## **Towards Simpler Sorting Networks** and Monotone Circuits for Majority

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## – Abstract

In this paper, we study the problem of computing the majority function by low-depth monotone circuits and a related problem of constructing low-depth sorting networks. We consider both the classical setting with elementary operations of arity 2 and the generalized setting with operations of arity k, where k is a parameter. For both problems and both settings, there are various constructions known, the minimal known depth being logarithmic. However, there is currently no known efficient deterministic construction that simultaneously achieves sub-log-squared depth, simplicity, and has a potential to be used in practice. In this paper we make progress towards resolution of this problem.

For computing majority by standard monotone circuits (gates of arity 2) we provide an explicit monotone circuit of depth  $O(\log_2^{5/3} n)$ . The construction is a combination of several known and not too complicated ideas. Essentially, for this result we gradually derandomize the construction of Valiant (1984).

As one of the intermediate steps in our result we need an efficient construction of a sorting network with gates of arity k for arbitrary fixed k. For this we provide a new sorting network architecture inspired by representation of inputs as a high-dimensional cube. As a result we obtain a simple construction that improves previous upper bound of  $4\log_k^2 n$  to  $2\log_k^2 n$ . We prove the similar bound for the depth of the circuit computing majority of n bits consisting of gates computing majority of k bits. Note, that for both problems there is an explicit construction of depth  $O(\log_k n)$ known, but the construction is complicated and the constant hidden in O-notation is huge.

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#### 1 Introduction

More than 50 years ago, Foster and Stockton [10] devised, in modern terms, an  $O(\log n)$ -depth Boolean circuits (with AND and OR gates of fan-in 2 and also NOT gates) that, given ninput bits, computes the binary representation of their sum. Their construction is explicit, that is, the circuit can be computed in deterministic  $n^{O(1)}$ -time. Moreover, it is relatively simple, where the main trick is to compute in *constant* depth, for any 3 numbers, given in binary, 2 numbers with the same sum, also given in binary. In about  $\log_{3/2} n$  steps, we get from n input bits to just two numbers, both  $O(\log n)$ -bit long. After that, one can compute their sum in depth  $O(\log n)$ , say, by the grade school algorithm.



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## 50:2 Towards Simpler Sorting Networks and Monotone Circuits for Majority

An easy consequence of this [20] is that all symmetric Boolean functions (those whose value is determined by the number of 1s in the input) are in the class  $NC^1$ , that is, can be computed by  $O(\log n)$ -depth fan-in 2 Boolean circuits. It should be noted, however, that in this construction, it is unavoidable to use NOT gates, even for symmetric functions that are monotone, like the *majority function*, outputting 1 if and only if more than half of the input bits are 1's. This is because inside the construction we compute the sum of input bits in binary, and the digits of this sum are non-monotone functions. Thus, if we want, say, a monotone Boolean circuit (only fan-in 2 AND and OR gates with no NOT gates) for the majority function that has depth  $O(\log n)$ , we need other ideas.

Monotone Boolean circuits of depth  $O(\log n)$  for the majority function are known to exist, but to this day, there is no explicit construction as simple as the construction of Foster and Stockton. Namely, there are two constructions, one is extremely simple but randomized (due to Valiant [32]), and the other is explicit but extremely involved (due to Ajtai, Komlós and Szemerédy [1]).

One can represent the construction of Valiant as a ternary tree of depth  $C \cdot \log n$ , where every node computes the majority of its three children [12]. As for the leafs, we simply put a random input variable to every leaf in the tree, independently for different leafs. It is relatively easy to show that, for every input  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$  and for a large enough absolute constant C > 0, the probability that the tree computes the value of the majority function on x is larger than  $1 - 2^{-n}$ . Thus, there exists a choice of putting input variables to leaves that gives us a circuit, computing the majority function for all inputs.

Derandomizing the Valiant's construction seems a tempting approach for constructing an explicit  $O(\log n)$ -depth monotone circuit for the majority function. Nevertheless, there has been limited progress in this direction. Hoory, Magen and Pitassi [13] have improved the size of the Valiant's construction, but their construction is still randomized. In turn, Cohen et al. [7] observed how to use hash functions to reduce the number of random bits to  $O(\log n)$  but at the cost of having the probability of error about 1/polylog(n), which is not enough for the complete derandomization.

Using a completely different approach, Ajtai, Komlós and Szemerédy [1] constructed an explicit (computable in deterministic polynomial time)  $O(\log n)$ -depth monotone circuit for the majority function. It is worth mentioning that the approach of [1] uses randomness as well, however, they derandomize their construction on the later steps. In fact, they did much more than that – they constructed an explicit sorting network with  $O(\log n)$  layers. A sorting network receives on input an array with n numbers and outputs the same array but with numbers going in the non-decreasing order. In each layer, there is a fixed partition of the entries of the array into pairs, where to each pair one applies a comparator, swapping the numbers in a pair if they are not in the non-decreasing order. A sorting network can be easily turned into a monotone circuit for the majority function whose depth is equal to the number of layers of the network. This is because on binary inputs, the comparator can be simulated with one AND gate and one OR gate. The value of the majority function then can be found as the value of the median entry of the sorted array.

For sorting networks, there are several simple and practical constructions with  $\Theta(\log^2 n)$  layers [16, 2, 22]. The construction of Ajtai, Komlós and Szemerédy [1], usually referred to as the AKS sorriting network, has  $O(\log n)$  layers, which is asymptotically optimal. However, despite some further simplifications by Paterson [24] and Seiferas [26], this construction is famously very involved with a constant above 1000 before  $\log n$ . As for the lower bounds, there is a folklore  $(2 - o(1)) \log_2 n$  lower bound on the number of layers for networks sorting n numbers. It was improved by Yao [34] and later by Kahale et al. [15] with the current record about  $3.27 \log_2 n$ .

For constructing just an explicit  $O(\log n)$ -depth monotone circuit for the majority function, we do not necessarily have to construct a sorting network. This gives us a hope that the difficulty of the AKS construction can be avoided. In this paper, we make a progress in this direction, giving the first explicit monotone circuit for the majority function that has sub- $O(\log^2 n)$  depth while not using the AKS methodology at all.

