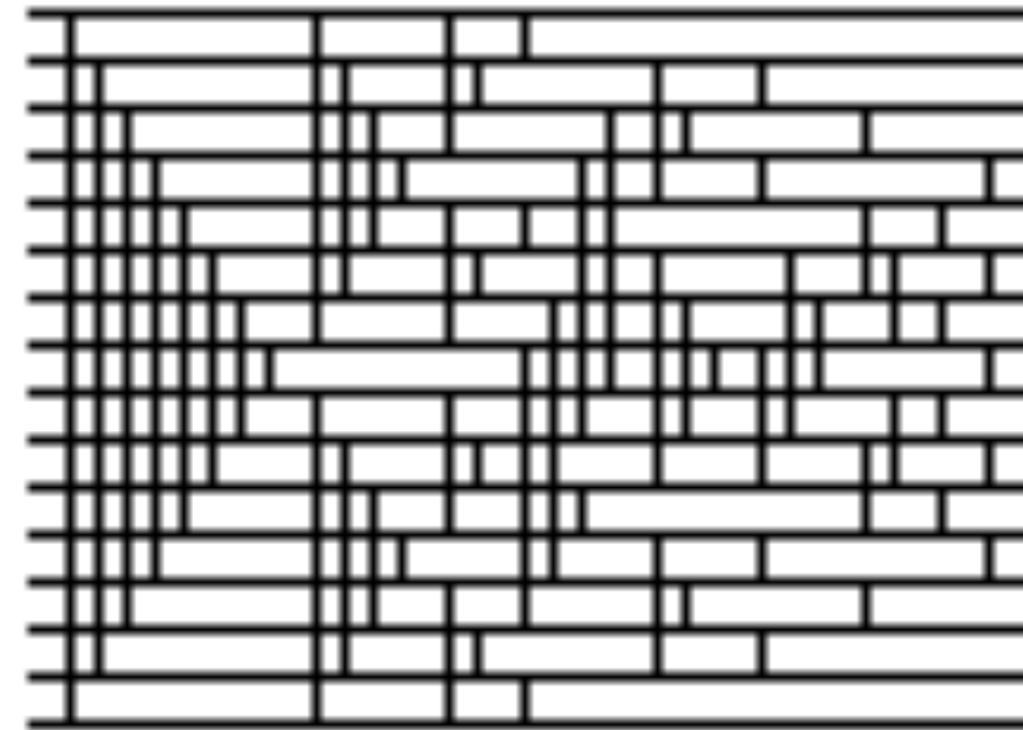
$$\frac{O(n \log n)}{n} = O(\log n)$$

assuming we have n processors (in this sense, the bitonic is not optimal)

- A nice property: comparators in a bitonic sorter network only ever compare lanes whose labels (= binary lane number) differ by exactly one bit!
- Consequence for the implementation:
 - One kernel for all threads
 - Each thread only needs to determine which bit of its own thread ID to "flip" → gives the "other" lane with which to compare
- Hence, bitonic sorting is sometimes pictured as well-suited for a $\log(n)$ -dimensional hypercube parallel architecture:
 - Each node of the hypercube = one processor
 - Each processor is connected directly to $\log(n)$ many other processors
 - In each step, each processor talks to one of its direct neighbors

Optimal Sorting Networks

- Optimal = minimal depth
- Known up to depth 11 [2013], and depth 40 [2014]
- Example: optimal depth $d = 9$ for $n = 16$



- Would it improve performance on the GPU??

Adaptive Bitonic Sorting

- Theorem 2:

Let a be a bitonic sequence.

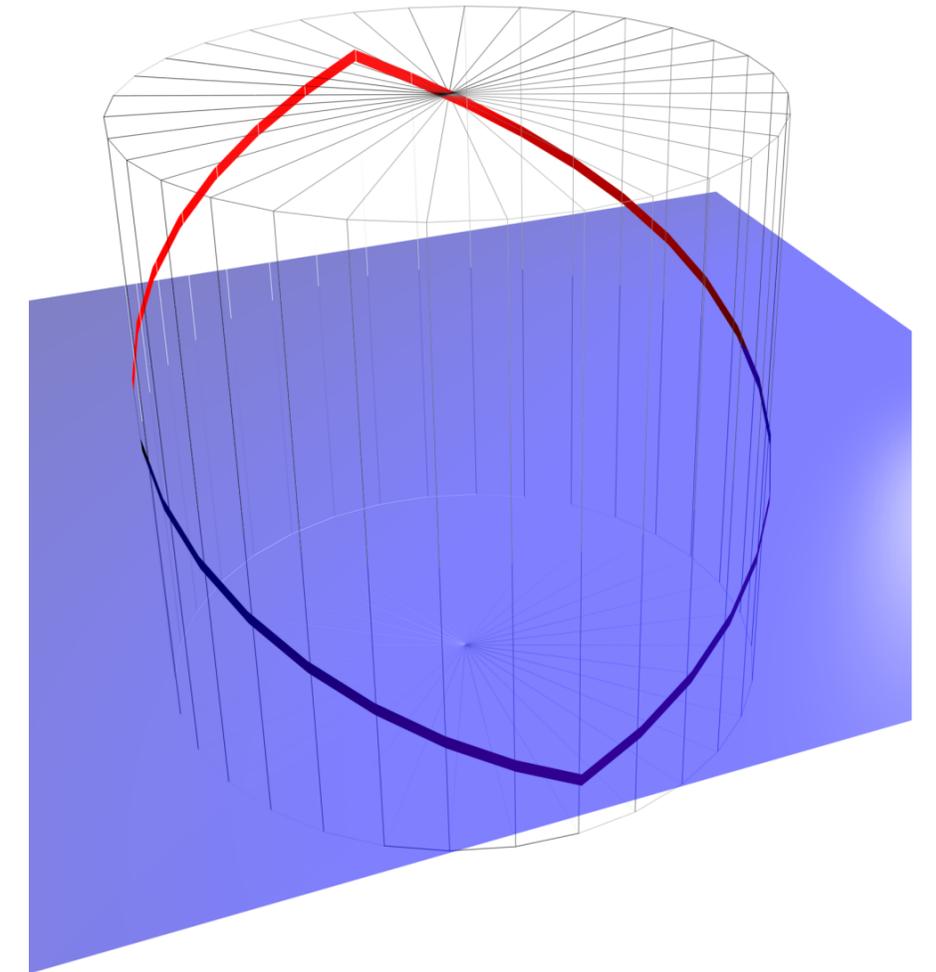
Then, we can always find an index q such that

$$\max(a_q, \dots, a_{q+\frac{n}{2}-1}) \leq \min(a_{q+\frac{n}{2}}, \dots, a_{q-1})$$

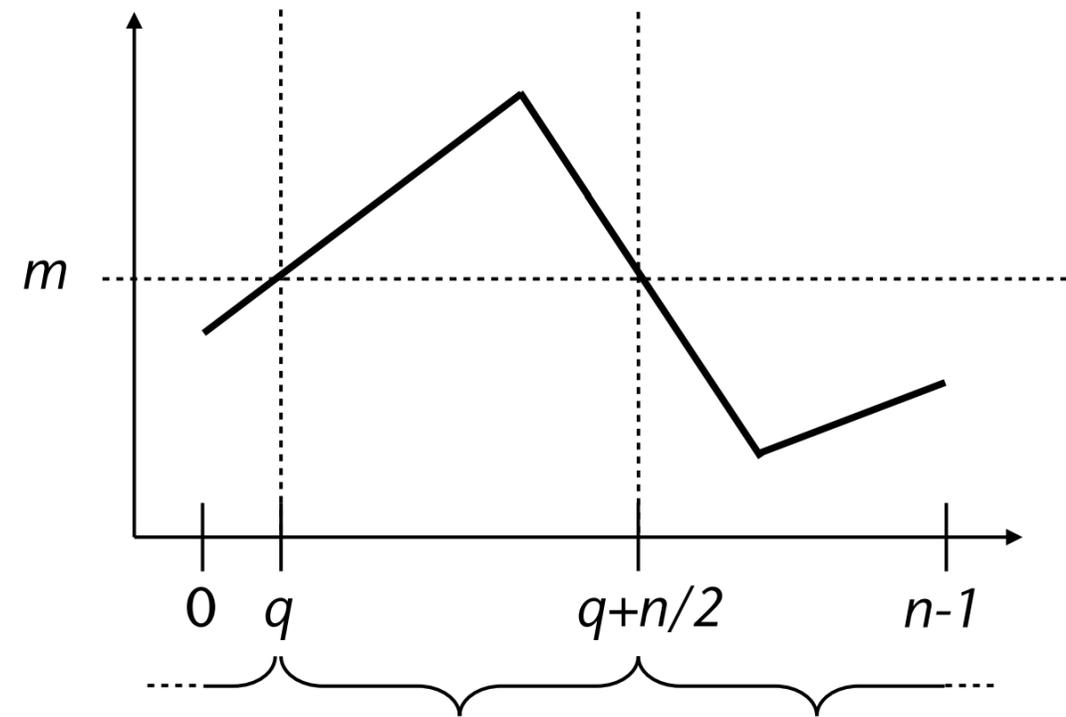
- This can be turned into an adaptive bitonic merger (ABM)

Sketch of Proof

- Assume (for sake of simplicity) that all elements in a are distinct
- Imagine the bitonic sequence as a "line" on a cylinder
- Since a is bitonic \rightarrow only two inflection points \rightarrow each horizontal plane cuts the sequence at exactly 2 points, and both sub-sequences are contiguous (under index arithmetic using modulo!)
- Use the median m as "cut plane" \rightarrow each sub-sequence has length $n/2$, and $\max(\text{"lower sequ."}) \leq m \leq \min(\text{"upper sequ."})$
- The index of m is exactly index q in Theorem 2
- The two halves must be La and Ua , resp.