# ▶ **Theorem 1.** There is a polynomial time constructable monotone circuit for $MAJ_n$ of polynomial size and depth $O(\log^{5/3} n)$ .

Our proof combines several relatively simple steps. The principle component is a *partial* derandomization of the Valiant's construction, using some ideas of Cohen et al. [7] but with different setting of parameters. Next, we repeatedly apply two operations to the resulting randomized circuit. The first operation is a brute-force derandomization, that searches through all possible random bits of the randomized circuit. The second one is a composition with a circuit for MAJ<sub>n</sub> that consists of MAJ<sub>k</sub> gates and has depth  $O(\log_k^2 n)$ . Existence of such circuits is known [23, 8], but in this paper, we also give a new simple construction, based on alternative ideas and with better constant before  $\log_k^2 n$ .

In fact, all known construction of such circuits, including a new one from this paper, come from sorting networks with comparators that can simultaneously sort k > 2 positions of the array. We will call them k-sorting networks. They appear in the literature since the 70s, the setting is mentioned already in the Knuth's book [16, Problem 5.3.4.54], followed by numerous works [30, 23, 3, 21, 8, 18, 28, 11, 35]. They are usually studied to better understand the structure of ordinary sorting networks (for example, a version of AKS sorting network with improved constant relies on k-sorting network in intermediate constructions [6]). In particular, k-sorting networks are closely related to recursive constructions of sorting networks. Having a good construction of a k-sorting network, one can apply it to its own comparators, getting a construction with smaller k, until eventually k becomes 2, and we get an ordinary sorting network.

Chvátal shows in his lecture notes [6], the AKS sorting network also generalizes to this setting, giving a construction of depth  $O(\log_k n)$ . However, as with the AKS sorting network itself, this construction is complicated and impractical. In fact, even constructing a k-network of depth  $O(\log_k^2 n)$  is significantly harder for general k than just for k = 2. Standard  $O(\log_2^2 n)$ constructions for 2-sorting networks are based on divide and conquer approach, in which we first recursively sort parts of input and then merge sorted parts together. For the case of k-sorting networks to get a network of depth  $O(\log_k^2 n)$  with the same approach merging step needs to merge many parts simultaneously and this task becomes non-trivial [19, 27, 25, 5]. We are aware of just two constructions like that: Cypher and Sanz [8] gave a simple and potentially practical k-sorting network of depth  $\leq 5 \log_k^2 n$  (for  $k \geq \log^4 n$ ) and Parker and Parbery [23] gave a construction of depth  $\leq 4 \log_k^2 n$  (in case when n is an integral power of k). As for the lower bounds, any k-sorting network with n inputs must have depth at least  $\log_k n$  because otherwise outputs cannot be connected to all n inputs. Dobokhotova-Maikova et al. [9] improved this bound to roughly  $2\log_k n$ . They also found optimal values of k for small values of depth d. More specifically, for sorting networks of depth d = 1, 2 they show that k cannot be smaller than n, for d=3 the optimal value is  $k=\left\lceil \frac{n}{2}\right\rceil$  and for d=4 the optimal value is  $k = \Theta(n^{2/3})$ . These results indicate that small depth k-sorting networks are not enough for iterative approach to sub-log-squared sorting network and we need either good k-sorting network constructions of depth greater than 4 or additional ideas.

Our second result is a new architecture for k-sorting networks. An application of this architecture is a k-sorting network of depth  $2\log_k^2 n$ , improving the constant compared to the results of [8, 23]. More precisely, we prove the following theorem.

#### 50:4 Towards Simpler Sorting Networks and Monotone Circuits for Majority

▶ **Theorem 2.** For any n and for any k such that  $\log k = \omega(\log \log n)$  (or, to put it differently, k is growing faster than any  $\operatorname{polylog}(n)$ ), there exists a k-sorting network of depth at most  $(2 + o(1)) \log_k^2 n$ . The sorting network can be computed in polynomial time.

The key idea behind this construction is to represent the input array as a hypercube of high dimension and sort various sections of this cube. We note that the idea of representing an array as a multidimensional structure is not new, for example, Leighton [19] in his ColumnSort represented the array as a two dimensional table and Cypher and Sanz [8] use a representation of larger dimension. In our construction it is important that we use the dimension greater than 2 and that the sections of the cube that are used for sorting have non-trivial intersection. On the conceptual level, the main novelty in our construction is the notion of s-sorting. We call the array s-sorted if the whole array is sorted correctly apart from some interval of length at most s. Most (if not all) log-squared-depth sorting network constructions adopt the divide and conquer strategy. The  $O(\log_k^2 n)$ -depth construction in [23] is not an exception, to sort an array of size n, they split it into subarrays of size n/k, sort them recursively and merge them afterward. However, merging k subarrays using k-sorting network is relatively expensive. To improve over previous construction, we work with s-sorted subarrays instead. We show how to merge them effectively (using the hypercube idea) and then show how we can build a recursive construction based on them.

It is not hard to see that all outputs of a comparator with k inputs can be computed by  $MAJ_{2k}$  gates. This means that Theorem 2 yields an  $(2 + o(1)) \log_k^2 n$ -depth circuit for  $MAJ_n$ , consisting of  $MAJ_k$  gates, which is a final component for our construction in Theorem 1

To additionally illustrate applications of our construction, we consider constant depth sorting networks and circuits for majority. We show that there is a depth-4 MAJ<sub>k</sub>-circuit for MAJ<sub>n</sub> for  $k = O(n^{3/5})$ . As another application we address the question of k-sorting networks for  $k = O(n^{1/2})$ . In [16] Knuth posed a problem of constructing a minimal depth k-sorting network for the input of size  $k^2$ . Parker and Parbery [23] gave a construction of depth 9. We improve this to depth 8 at the cost of using comparators of size O(k) for  $k^2$ input size. The results of [9] show that the depth of such a network must be at least 5.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we provide necessary preliminary information. In Section 3 we construct a monotone circuit for majority of depth  $O(\log^{5/3} n)$ . In Section 4 we provide a new construction of k-sorting networks and deduce the corollaries. In Section 5 we discuss some open problems.

## 2 Preliminaries

We use the standard notation  $[n] = \{1, ..., n\}$ . We sometimes omit the base of the logarithms, by default we assume that the base is 2.