- Visualization of the theorem:



- Theorem 3:

Any bitonic sequence \mathbf{a} can be partitioned into four sub-sequences $(\mathbf{a}^1, \mathbf{a}^2, \mathbf{a}^3, \mathbf{a}^4) = \mathbf{a}$, such that

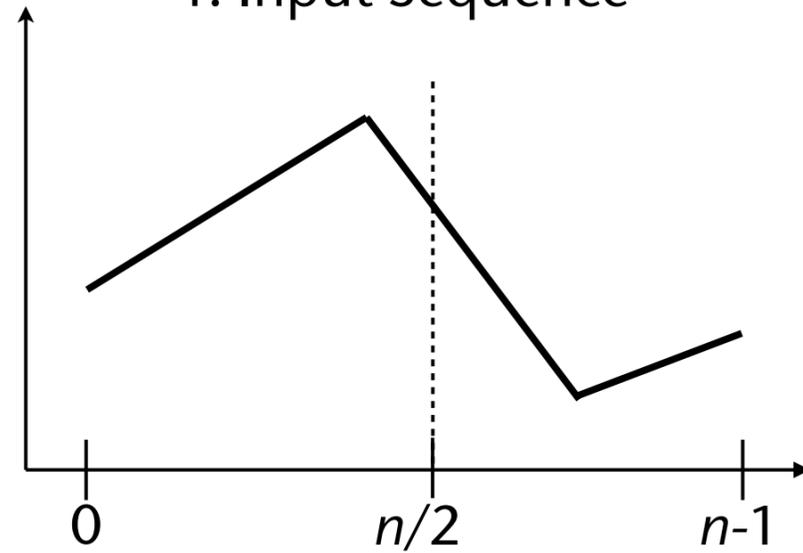
$$|\mathbf{a}^1| + |\mathbf{a}^2| = |\mathbf{a}^3| + |\mathbf{a}^4| = \frac{n}{2}, \quad |\mathbf{a}^1| = |\mathbf{a}^3|, \quad |\mathbf{a}^2| = |\mathbf{a}^4|$$

and

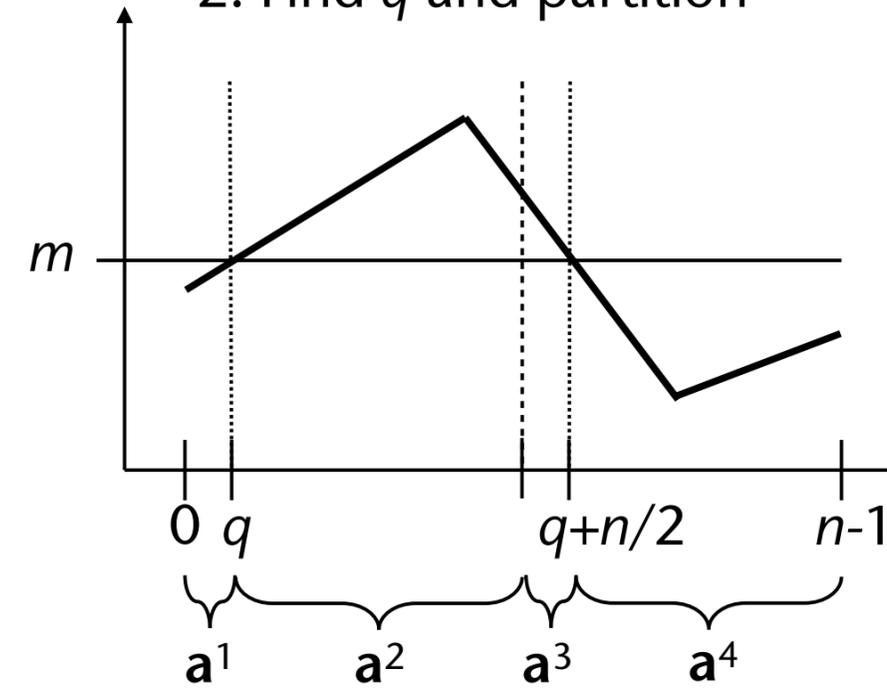
$$\text{either } (L\mathbf{a}, U\mathbf{a}) = (\mathbf{a}^1, \mathbf{a}^4, \mathbf{a}^3, \mathbf{a}^2) \quad \text{or} \quad (L\mathbf{a}, U\mathbf{a}) = (\mathbf{a}^3, \mathbf{a}^2, \mathbf{a}^1, \mathbf{a}^4)$$

Visual "Proof"

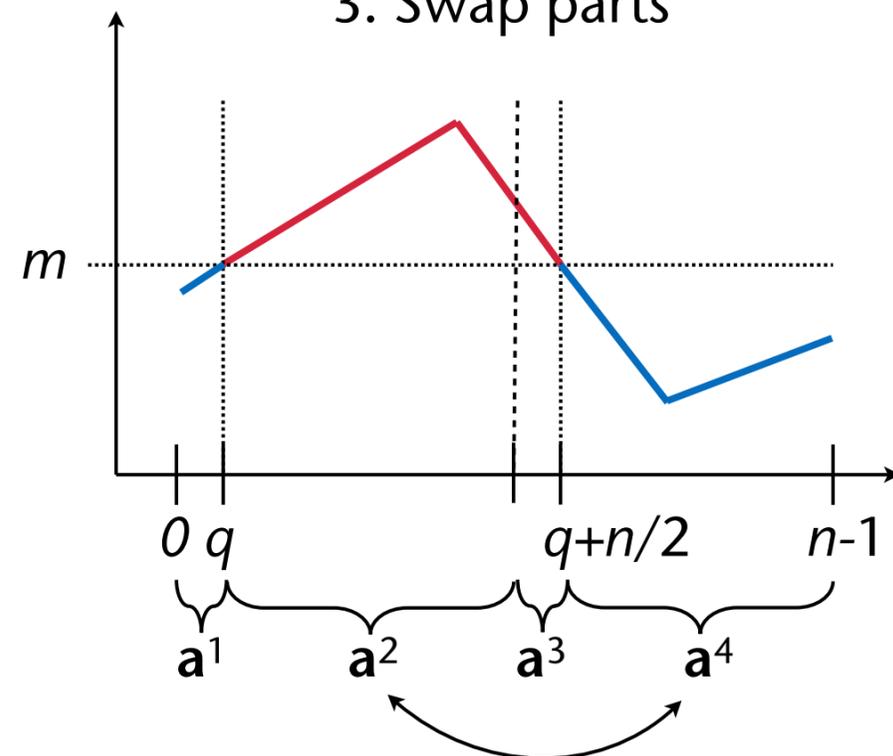
1. Input Sequence



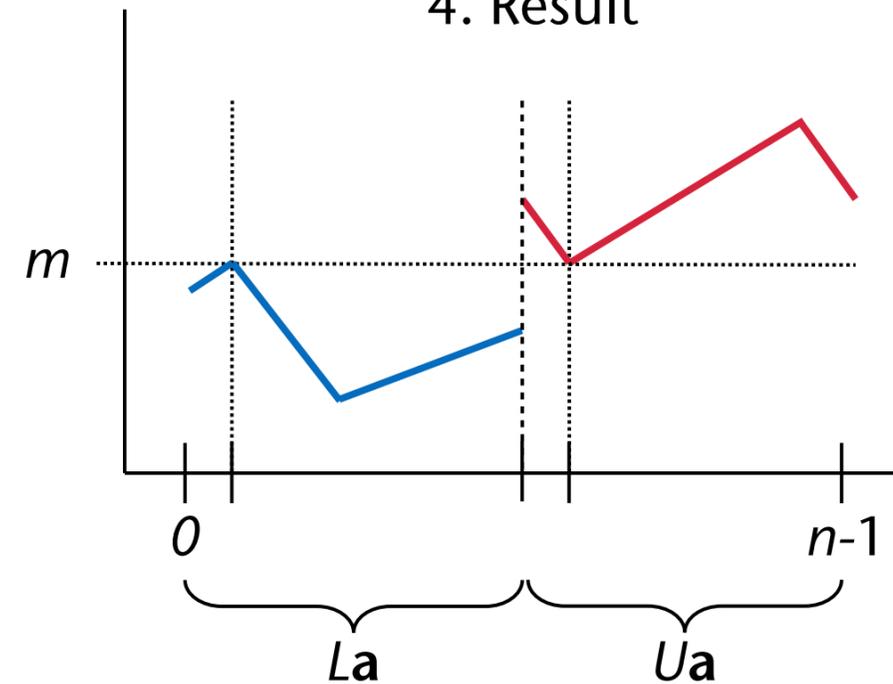
2. Find q and partition



3. Swap parts



4. Result



Complexity

- Finding the median in a bitonic sequence $\rightarrow O(\log n)$ steps
- Remark: this algorithm is **no longer data-independent!**
- Depth complexity: \rightarrow exercise / research
- Work complexity of the adaptive bitonic merger:

- Number of comparisons

$$C(n) = 2C\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \log(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i \log\left(\frac{n}{2^i}\right) = 2n - \log n - 2$$

- **This is optimal!**
- Needs a trick to avoid actually copying the subsequences
 - Otherwise the total complexity of an ABM(n) would be $O(n \log n)$
- Trick = *bitonic tree* (see orig. paper for details)

How to find the median in a bitonic sequence

- We have

$$\text{median}(a) = \min(U\mathbf{a})$$

or

$$\text{median}(a) = \max(L\mathbf{a})$$

(depending on the definition of the median)

- Finding the minimum in a bitonic sequence takes $\log(n)$ steps

Overall Algorithm for Adaptive Bitonic Sorting

- Same as bitonic sorting, except we replace the half cleaner by
 1. Finding the median, and
 2. Swapping subsequences (only conceptually)

```
adaptiveBitonicSort( a0, ..., an-1 ):  
do parallel:  
  sort a0, ..., an/2-1 ascending  
  sort an/2, ..., an-1 descending  
adaptiveBitonicMerge( a0, ..., an-1)
```

```
adaptiveBitonicMerge( a0, ..., an-1 ):  
precond.: a0, ..., an-1 is bitonic  
find index q of median  
swap subsequences as per theorem 2 and proof  
do parallel:  
  adaptiveBitonicMerge( a0, ..., an/2-1)  
  adaptiveBitonicMerge( an/2, ..., an-1)
```

Topics for Master Theses

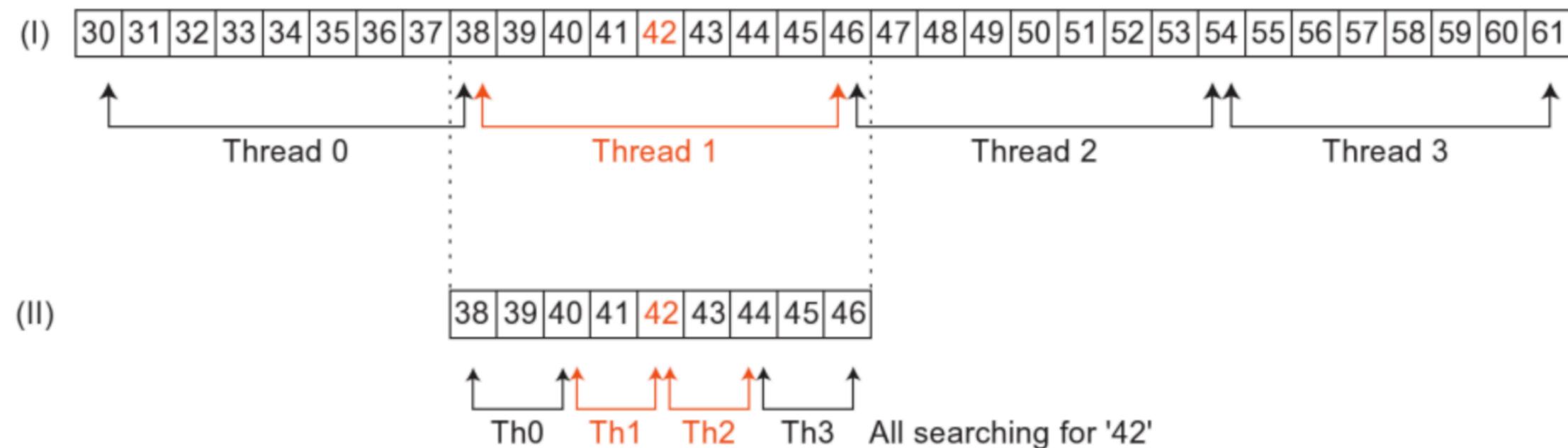
- Lots of different parallel sorting algorithms
- What is the performance of Adaptive Bitonic Sorting using CUDA?
- Do you love algorithms?
 - Thinking about them?
 - Proving properties?
 - Implementing them super-fast?
- Then we should talk about a possible master's thesis topic! 😊

Application: Searching

- Given a sorted array (should be really large, i.e., $\gg 1$ m elements)
- How to utilize the GPU for searching for keys in the array?
- Trivial solution, if you have a huge number of search requests:
 - Batch all requests into one multi-query
 - Each thread processes one request, doing binary search on the array for "their" key
 - Memory requests will be totally un-coalesced
 - Response time = similar to response for CPU-based search
 - Hardware utilization: usually, some threads will be finished early
 - Throughput: slower than CPU, since all threads must wait before next multi-query

P-Ary Parallel Search

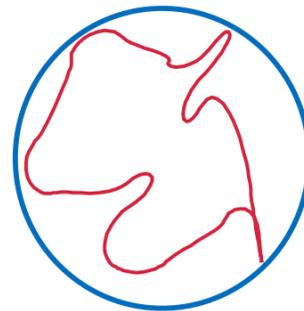
- Given a sorted array, A , of n elements, and one key q
- With p threads, choose p pivot elements (not just one)
- Each thread i loads $A[i * n/p]$ into shared memory
- Each thread i compares $A[i * n/p] \leq q \leq A[(i+1) * n/p]$
 - (For the last thread, use a sentinel element)
- Repeat with the bracket containing q (if any)



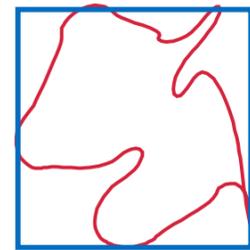
- Complexity: $O(\log_p n) = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\log p}\right)$
- A (potential) practical optimization: re-arrange data to match access patterns
 - If data can be re-arranged, move the p pivot elements of the first iteration to the front of the array \rightarrow coalesced memory access among the p threads
 - For each of the p segments, again move the p pivot elements *within that segment* to a contiguous segment in the array, etc.
 - Only useful, of course, if a huge number of queries are to be made

Application: BVH Construction

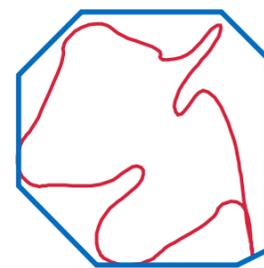
- Bounding volume hierarchies (BVHs): very important data structure for accelerating geometric queries
- Applications: ray-scene intersection, collision detection, spatial data bases, etc.
 - Database people usually call it "R-tree" ...
- Frequently used types of bounding volumes (BVs):



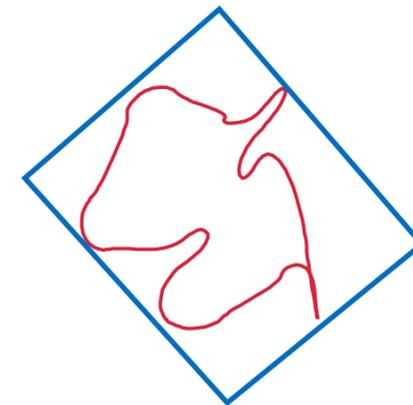
Sphere



Box, AABB (R*-trees)



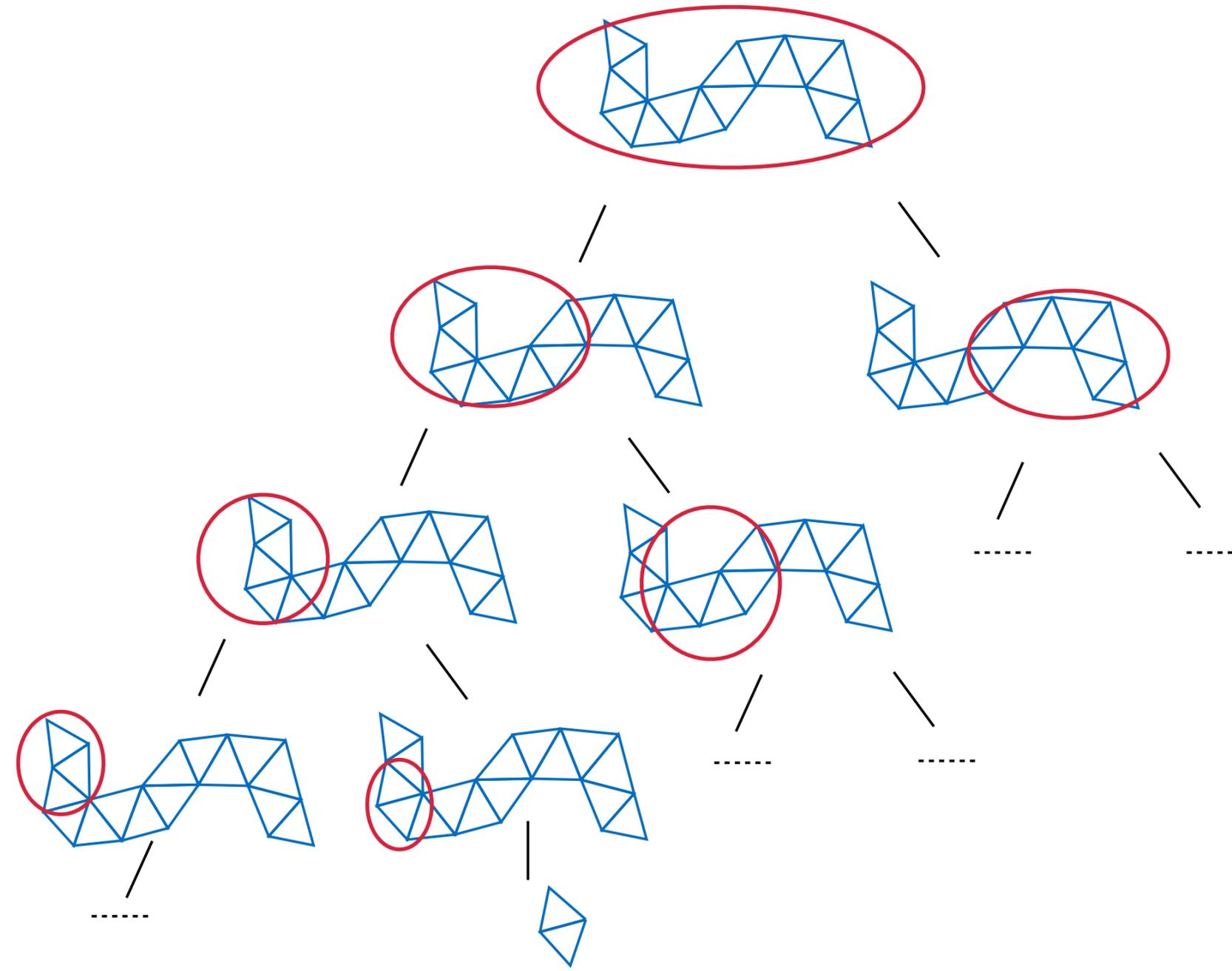
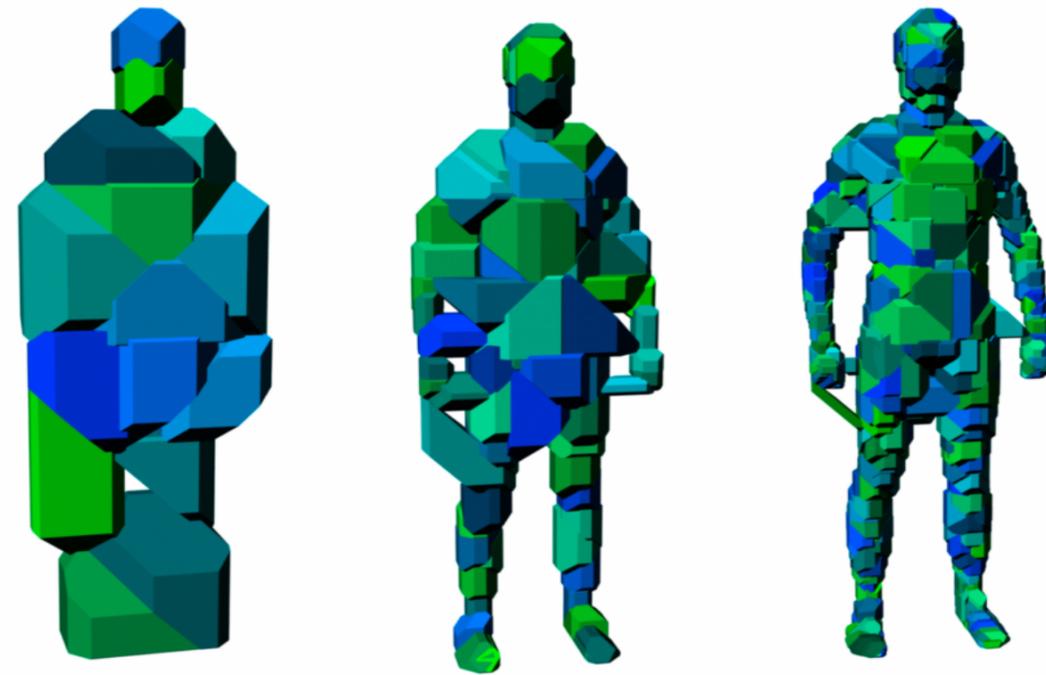
k-DOPs / Slabs



OBB (oriented bounding box)

The Notion of Bounding Volume Hierarchies

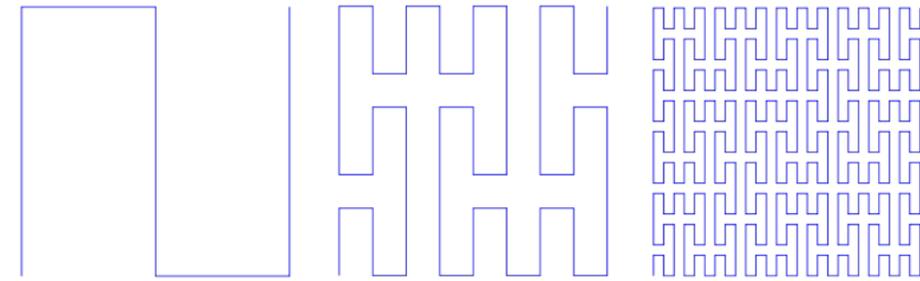
- Schematic example:
- Three levels of a k-DOP BVH:



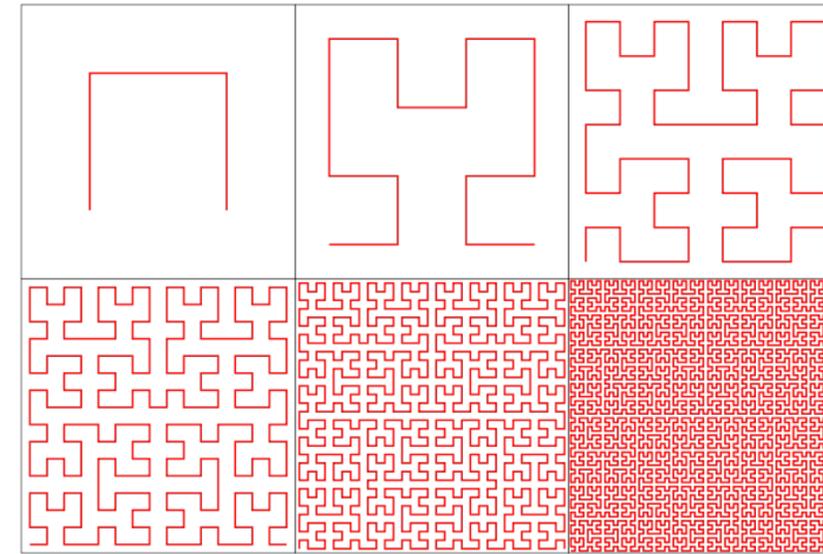
Parallel Construction of BVHs

- First idea: linearize 3D points/objects by a space-filling curve
- Definition **curve**:
A curve (with endpoints) is a continuous function with its *domain* in the unit interval $[0, 1]$ and its *range* in some d -dimensional space.
- Definition **space-filling curve**:
A space-filling curve is a curve with a range that covers the entire 2-dimensional unit square (or, more generally, an n -dimensional hypercube).