## 2.1 Sorting Networks

A depth-*d k*-sorting network with *n* inputs consists of d + 1 arrays  $A_1, \ldots, A_{d+1}$ , each of length *n*. Between any two arrays  $A_i$  and  $A_{i+1}$  there is a *layer of comparators* (the first layer is between  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ , the second layer is between  $A_2$  and  $A_3$ , and so on). A layer of comparators is a partition of the set  $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  into subsets of size at most *k* called *comparators*.

The input is given in an array  $A_1$  and all other arrays are computed by the network one by one in the following way. If  $S \subseteq [n]$  is a comparator from the *i*th layer, then it is applied to the entries  $\{A_i[j] \mid j \in S\}$ . It sorts their values in the non-decreasing order and puts the results into the entries  $\{A_{i+1}[j] \in A_{i+1} \mid j \in S\}$ . We say that a network is *sorting* if for any input  $A_1$  the array  $A_{d+1}$  is sorted.

We reserve the name *sorting network* for 2-sorting networks.

It is well known that to check that the sorting network sorts all possible inputs, it is enough to check that it sorts just 0/1-inputs.

▶ Lemma 3 (Zero-one principle [16]). A network with n inputs sorts all integer sequences in the non-decreasing order if and only if it sorts all sequences from  $\{0,1\}^n$  in the non-decreasing order.

By this principle, when constructing sorting networks, we can assume that each input cell receives either 0 or 1.

The following simple observation will be useful to us.

▶ Lemma 4. If the t largest or the t smallest entries in the array are positioned correctly (i.e., in the last t cells and in the first t cells, respectively), then after the application of several comparators they are still positioned correctly.

**Proof.** We can show by induction on i that the smallest and the largest entries do not move if they are already positioned correctly. The key observation is that if some of these entries are inputted into one of the comparators S, they will not be moved.

## 2.2 From Sorting Networks to Majority Circuits

We use the standard notion of Boolean circuits (see, e.g. [14]). As inputs, we allow Boolean variables and Boolean constants 0 and 1. The size of the circuit is the number of gates in it.

Given a k-sorting network we can get a circuit computing majority from it. More specifically, restrict the inputs to the network to  $\{0,1\}^n$  and consider one k-comparator S. Note that its kth output is equal to 1 if and only if there is at least one 1 in the input. In other words, the kth output is equal to OR of input bits. Its (k-1)th output is equal to 1 if and only if there are at least two 1s in the input. More generally, it is easy to see that the (k-i)th output of the k-comparator outputs a threshold function

$$\operatorname{THR}_{k}^{i}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |x| > i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where |x| denotes the weight of the vector  $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$ , that is, the number of 1s in it. We reserve the notation  $MAJ_k(x)$  for the function  $THR_k^{k/2}(x)$ .

We can substitute each comparator in the network by k majority functions. Note that by adding several constants 0 or 1 as inputs to the gate we can convert any  $\text{THR}_k^i$  function into  $\text{MAJ}_{k'}$  with  $k' \leq 2k$ .

Now, it remains to observe that the median bit in the output array computes exactly  $MAJ_n$ . Thus, as a result, we get the following lemma.

▶ Lemma 5. Any k-sorting network of depth d and size s can be effectively converted into a circuit of depth d and size ks consisting of  $MAJ_{2k}$  gates and computing majority. In the case k = 2, we get just a monotone circuit consisting of AND and OR.

## 2.3 Approximate Majority

By  $\varepsilon$ -approximate majority function MAJ<sup> $\varepsilon$ </sup><sub>n</sub> we denote the partial function that outputs MAJ<sub>n</sub> of its input but is defined only on the inputs where the fraction of ones in it is bounded away by  $\varepsilon$  from 1/2.

We need the following result by Viola [33] which can be viewed as a derandomization of the Sipser–Lautemann theorem [29, 17]

▶ **Theorem 6** ([33]). For any constant  $\varepsilon > 0$ , one can compute  $MAJ_n^{\varepsilon}$  explicitly by a monotone circuit of size poly(n) and depth  $O(\log n)$ .

(Monotonocity condition is implicit in [33] but easily observable from the construction).

## 2.4 *t*-Wise Independent Hash Functions

We need the notion of t-wise independent hash functions.

▶ Definition 7. For integers N and t such that  $t \leq N$ , a family of function  $\mathcal{H} = \{h: [N] \rightarrow [N]\}$  is t-wise independent if for all distinct  $x_1, \ldots, x_t \in [N]$  the random variables  $h(x_1), \ldots, h(x_t)$  are independent and uniformly distributed in [N], when  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  is drawn uniformly.

▶ **Theorem 8** ([31]). For every integer n and t such that  $t \leq 2^n$  there is a family of t-wise independent functions  $\mathcal{H} = \{h: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^n\}$  such that choosing a random function from  $\mathcal{H}$  takes nt random bits and evaluating a function from  $\mathcal{H}$  takes time poly(n, t).

▶ **Theorem 9** ([4]). Let X be the average of N t-wise independent random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_N \in [0, 1]$  for even t. Then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  we have

$$\Pr\left[|X - \mathbf{E}[X]| \ge \varepsilon\right] \le 1.1 \left(\frac{t}{N\varepsilon^2}\right)^{t/2}$$

## 3 Sub-log-squared Circuit for Majority

In this section, we provide a proof of Theorem 1.

Our goal is to compute MAJ<sub>n</sub> by an explicit circuit of polynomial size and  $o(\log^2 n)$  depth. We assume for convenience that n is odd (for even n we can consider a circuit for n + 1 and substitute one variable by a constant). We start with some inferior circuit and perform several operations that allow us to gradually improve the parameters. However, on our way, we need to consider randomized circuits as well, and apart from size and depth, we will also be interested in the number of random bits and the error probability. More specifically, a circuit is an (s, d, r, err)-circuit for majority if its size is at most  $2^s$ , depth is at most d, we can construct a circuit using at most r random bits and the error probability on each input is at most  $2^{-err}$ . Here all parameters are functions in the number of inputs n (we write  $err = \infty$  when the circuit is correct with probability 1). All circuits we are going to consider are effectively constructible: there is an algorithm that given the values of random bits constructs a circuit in polynomial time in the size of the circuit.

Given a circuit with some parameters, we will use two operations to obtain new circuits. We are introducing these operations in the next two lemmas. Their effect on the circuit is summarized in the table below.