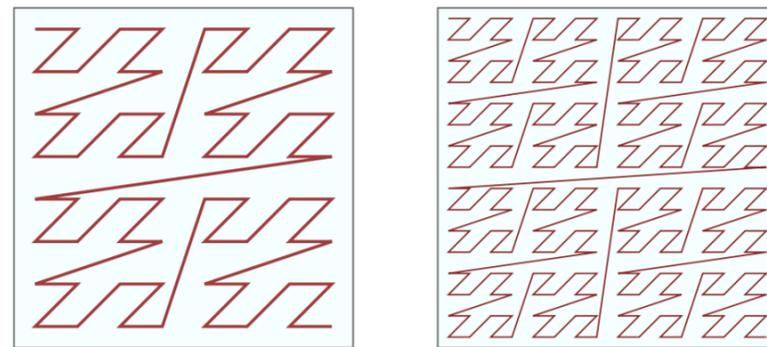
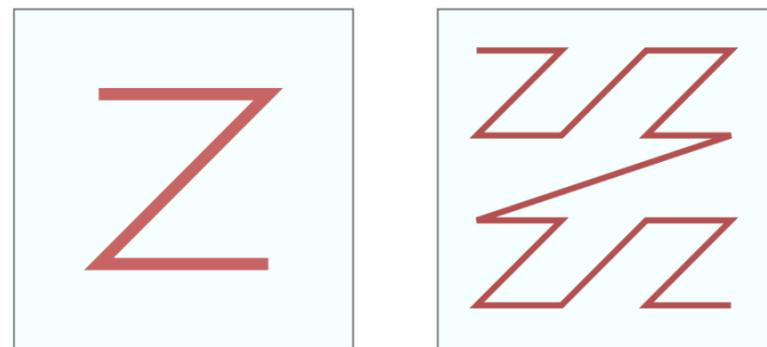
Examples of Space-Filling Curves (or, Rather, Approximations)



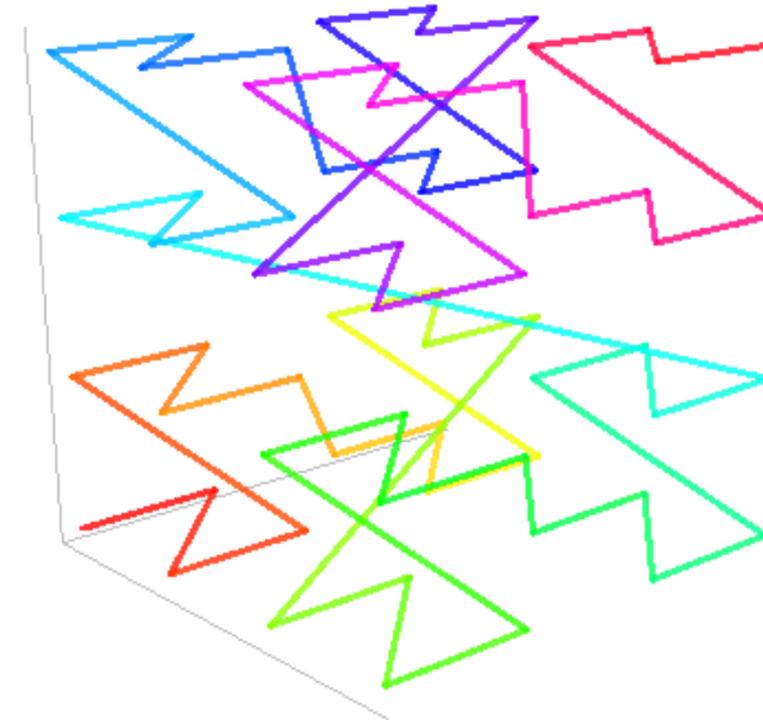
Peano curve



Hilbert curve

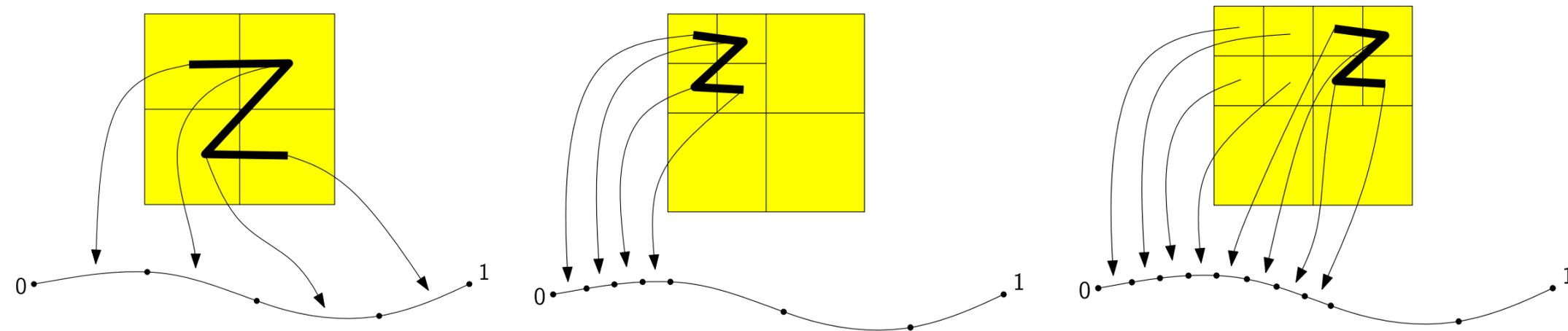


Z-order curve
(a.k.a. Morton curve)



Z-order curve in 3D

- Benefit: a space-filling curve gives a mapping for every point in the unit square onto a point in the unit interval

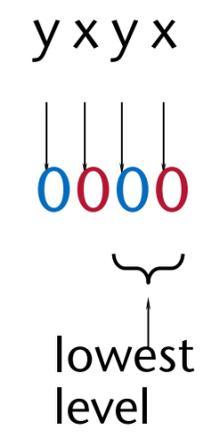
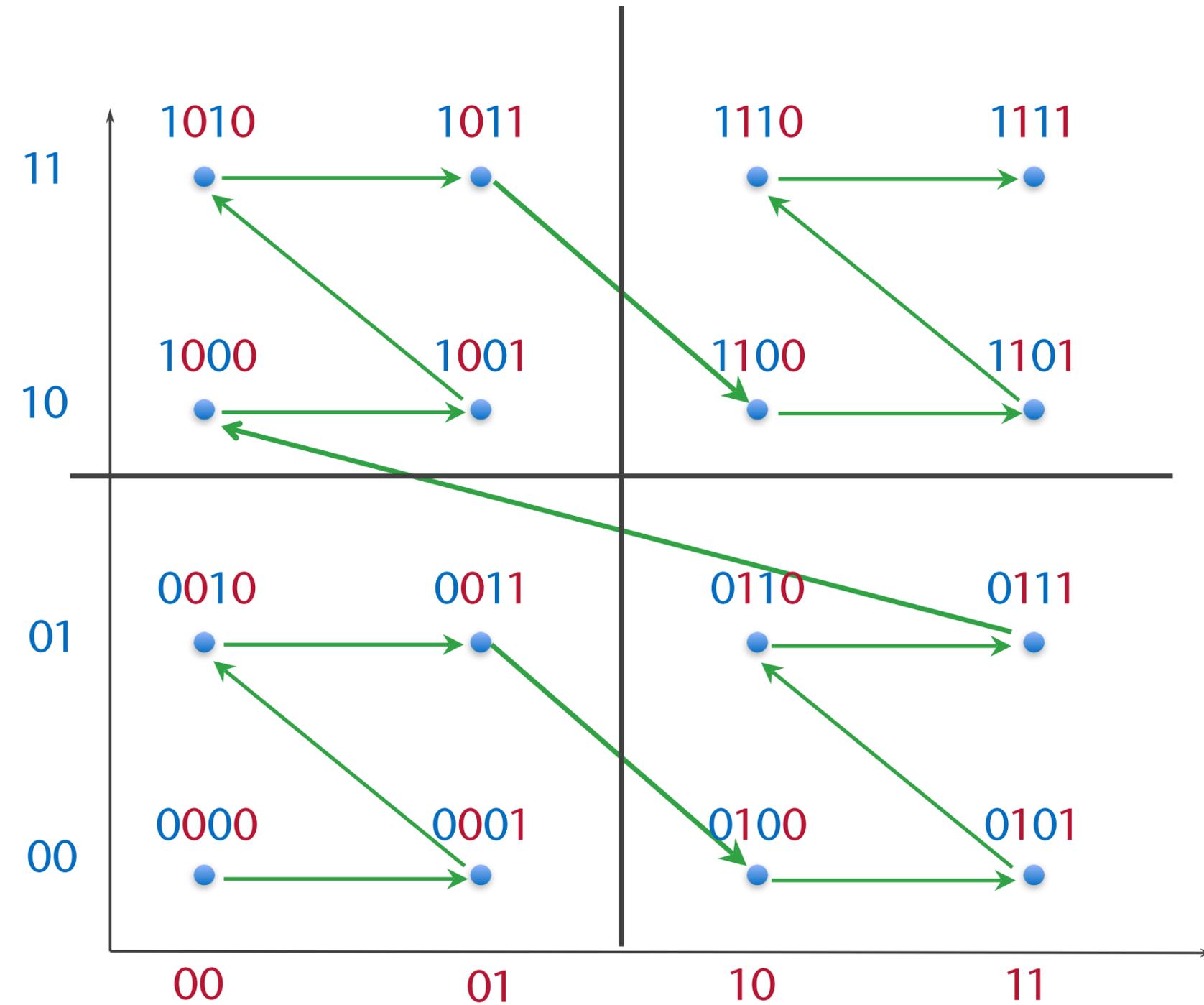


- At least, the limit curve does that ...
- In practice, we can construct a "space-filling" curve only up to some specific (recursion) level, i.e., in practice space-filling curves are never really *space-filling*

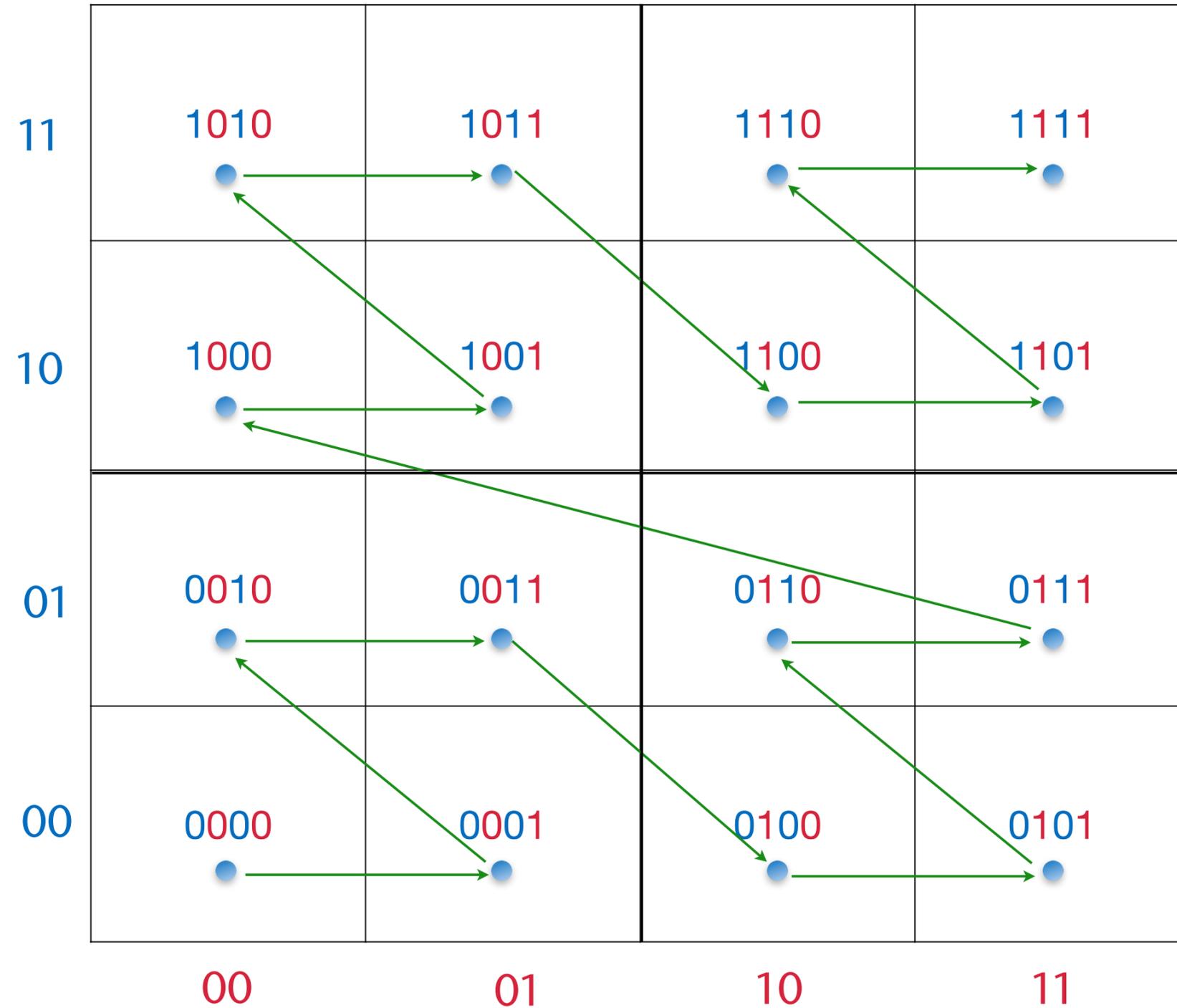
Construction of the Z-Order Curve in 3D

- Choose a level k
- Construct a regular lattice of points in the unit cube, 2^k points along each dimension
- Represent the coordinates of a lattice point p by integer/binary number, i.e., k bits for each coordinate, e.g. $p_x = b_{x,k} \dots b_{x,1}$
- Define the **Morton code** of p as the **interleaved** bits of the coordinates, i.e., $m(p) = b_{z,k} b_{y,k} b_{x,k} \dots b_{z,1} b_{y,1} b_{x,1}$
- Connect the points in the order of their Morton codes \rightarrow z-order curve at level k

Example (in 2D)

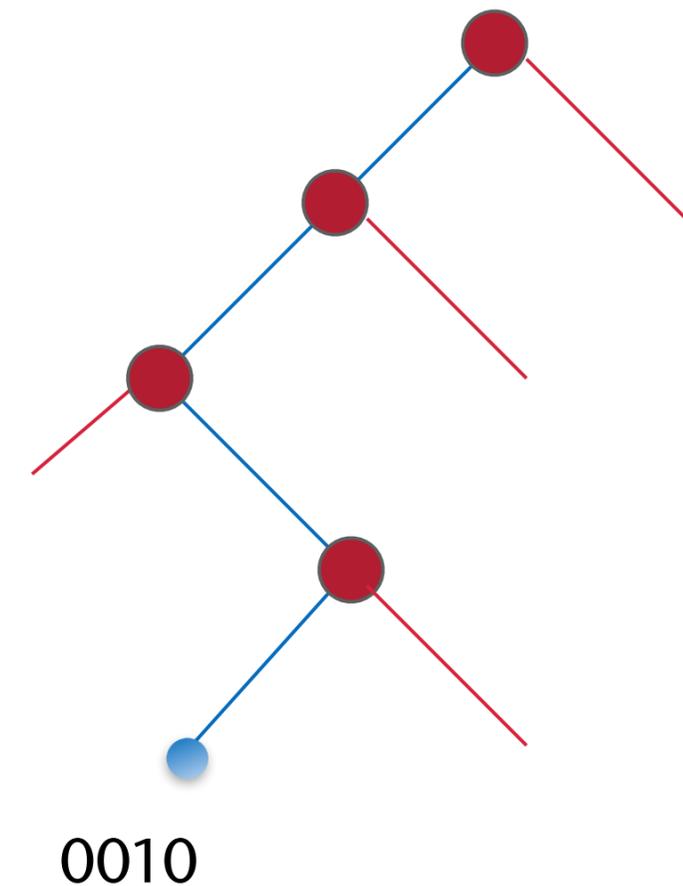


Note: the Z-curve induces a grid (actually, a complete quadtree)



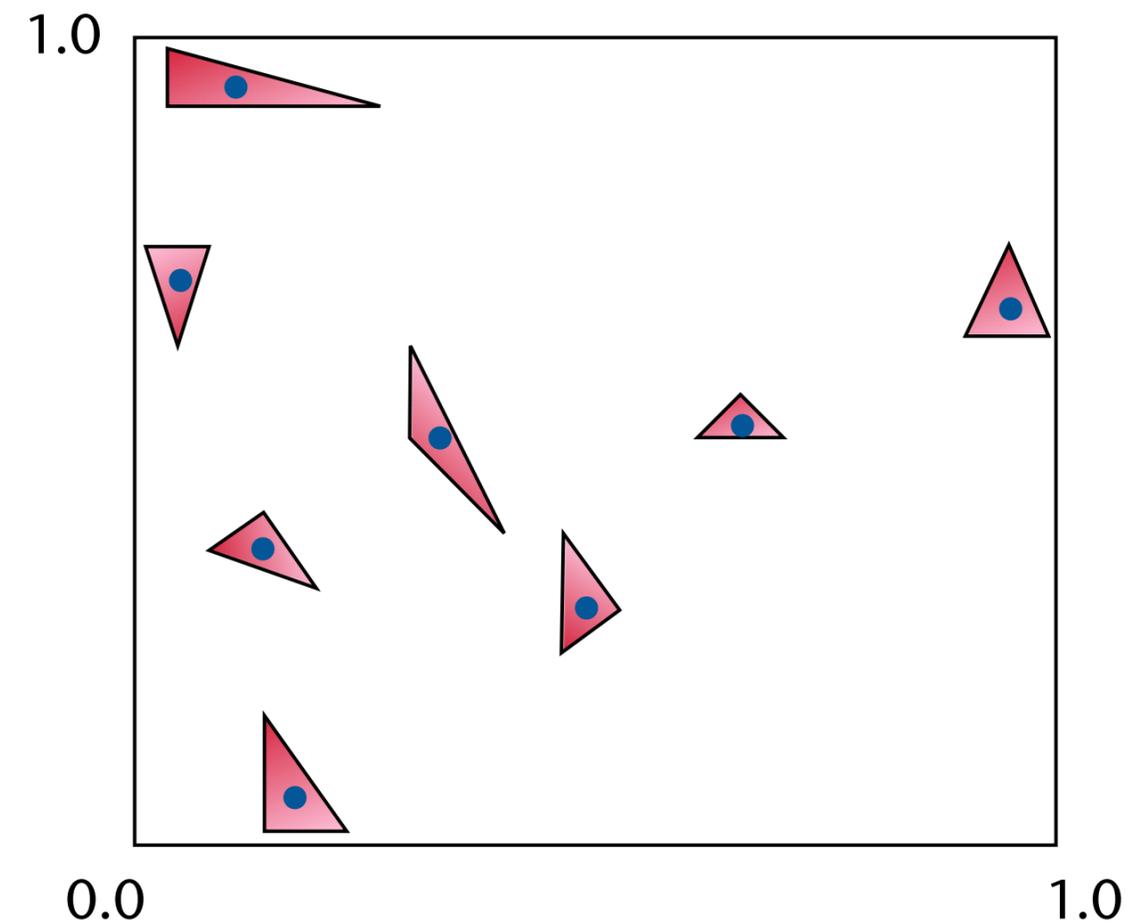
Properties of Morton Codes

- The Morton code of each point is $3k$ bits long (in 3D!)
- All points p with Morton code $m(p) = 0xxx$ lie below the plane $z = 0.5$
- All points with $m(p) = 111xxx$ lie in the upper right quadrant of the cube
- If we build a quadtree/octree on top of the grid, then the Morton code encodes the *path* of a point, from the root to the leaf that contains the point ("0" = left, "1" = right)
- The Morton codes of two points differ for the first time – when read from left to right – at bit position $h \Leftrightarrow$ the paths in the binary tree split at level h



Construction of Linear BVHs

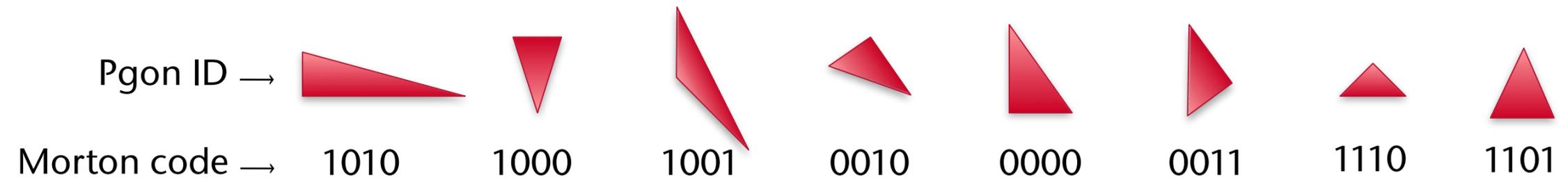
- Scale all polygons such that bbox = unit cube
- Replace polygons by their "center point"
 - E.g., center point = barycenter , or center point = center of bbox of polygon



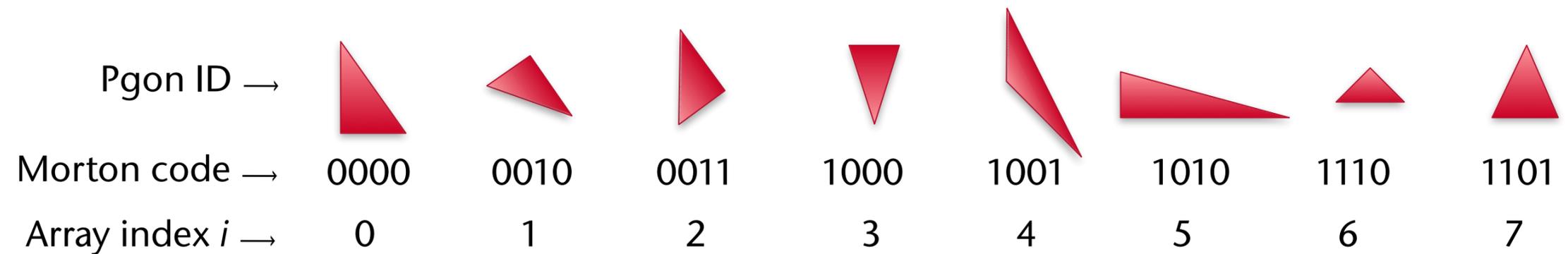
- Assign Morton codes to points according to their enclosing grid cell
- Assign those Morton codes to the original polygons, too