Initial circuit	Brute-force derandomization	Downward self-reduction	
s(n)	O(s(n) + r(n))	$O(\log n) + s(2k)$	
d(n)	d(n) + O(r(n))	$O\left(\left(\frac{\log_2 n}{\log_2 k}\right)^2 d(2k)\right)$	
r(n)	0	r(2k)	
$\operatorname{err}(n)$	$\operatorname{err}(n)$ $\infty$ $\operatorname{err}(2k) - O(\log n)$		

▶ Lemma 10 (Brute-force derandomization). If there is an (s, d, r, 2)-circuit C, then there is an  $(O(s+r), d+O(r), 0, \infty)$ -circuit.

This lemma allows us to get rid of randomness but increases the depth and the size of the circuit if r is large.

**Proof.** Consider a randomized circuit  $C_y(x)$ , where  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$  is an input and  $y \in \{0, 1\}^r$  is the sequence of random bits. Assume  $C_y(x)$  has the parameters, as in the statement of the lemma. Consider circuits  $C_y(x)$  for all possible values of y and observe that for any x the fraction of circuits that output  $\text{MAJ}_n(x)$  is at least 1 - 1/4 = 3/4. Thus, if we feed  $C_y(x)$  for all y into a circuit from Theorem 6 computing  $\text{MAJ}_{2r}^{\epsilon}$ , the output is exactly  $\text{MAJ}_n(x)$ .

The size of the resulting circuit is at most  $2^r \cdot 2^s + \text{poly}(2^r)$ , where the first term corresponds to computing  $C_y(x)$  for all y and the second term corresponds to computing  $\text{MAJ}_{2r}^{\varepsilon}$ . Thus, the size is  $2^{O(s+r)}$ . Since all  $C_y(x)$  can be computed in parallel, the depth of the circuit is at most d + O(r). The resulting circuit does not use random bits and is always correct.

▶ Lemma 11 (Downward self-reduction). If there is an (s(n), d(n), r(n), err(n))-circuit C, then for any k < n there is an  $(O(\log n) + s(2k), O(\log_k^2 n \cdot d(2k)), r(2k), err(2k) - O(\log n))$ -circuit.

This operation increases the depth (if d(n) is sub-log-squared), but allows to reduce other parameters.

**Proof.** Consider a k-sorting network of depth  $O(\log_k^2 n)$ , given by [23] or by our Theorem 2 (the latter allows only for limited values of k, but the values we will actually use in the construction below are within the limits). By Lemma 5 this network gives us a monotone circuit with the same parameters consisting of MAJ<sub>2k</sub> gates computing MAJ<sub>n</sub>, denote this circuit by C(x), where  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ .

Consider a  $(s(2k), d(2k), r(2k), \operatorname{err}(2k))$ -circuit  $C_y$  on k inputs, where  $y \in \{0, 1\}^{r(2k)}$ . Fix y and substitute each MAJ<sub>2k</sub> gate in C by  $C_y$ . Denote the resulting circuit by  $D_y(x)$ . This is a standard monotone Boolean circuit, its size is  $\operatorname{poly}(n) \cdot 2^{s(2k)}$ , its depth is  $O(\log_k^2 n \cdot d(2k))$ and the number of random bits is r(2k).

It remains to show that the error probability is not too large. For this fix some input  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ . Consider all MAJ<sub>2k</sub> gates in C(x) and denote their inputs when x is fed to C by  $z^1, z^2, \ldots, z^t$ . Here t is the size of C and is polynomial in n.

For each  $z^i$  the probability over random y that  $C_y(z^i)$  computes  $\operatorname{MAJ}_{2k}(z^i)$  incorrectly is at most  $2^{-\operatorname{err}(2k)}$ . By union bound, with probability at least  $1 - t2^{-\operatorname{err}(2k)}$  we have  $C_y(z^i) = \operatorname{MAJ}_k(z^i)$  for all i and thus  $D_y(x)$  computes  $\operatorname{MAJ}_n(x)$  correctly. Thus, the probability of error of the resulting circuit is at most

 $t \cdot 2^{-\operatorname{err}(2k)} = 2^{-\operatorname{err}(2k) + O(\log n)}.$ 

Now we describe our starting circuit. Interestingly, it is constructed as a partial derandomization of Valiant's construction.

▶ Lemma 12. There is an explicit circuit for majority with parameters  $(O(\log n), O(\log n), O(\log^3 n), \Omega(\log^2 n)).$ 

We provide the proof of Lemma 12 in Section 3.1 below, but before that, we explain how to finish the construction of the desired circuit for  $MAJ_n$ .

Starting with the circuit provided by Lemma 12, we first apply downward self-reduction with the parameter k satisfying  $\log k = C\sqrt{\log n}$  for some big enough constant C > 0, then we apply brute-force derandomization, and then we apply downward self-reduction again with k satisfying  $\log k = \log^{2/3} n$ . We summarize the changes in the parameters after each step in the table below.

◀

	Initial circuit	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
		Self-reduction with $\log k = \sqrt{\log n}$	Brute-force derandomization	Self-reduction with $\log k = \log^{2/3} n$
s(n)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log^{3/2} n)$	$O(\log n)$
d(n)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log^{3/2} n)$	$O(\log^{3/2} n)$	$O(\log^{5/3} n)$
r(n)	$O(\log^3 n)$	$O(\log^{3/2} n)$	0	0
$\operatorname{err}(n)$	$\Omega(\log^2 n)$	$\Omega(\log n)$	$\infty$	$\infty$

## 50:8 Towards Simpler Sorting Networks and Monotone Circuits for Majority

▶ Remark 13. Note that with the two operations in hand, there are not that many options to apply them to a given initial construction. It is not hard to check that applying downward self-reduction two times in a row is not better than applying it once with the appropriate value of k. Clearly, there is no need to apply the derandomization step twice. From this, it is not hard to see that our sequence of operations is actually optimal. Once the optimal sequence of operations is established, it is not hard to check that our choice of parameters in downward self-reductions is optimal as well.

## 3.1 Proof of Lemma 12

In this subsection, we are going to prove Lemma 12. The high-level idea is to partially derandomize Valiant's construction. To make the presentation self-contained we first recall the idea behind this construction.

Suppose we have independent random bits x, y, z that are equal to 1 with probability p and consider MAJ<sub>3</sub>(x, y, z). It is not hard to see that it outputs 1 with probability  $f(p) = p^3 + 3p^2(1-p)$ . Consider  $p = \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$  and denote  $\varepsilon' = f(p) - \frac{1}{2}$ . Then

$$\varepsilon' = f(p) - \frac{1}{2} = f(p) - f(\frac{1}{2}) = f'(\alpha)\left(p - \frac{1}{2}\right) = f'(\alpha)\varepsilon$$

for some  $\alpha \in [\frac{1}{2}, p]$ . Note that  $f'(p) = 6p - 6p^2 = 6p(1-p)$ . It is easy to see that for  $\alpha \in [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}]$  we have  $f'(\alpha) \geq \frac{4}{3}$ . Thus, for  $\varepsilon \in [0, \frac{1}{6}]$  we have  $\varepsilon' \geq \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon$ .

Now, we can use this in the following way. Consider  $\operatorname{MAJ}_n$  for odd n and consider its arbitrary input x. Without loss of generality, assume that  $\operatorname{MAJ}_n(x) = 1$ . If we draw one variable from x uniformly at random, it is equal to 1 with probability at least  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n}$ . Consider a MAJ<sub>3</sub> gate and feed to it three independently and uniformly drawn input variables. By the analysis above the output of such a MAJ<sub>3</sub> gate is equal to 1 with probability at least  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$ . Now we can repeat this: consider three such MAJ<sub>3</sub> gates and feed their outputs to another MAJ<sub>3</sub> gates. The result is equal to 1 with probability  $\frac{1}{2} + (\frac{4}{3})^2 \frac{1}{n}$ . After  $O(\log n)$ many iterations, we get a  $O(\log n)$ -depth randomized circuit consisting of MAJ<sub>3</sub> gates that output the correct value with probability at least  $\frac{2}{3}$ . Valiant's argument further improves this probability, but we will not need this part of the argument.

The randomized circuit above uses too many random bits. Now we are going to modify the construction in a way, that uses randomness more efficiently. We will use some ideas from [7].

Construct the following circuit consisting of MAJ<sub>3</sub> gates. The circuit contains  $\Theta(\log n)$  layers, each containing  $N = n^3$  gates. The bottom layer consists of input variables, each repeated  $\frac{N}{n} = n^2$  times (it is redundant to copy variables several times, we do this exclusively for the sake of uniformity of the construction). In other layers, each gate computes the MAJ<sub>3</sub> function of some gates from the previous layer. To assign the inputs to each gate, for each layer j we draw three fresh (and independent of each other) t-wise independent hash functions  $f_j, g_j, h_j : [N] \to [N]$  for  $t = \Theta(\log n)$ . For a gate with number i in layer j we set its inputs to be gates with numbers  $f_j(i), g_j(i)$  and  $h_j(i)$  in layer (j-1).

Before we finish the construction of the circuit, let us analyze the current part. Consider some input  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ , assume without loss of generality that  $MAJ_n(x) = 1$ . Denote by  $\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon_i$  the fraction of gates on level *i* that output 1. For i = 1 we have  $\varepsilon_1 \ge \frac{1}{n}$ .

Each gate on level *i* receives three independent inputs from the previous level. Thus, the probability that it outputs 1 is at least  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon_{i-1}$  (we have shown this above only for  $\varepsilon_{i-1} \leq \frac{2}{3}$ , but these values of  $\varepsilon_{i-1}$  are enough for our construction as well). Thus, the expected fraction of ones in level *i* is also at least  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon_{i-1}$ .

Now we would like to use concentration inequality to show that with high probability the fraction of correct values is not much smaller than its expectation. Note that once the outputs of the gates on level i - 1 are fixed, the outputs of the gates on level i are t-wise independent.

Let  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{6n}$  and denote by  $X_i$  the output of *i*-th gate. Then by Theorem 9 we have

$$\Pr\left[\left|\sum_{i} X_i/N - \left(\frac{1}{2} + (4/3)\varepsilon_{j-1}\right)\right| \ge \varepsilon\right] \le 1.1 \left(\frac{t}{N\varepsilon^2}\right)^{t/2} = 2^{-\Theta(\log^2 n)}.$$

By union bound the probability that on each level  $\varepsilon_j \geq \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon_{j-1} - \varepsilon$  is at least

$$1 - O(\log n) \cdot 2^{-\Theta(\log^2 n)} = 1 - 2^{-\Theta(\log^2 n)}.$$

Thus, we can show by induction on j that with probability at least  $1 - 2^{\Theta(\log^2 n)}$  we have

$$\varepsilon_j \ge \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon_{j-1} - \varepsilon \ge \frac{7}{6}\varepsilon_{j-1} + \frac{1}{6}\varepsilon_{j-1} - \frac{1}{6n} \ge \frac{7}{6}\varepsilon_{j-1}$$

where in the last inequality we use that by induction hypothesis we have  $\varepsilon_{j-1} \ge \left(\frac{7}{6}\right)^{j-1} \cdot \varepsilon_1 \ge \frac{1}{2}$ .

Thus, just like in Valiant's argument, after  $O(\log n)$  iterations, with probability  $1 - 2^{-\Theta(\log^2 n)}$ , we have  $\varepsilon_j \geq \frac{2}{3}$ . At this point, it remains to apply to the last layer a circuit from Theorem 6.

It is easy to see that the size of the resulting circuit is poly(n), the depth is  $O(\log n)$ , error probability is  $2^{-\Theta(\log^2 n)}$ . As for the random bits, note that in the construction we need  $O(\log n)$  t-wise independent hash functions from [N] to [N]. By Theorem 8 there are families of such functions defined using  $O(t \log N)$  random bits. In total we need

$$O(\log n) \cdot O(t \log N) = O(\log^3 n)$$

random bits.

This finishes the proof of Lemma 12.

▶ Remark 14. Instead of applying a circuit for Approximate Majority to the last layer, we could do the following: sample  $m = O(\log^2 n)$  gates from the last layer uniformly at random and then compute the majority on these m gates using some simple circuit of depth  $O(\log^2 m)$ . By Chernoff's inequality, this adds at most  $2^{-\Omega(m)} = 2^{-\Theta(\log^2 n)}$  to the error probability, and we need  $O(\log^3 n)$  random bits. In turn, the increase in depth and size is negligible.