 1010	1011	1110	1111
 1000	1001	1100	1101 
0010	 0011	 0110	0111
0000	0001	0100	0101

- Now, we've got a list of pairs of \langle polygon ID, Morton code \rangle
- Example:



- **Sort** list according to Morton code, i.e., **along z-curve** \rightarrow **linearization**

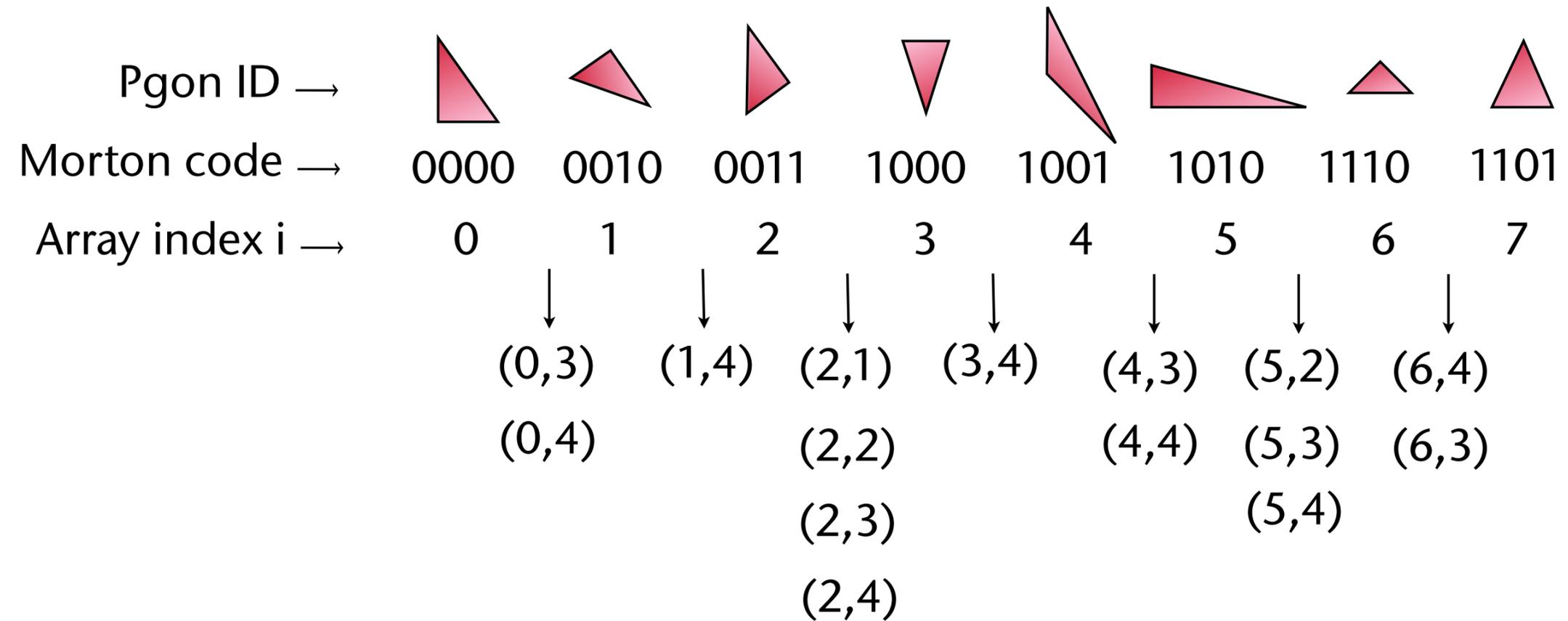


- Next: find index intervals representing BVH nodes at different levels

- Root of BVH = polygons in index range $0, \dots, N-1$
 - All polygons with first bit of Morton code = 0/1 are below/above the plane $z = 0.5$, resp.
 - In the sorted array, find index i where first bit (MSB) changes from "0" to "1"
 - Left child of root = polygons in index range $0, \dots, i-1$
 - Right child of root = polygons in index range $i, \dots, N-1$
- In general (recursive formulation):
 - Given: level h , and index range i, \dots, j in the sorted array, such that Morton codes are identical for all polygons in that range up to bit h
 - Find index k in $[i, j]$ where the bit at position h' ($h' > h$) in Morton codes changes from "0" to "1" (usually, $h' = h+1$)
- Can be achieved quickly by binary search and CUDA's `__clz()` function (= "count number of leading zeros")

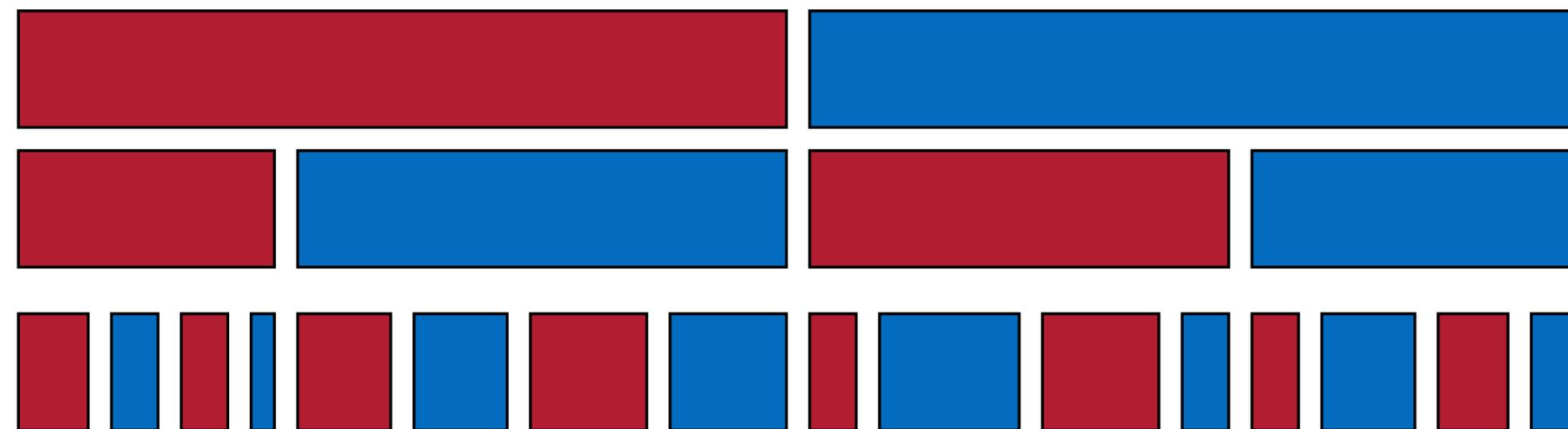
- Consider arbitrary polygons at position i and $i+1$ in the array
- Condition for "same node":
Polygons i and $i+1$ are in the same node of the BVH at level $h \Leftrightarrow$
Morton codes are the same up to bit h (at least)
- Define a **split marker** $:= \langle \text{index } i, \text{level } h \rangle$
- Parallel computation of all split markers \rightarrow "split list":
 - Each thread i checks polygons i and $i+1$
 - Compare their Morton codes from left to right $\rightarrow h =$ left-most bit position where the two Morton codes differ
 - Can be calculated in one step using XOR and `__clz`
 - Output split markers $\langle i, h \rangle, \dots, \langle i, 3k \rangle$ (seems like a bit of overkill)
 - Can be at most $3k$ split markers per thread \rightarrow static memory allocations works

- Example:



Split marker = (i, h) , $i \in [0, N-1]$, $h \in [1, 3k]$

- Last steps:
 1. **Compact** split list
 2. **Sort** split list by level h
 - Must be a **stable** sort!
- For each level h , we now have ranges of indices into the array of polygons; all primitives within a range are in the same node on that level h

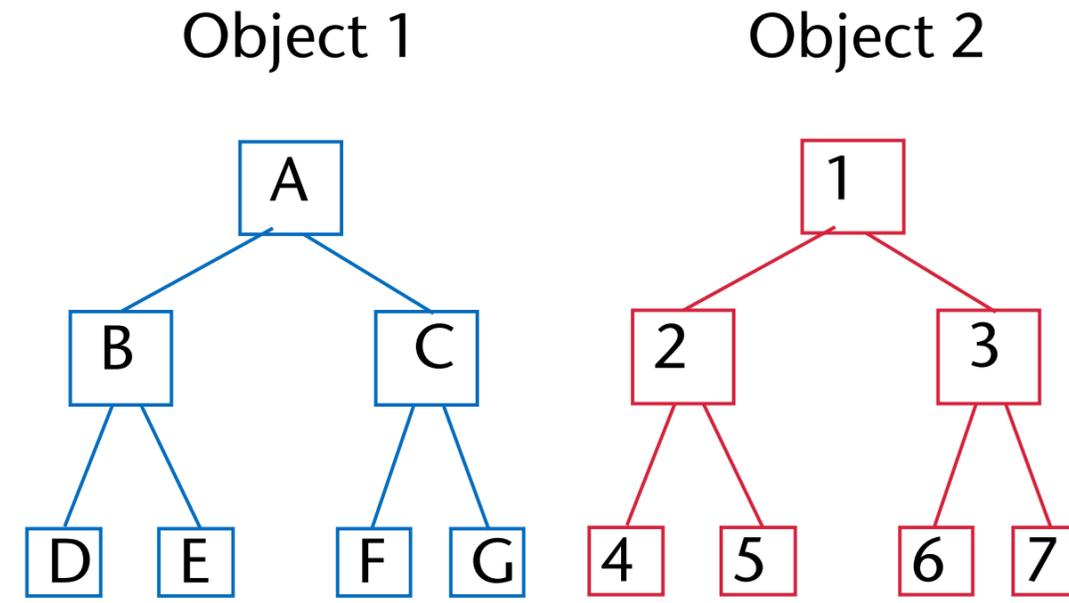
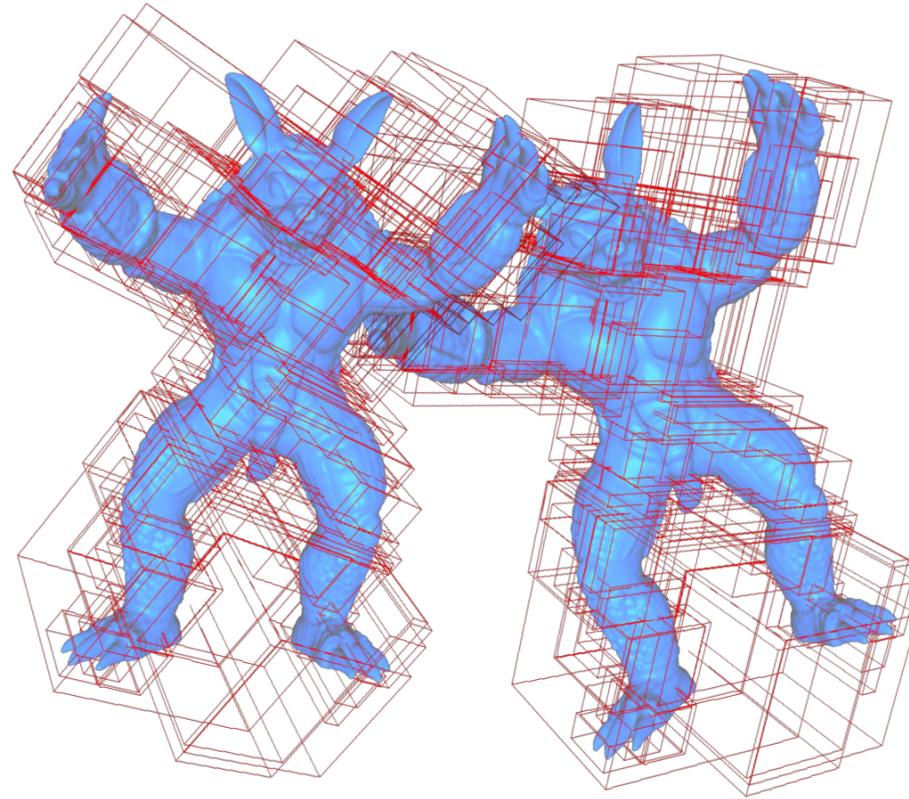


- Final steps:
 - Convert to "regular" BVH with pointers
 - Remove singleton BVH nodes
 - Compute bounding boxes for each node (i.e., interval)
- Challenge: can you use the array of split markers directly
 - Maybe, need to add additional pointers/indices to point to child "nodes"?
 - How would a ray traversal through this kind of BVH work?
 - Could you even use it for collision detection, i.e., simultaneous traversal of 2 BVHs?
- Limitations:
 - Not optimized for ray tracing
 - Morton code only *approximates* locality

Master's
Thesis! :-)

Example Application of BVHs: Collision Detection

FYI



```

traverse( node X, node Y ):
if X,Y do not overlap then:
    return
if X,Y are leaves then:
    check all pairs of polygons
else
    for all children pairs do:
        traverse( Xi, Yj )
  
```

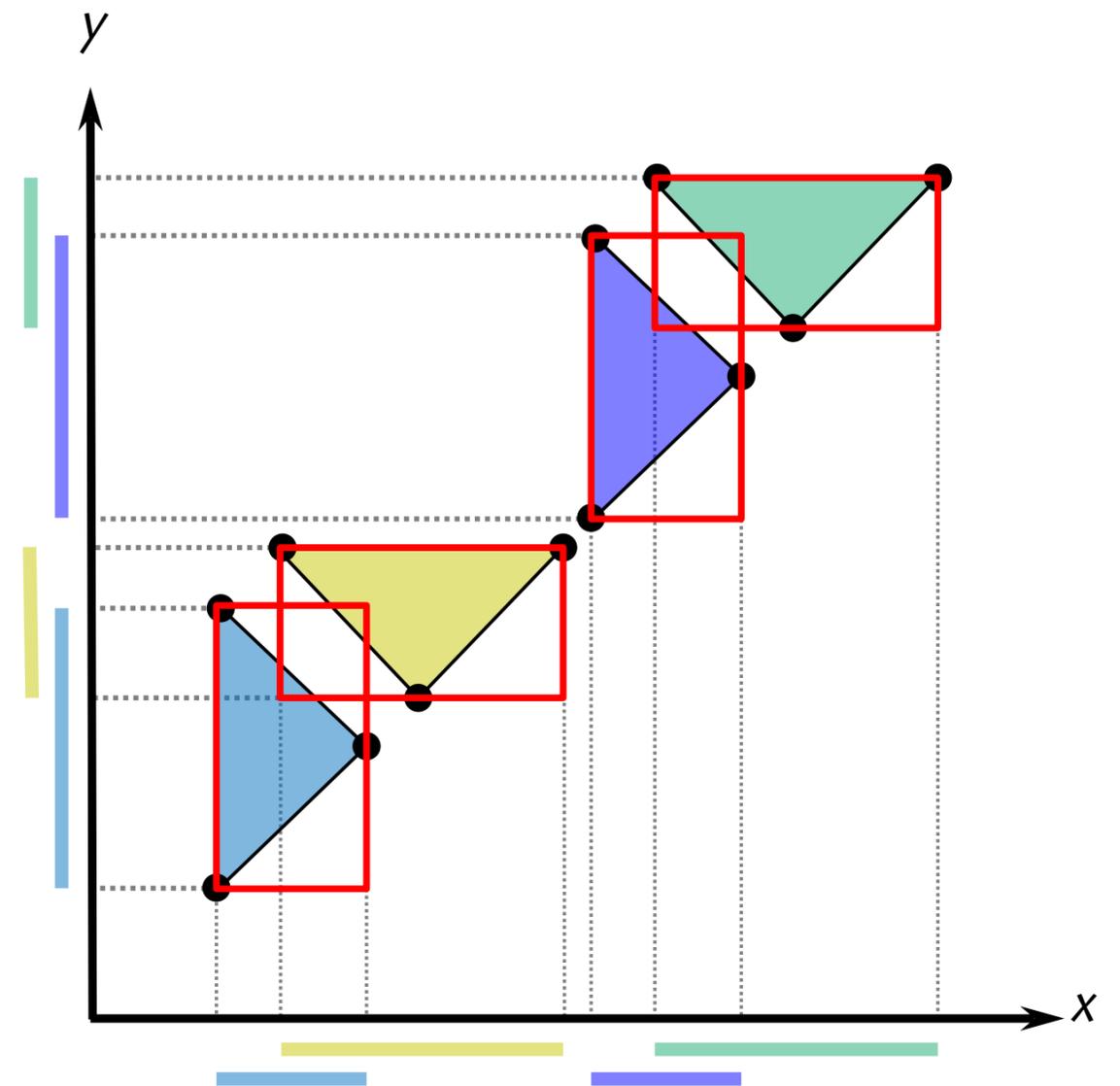
Application of Collision Detection (Video)



Collision Detection Without Auxiliary Data Structures

- Goal: collision detection of *deformable* objects
- Consequence: auxiliary (acceleration) data structure could potentially slow down the whole method
- Given: a large set of AABB's (each enclosing one polygon)
- Sought: pairs of AABB's that intersect (overlap)
 - Potentially intersecting pairs of polygons
 - Could be boxes of different objects → regular collision detection
 - Could be boxes of same object → self-collision / self-intersection
- Simplification here: ignore problem with pairs of boxes where triangles are adjacent in the same mesh
 - Need to be filtered before doing the actual intersection tests

- General idea: dimension reduction by plane sweep
 - Sweep plane through space along an axis
 - Consider only boxes that intersect that plane
 - Check intersection of those boxes in 2D
- Alternative description:
 - Project all boxes onto the (sweep) axis
→ set of intervals
 - Find pairs of intervals that overlap
- Sweep/projection axis can be chosen arbitrarily



```
parallel for all triangles:  
  compute AABB  
sort all end points  $S_i$  and  $E_i$  of all AABBs  
  in one common array  
  (key = x-coord., value = triangle ID)  
create list  $C$  of overlapping intervals (x)  
parallel for all pairs in  $C$ : (xx)  
  perform complete AABB overlap test  
  if no overlap: remove pair from list  $C$   
perform stream compaction on  $C$   
parallel for all triangle pairs  $(T_i, T_j)$  in  $C$ :  
  if  $(T_i, T_j)$  share an edge: remove pair from  $C$   
  if  $(T_i, T_j)$  do not intersect: remove pair from  $C$   
perform stream compaction on  $C$   
output  $C$ 
```

Remark: we can perform steps (x) and (xx) at the same time, shown here as separate steps for clarity

Step (x): create list C of overlapping intervals

- Idea:
 - Consider all starting points S_i
 - Find all intervals $[S_j, E_j]$ with $S_i \in [S_j, E_j]$
 - Do not consider the endpoints E_i , otherwise each overlapping pair is found twice
- Naïve parallelization: one thread per triangle
 - Thread starts at position i of "its" S_i in the sorted array of start/end points
 - Scans array from there to the right
- Goal for parallelization: one thread per overlapping pair
- Problem: number of threads and amount of memory for C is unknown

- Trick: prefix sum over a flags array
 - Similar to "split" in radix sort
- Also, all triangles know their start/end index in the sorted array of endpoints
- Number of potentially overlapping intervals / boxes = $P[E_i] - P[S_i] - 1$
 → number of threads per triangle i
- Reduction yields
 total number of threads = max length of array C

Array indices	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	...
Sorted array of start/end interval endpoints	S_A	S_C	S_B	E_C	E_A	E_B	S_D	E_D	...
Start/end flags	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	...
Prefix sum, P	0	1	2	3	3	3	3	4	...

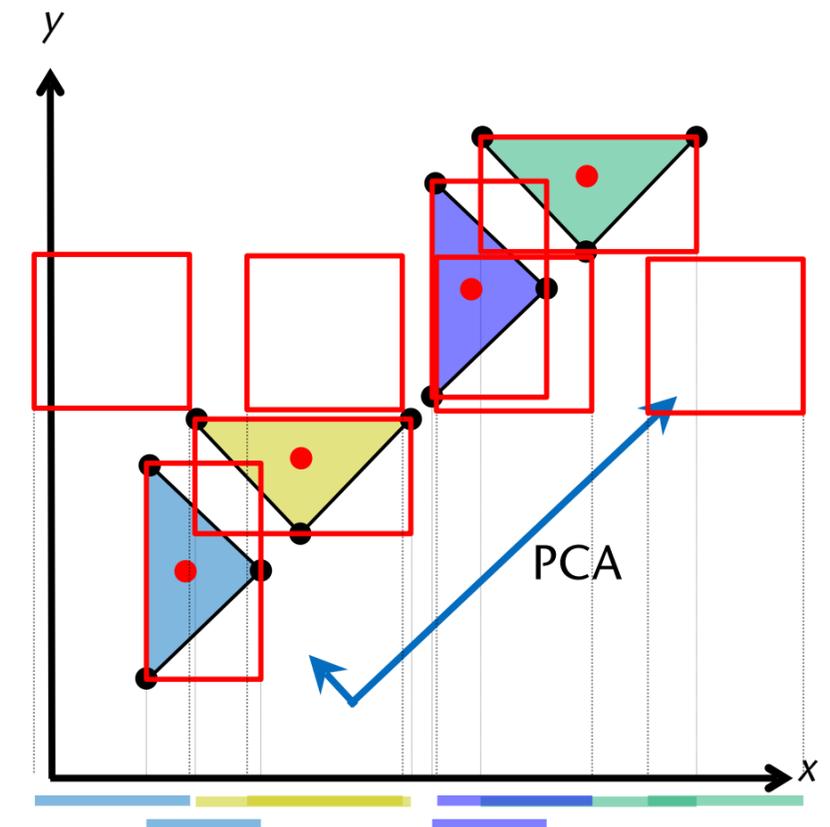
Triangle ID	A	B	C	D
Start index	0	2	1	6
End index	4	5	3	7

	A	B	C	D
	3-0-1	3-2-1	3-1-1	4-3-1
	2	0	1	0

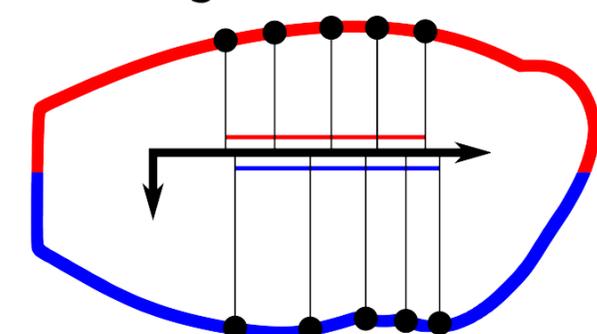
= 3

Extension: the Cluster-PCA-Based Sweep Plane Method

- Problem: sweep plane method → dimension reduction by projection → potentially many false positives
- Idea: utilize fact that the sweep/sorting axis can be chosen arbitrarily
- Use axis such that number of overlapping projected AABBs is minimized → heuristic: longest axis of PCA (= axis of largest variation)
- Further problem: could still produce lots of false positives