## 4 k-Sorting Network Construction

## 4.1 **Proof Strategy**

Before we proceed to the proof we would like to illustrate the idea considering some specific value of k. For convenience, we assume that n is a perfect cube.

▶ Lemma 15. Assume that  $n = t^3$  for natural t. Then there is a depth-4 k-sorting network with  $k = 2t^2 = 2n^{2/3}$ .

We present the proof using a geometric interpretation of an input array as a threedimensional cube. However, note that a similar result is implicit in [19] and it is essentially the same construction, just stated in different terms. We also note that it is known that this is the optimal (up to a constant factor) value of k for depth-4 sorting networks [9].



(a) Input array.



(d) Step 3: cut the cube into horizontal slices of width 2.



(b) Step 1: cut the cube into vertical slices.



x

(c) Step 2: cut the cube into vertical slices in the other direction.



(e) Step 4: horizontal slices with a shift.

**Figure 1** Sorting network for  $k = 2n^{2/3}$  (here n = 125, k = 50 and t = 5).

#### Proof.

y

**Step 1** – construction. We represent entries of an input array as a 3-dimensional cube with the side t (see Figure 1a). We place the first  $t^2$  entries of an array in the bottom layer of the cube, the next  $t^2$  entries in the second layer of the cube and so on. In each layer the entries are positioned row by row.

To be more precise, assume that the array A is enumerated as  $[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$ . We reenumerate the same array as

 $[a_{111}, a_{112}, \ldots, a_{11t}, a_{121}, \ldots, a_{12t}, \ldots, a_{ttt}].$ 

That is, entries of an array are enumerated by sequences  $(x, y, z) \in \{1, \ldots, t\}^3$  in the lexicographic order. In Figure 1  $a_{xyz}$  corresponds to a subcube with coordinates (x, y, z).

In the first layer of the sorting network we split the cube into vertical slices of width 1 and feed each slice to a  $t^2$ -comparator (see Figure 1b). To be more precise, for each  $i = 1, \ldots, t$  we feed entries  $a_{xyi}$  for all x, y into one comparator. On the second layer of the network we split the cube into vertical slices of width 1 in another direction and feed each slice to a  $t^2$ -comparator (see Figure 1c). In other works, for each  $i = 1, \ldots, t$  we feed entries  $a_{xiz}$  for all x, z into one comparator. On the third layer we split the cube into horizontal slices of width 1) and feed the slices to comparators of arity at most  $2t^2$  (see Figure 1d). Finally, on the fourth layer of the network we split the cube into horizontal slices of width 2 again, but now the first slice is of width 1 (for even t the last slice is of width 1 as well). Thus, the slices on this layer are shifted compared to the previous one (see Figure 1e).

**Step 2** – **correctness.** It remains to prove that this sorting network sorts correctly. Consider any input  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ . Note that the cube consists of  $t^2$  vertical columns with t entries in each column: each column  $A_{yz}$  is obtained by fixing y and z in  $a_{xyz}$  and considering all possible x. We are interested in the weight  $w_{yz}$  of each column, that is the number of 1s in it. For the input A the weights of the columns can be any numbers from 0 to t. Now consider the array after the first layer of the network. Note that now each vertical slice of the first layer of the network is sorted. This means that in each of these slices in the first several rows (from bottom to top) there are only 0s, then there might be a row containing both 0s and 1s, and then all remaining rows contain 1s. In particular, the weights of two columns in the same slice differ by at most 1.

Now consider the second layer of the network and consider two different slices  $S_i = \{a_{x,i,z} \mid x, z \in [t]\}$  and  $S_j = \{a_{x,j,z} \mid x, z \in [t]\}$ . Note that each of them contains exactly one column from each slice of the first layer. We know that the weights of the columns in the same slice of the first layer differ by at most 1. Thus, in total, the number of 1s in two slices of the second layer differ by at most t. In other words, for each z the first slice contains the column  $A_{iz}$  and the second slice contains the column  $A_{jz}$ . We know that on the input of the second layer of the network  $|w_{iz} - w_{jz}| \leq 1$ . Thus,

$$\left|\sum_{z} w_{iz} - \sum_{z} w_{jz}\right| \le t.$$

Denote by  $r_i$  the number of rows in slice  $S_i$  that consists of only 1s after the second layer of the network. We just showed that the slice  $S_i$  can have one more extra row of 1s, one less row of 1s or something in between. Overall, for the number  $r_j$  of rows consisting of 1s in  $S_j$ we have  $|r_i - r_j| \leq 1$ . As a result, the weights of columns in slices  $S_i$  and  $S_j$  can differ by at most 2. Since this is true for any *i* and *j*, we have that the weights of all columns in the cube after the second layer of the sorting network differ by at most 2.

To put it another way, there is a horizontal slice of width 2, such that below this slice we have only 0s and above this slice we have only 1s. Thus it remains to sort entries of this slice. Note that on layers 3 and 4 of the network there is a comparator that sorts exactly this slice. Note that by Lemma 4 all other comparators of layers 3 and 4 do not harm the sorting.

This argument can be extended to the cubes of arbitrary dimension d. More specifically, for  $n = t^d$  and for  $k = (d-1)t^{d-1}$  we can represent entries of an input array as a d-dimensional cube with side d, sort "vertical" slices (we need to fix one of the coordinates in d-dimensional space as vertical) in all d-1 directions and then sort horizontal slices. This results into

#### 50:12 Towards Simpler Sorting Networks and Monotone Circuits for Majority

(d-1) layers of the sorting network and for horizontal slices we need recursive calls for the arrays of size approximately  $2dt^{d-1}$ . Actually, it is expensive to make two recursive calls for horizontal layers, instead we use an additional trick to make just one recursive call.

Although our k-sorting network construction can be expressed in terms of high dimensional hypercubes, we prefer to give a more general exposition, using a concept of s-sorted arrays.

## 4.2 Merging *s*-Sorted Arrays

The following definition plays a key role in our sorting network construction.