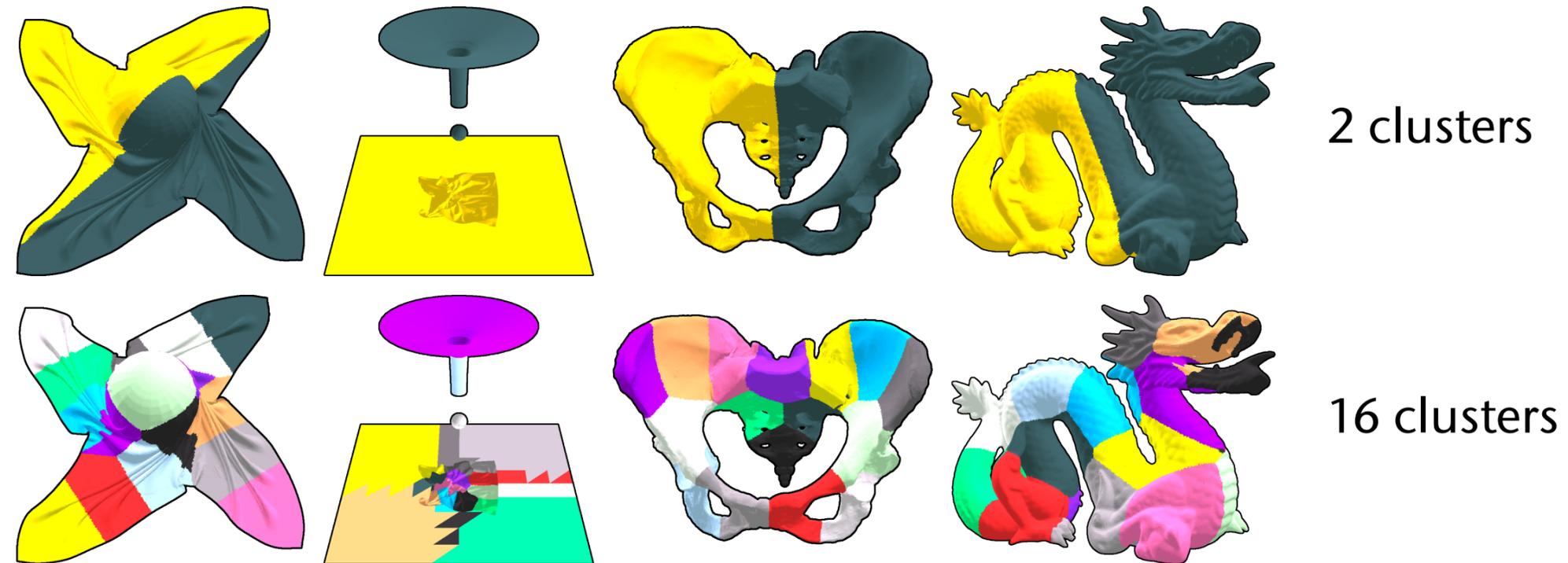


Triangles of front side



Triangles of back side

- Second idea to further reduce false positives: partition objects into clusters, perform previous method in parallel for all clusters

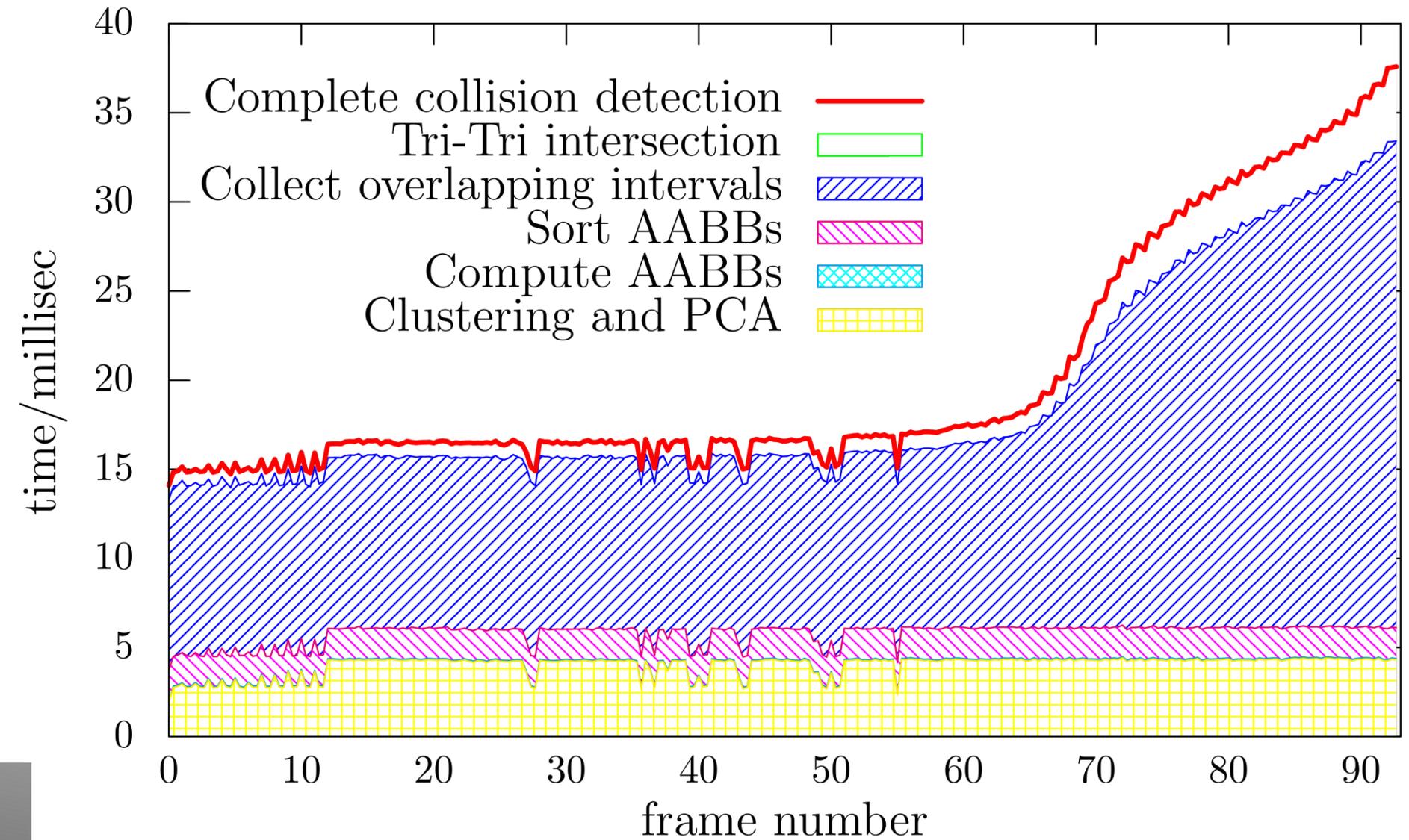
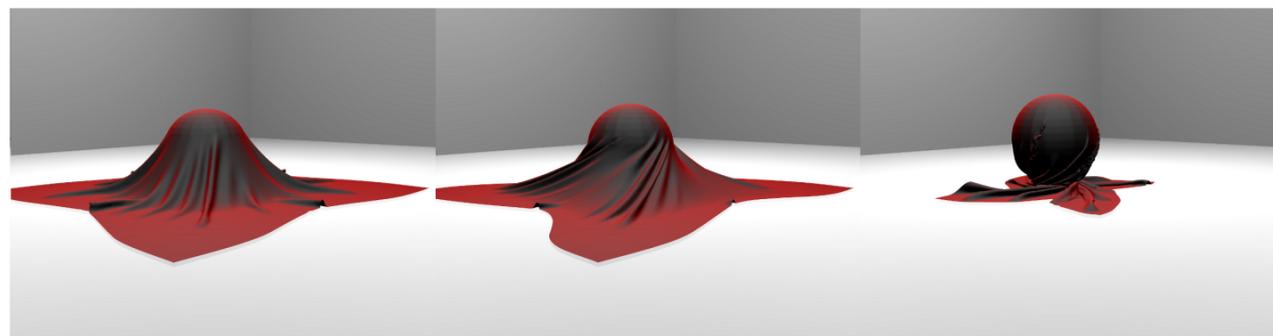
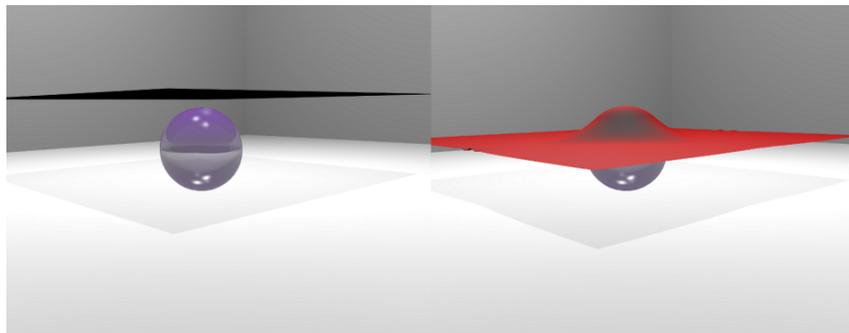


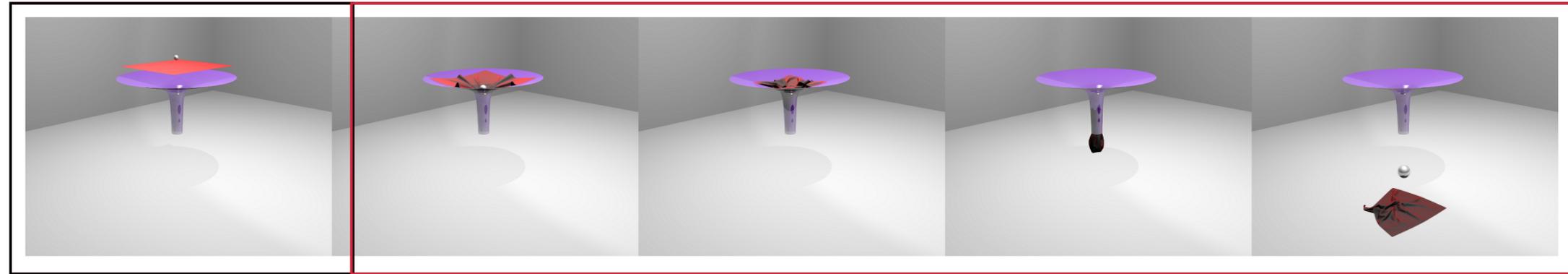
- Problem: need to find overlapping AABBs between clusters, too
- Solution: assign polygons along cluster borders to both clusters
- Method: fuzzy c-means (variant of k-means algo)

```
parallel for all triangles:  
  compute center points  
subdivide scene into  $c$  (overlapping) clusters  
parallel for all clusters:  
  compute PCA  
  transform all points into PCA coord. system  
  perform rest of collision detection as before
```

Results: Cloth on Ball Benchmark

- Cloth (92k triangles) drops down on a rotating ball (760 triangles)





Ball (1.7k triangles) pushes a cloth (14k triangles) through a funnel (2k triangles)