▶ **Definition 16.** A 0/1-array A of length n is s-sorted if there is an integer interval  $I = \{i, \ldots, i + s - 1\} \subseteq [n]$ , such that A[j] = 0 for j < i and A[j] = 1 for  $j \ge i + s$ . We call I unsorted interval.

As an immediate corollary of Lemma 4, we get the following.

▶ Corollary 17. Suppose a sorting network gets an s-sorted array with unsorted interval I. Then the output is also s-sorted with I as an unsorted interval.

We give a construction of a depth-1 sorting network that "merges" p arrays of length n that are already s-sorted into one array which is  $(sp + O(np^2/k))$ -sorted, where k is the arity of the sorting network.

▶ Lemma 18. Assume that  $k \ge tp$  for some integers t and p. Suppose we have p s-sorted arrays of size n each. Assume additionally that n is divisible by t. Then there is a depth-1 k-sorting network that merges these arrays into one array of size np that is  $(sp+2\frac{np}{t})$ -sorted. If additionally we assume that s is divisible by n/t, then the resulting array is  $(sp+\frac{np}{t})$ -sorted.

**Proof.** Represent each array as a table with  $\frac{n}{t}$  columns and t rows. We assume the following ordering on the entries of this table: to compare two entries, we first compare the indices of their rows, and then the indices of their columns. Position the tables one under another in a unified table with tp rows. Note that  $tp \leq k$  and apply k-comparator to each column in parallel. We claim that the resulting array in the large table is  $(sp + 2\frac{np}{t})$ -sorted.

To see that observe, that in each small table, an unsorted interval of length at most s occupies at most  $\left\lceil \frac{st}{n} \right\rceil + 1$  rows (any other row either consists entirely of 0s or entirely of 1s). In the large table, this gives us at most  $p\left(\left\lceil \frac{st}{n} \right\rceil + 1\right)$  non-constant rows. After sorting each column individually, 0-rows will move to the top, 1-rows will move to the bottom and all other  $p\left(\left\lceil \frac{st}{n} \right\rceil + 1\right)$  rows will be in between on them. They constitute an unsorted interval and the size of it is at most

$$\frac{n}{t} \cdot p\left(\left\lceil \frac{st}{n} \right\rceil + 1\right).$$

For general s we can upper bound this as follows

$$\frac{n}{t} \cdot p\left(\left\lceil \frac{st}{n} \right\rceil + 1\right) \le \frac{n}{t} \cdot p\left(\frac{st}{n} + 2\right) = sp + 2\frac{np}{t}.$$

If s is divisible by n/t, note that we can just drop the rounding operation and the size of an unsorted interval is at most

$$\frac{n}{t} \cdot p\left(\left\lceil \frac{st}{n} \right\rceil + 1\right) = \frac{n}{t} \cdot p\left(\frac{st}{n} + 1\right) = sp + \frac{np}{t}.$$

Applying previous lemma several times we get the following.

▶ Lemma 19. Consider arbitrary n and k and denote  $t = \lfloor \sqrt{k} \rfloor$ . Then there is a k-sorting network of depth  $\lceil \log_t n \rceil - 1$  that on any input outputs an s-sorted array for  $s \leq \frac{2 \lceil \log_t n \rceil n}{t}$ .

**Proof.** Denote  $d = \lfloor \log_t n \rfloor$  and observe that  $n \leq t^d$ . Introduce the following notation:

$$n_i = \begin{cases} t^{i+1} & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, d-2\\ t^{d-1}p & \text{for } i = d-1, \end{cases}$$

where p is such that  $t^{d-1}(p-1) < n \le t^{d-1}p$ . In particular, since  $p \ge 2$ , we have  $p-1 \ge p/2$ and

$$n > t^{d-1}(p-1) \ge t^{d-1}p/2$$

For the convenience of presentation, we add  $t^{d-1}p - n$  dummy inputs equal to 1 to the end of the array to make the size of the input to be equal to  $t^{d-1}p$ . By Lemma 4 these inputs will never change their position and can be removed from the sorting network.

We start with an unsorted array as an input. Applying Lemma 18 several times, we get the array consisting of blocks that are s-sorted for some s. More specifically, after level i of the network we get the blocks of size  $n_i$  that are  $s_i$  sorted for

$$s_i = \begin{cases} (i-1)t^i & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, d-2, \\ (d-2)t^{d-2}p & \text{for } i = d-1. \end{cases}$$

On the first step we split the input into blocks of size  $t^2$  and apply comparators to them, the resulting blocks are 0-sorted.

On the *i*-th step for i = 2, ..., d-1 we already have blocks of size  $n_{i-1} = t^i$  from the previous step that are  $s_{i-1}$ -sorted for  $s_{i-1} = (i-2)t^{i-1}$ . Note that  $n_{i-1} = t^i$  is divisible by t and  $s_{i-1}$  is divisible by  $n_i/t = t^{i-1}$ . We apply Lemma 18 and for i < d-1 get blocks of size  $n_{i-1}t = n_i$  that are s-sorted for  $s = s_{i-1}t + n_{i-1} = (i-1)t^i$ . For i = d-1 we have just p subarrays to merge and after the step we get the whole array of size  $t^{d-1}p$  that is s-sorted for  $s = (d-3)t^{d-2}p + \frac{t^{d-1}p}{t} = (d-2)t^{d-2}p$ .

Finally, observe that

$$s \le (d-2)t^{d-2}p \le d\frac{2n}{t}$$

as desired.

## 4.3 Computing Majority

Before constructing a sorting network we solve a simpler task of computing majority function.

▶ **Theorem 20.** For any n and for any k such that  $\log k = \omega(\log \log n)$  (or, to put it differently, k is growing faster than any  $\operatorname{polylog}(n)$ ), there exists a MAJ<sub>k</sub>-circuit for MAJ<sub>n</sub> of depth at most  $(2 + o(1)) \log_k^2 n$ .

The rest of the section is devoted to the proof of Theorem 20.

First observe that to compute  $MAJ_n$  correctly by a monotone circuit it is enough to compute it correctly on minterm and maxterm inputs: the computation on other inputs follows by monotonicity. Thus, we can assume in our construction that the input contains almost the same number of 0s and 1s. We will construct a sorting network that sorts all such inputs correctly. From the sorting network we get the circuit of the same depth.

### 50:14 Towards Simpler Sorting Networks and Monotone Circuits for Majority

Suppose we need to sort an array of size n with approximately the same number of 0s and 1s. We apply Lemma 19 to the array. This results in a Y-sorted array for  $Y = \frac{2\lceil \log_t n \rceil n}{t}$  for  $t = \lfloor \sqrt{k} \rfloor$ . Since the number of 0s and 1s in the array is approximately equal, the smallest  $\frac{n}{2} - Y$  and the largest  $\frac{n}{2} - Y$  elements are sorted correctly (otherwise, the length of the unsorted interval is larger than Y). Thus, it remains to sort a specific interval of length 2Y and we can do this recursively.

Overall, we get the following recursive relation.

$$T(n) \leq \left\lceil \log_t n \right\rceil - 1 + T\left(2Y\right) \leq \log_t n + T\left(\frac{4\left\lceil \log_t n \right\rceil n}{t}\right)$$

To solve this recursive relation we use the following lemma.

▶ Lemma 21. Assume that  $\log k = \omega(\log \log n)$ . Suppose that T(n) = const for n up to some constant and

$$T(n) \le 2\log_k n + C + T\left(\left\lceil \frac{D(\log_k n)n}{\sqrt{k}} \right\rceil\right)$$

for some constants C and D > 0. Then  $T(n) \leq (2 + o(1)) \log_k^2 n$ .

**Proof.** To simplify the presentation, we ignore rounding of the argument of T first, and address it later. Denote  $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{k}}{D \log_k n}$ .

We have

$$T(n) \leq 2 \log_k n + C + T\left(\frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$$
  
$$\leq 2 \log_k n + C + 2 \log_k \frac{n}{\alpha} + C + T\left(\frac{n}{\alpha^2}\right)$$
  
$$\leq 2 \sum_{i=0}^{\log_\alpha n} \left(\log_k \frac{n}{\alpha^i} + C\right)$$
  
$$= 2 \left(\log_k n + \left(\log_k n - \log_k \alpha\right) + \left(\log_k n - 2 \log_k \alpha\right) + \dots + 0\right) + 2C \log_\alpha n$$
  
$$\leq 2 \frac{\log_k n}{\log_k \alpha} \frac{\log_k n}{2} + 2C \log_\alpha n = \log_k^2 n \log_\alpha k + 2C \log_\alpha n.$$

It is easy to see that the term  $2C \log_{\alpha} n$  is negligible, since  $\alpha \gg k^{1/3}$ . We analyze  $\log_{\alpha} k$  factor separately:

$$\log_{\alpha} k = \log_{\frac{\sqrt{k}}{D \log_{k} n}} k = \frac{\log_{2} k}{\log_{2} \frac{\sqrt{k}}{D \log_{k} n}} \le \frac{\log_{2} k}{\frac{1}{2} \log_{2} k - D - \log_{2} \log_{k} n}$$
$$= \frac{\log_{2} k}{\frac{1}{2} \log_{2} k - D - \log_{2} \log_{2} n + \log_{2} \log_{2} k}.$$

For  $\log k = \omega(\log \log n)$  this term is 2 + o(1) and we have

 $T(n) \le (2 + o(1)) \log_k^2 n.$ 

To address the rounding operation, note that  $\left\lceil \frac{n}{\alpha} \right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{\alpha} + 1 \leq \frac{2n}{\alpha}$  for  $\frac{n}{\alpha} \geq 1$ . Thus, in the presence of rounding we will have  $\sum_{i} \log_k \frac{2n}{\alpha}$  in the calculation above instead of  $\sum_{i} \log_k \frac{n}{\alpha}$ . This amounts to substituting D by 2D and does not change the result of the calculation since D is an arbitrary constant.

## 4.4 Constructing Sorting Network

In this section, we finish the proof of Theorem 2.

We adopt the same strategy as for the computation of majority. More specifically, we apply Lemma 19 recursively to get s-sorted array for smaller and smaller s. However, now our task is more tricky. In the proof of Theorem 20 when we get to an s-sorted array we know exactly where the unsorted interval is located (in the middle of the array). However, now we need to sort arbitrary input arrays and an unsorted interval can be anywhere.

We construct the network recursively. We assume that at the beginning of each step, we have an s-sorted array (at the beginning of the process s = n). Denote the unsorted interval by A,  $|A| \leq s$ . Split the array into consecutive blocks  $B_1, \ldots, B_p$  of size s (the last block  $B_p$ ) might be smaller.

The recursive step consists of two stages. In the first stage, we split the array into blocks  $B_1 \cup B_2$ ,  $B_3, \cup B_4$ , and so on, each block of size 2s (one last block might be smaller). In the second stage, we split the array into blocks  $B_1, B_2 \cup B_3, B_4 \cup B_5$ , and so on (again the last block might be smaller than 2s). Before describing each of the stages, observe that either in the first stage or in the second stage (or in both) the interval A falls completely into one of the blocks. Indeed, A can intersect with at most two consecutive blocks  $B_i, B_{i+1}$  and in one of the stages, they form a single block.

In the first stage, we apply Lemma 19 to each of the blocks  $B_1 \cup B_2, B_3, \cup B_4, \ldots$  separately. As a result, each block is s'-sorted for  $s' \leq \frac{4 \lceil \log_{\lfloor \sqrt{k} \rfloor} n \rceil s}{\lfloor \sqrt{k} \rfloor}$ . Moreover, if the block consisted of only 0s and 1s, then it does not change.

If A is contained in one of the blocks of the first stage, we are already done: there is only one initially unsorted block that by Lemma 19 after the step is s'-sorted. By Corollary 17 this property remains true after the additional comparators we apply for the other case.

If A is split between two blocks of the first stage, then after the stage we have two consecutive unsorted blocks, each of them is s'-sorted. Denote unsorted parts by  $C_1, C_2$ . Note that by Corollary 17  $C_1, C_2 \subseteq A$  and thus,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  fall into one block of the second stage. It is tempting to apply Lemma 19 to the blocks of the second stage as well. However, this application is too expensive and will not result in the desired bound.

Instead we do the following. We represent each block of the second stage (of size at most 2s) as a table with  $p = \lceil 2s/k \rceil$  columns and k rows, filled in row by row from top to bottom. For convenience, if the last row is not complete, add dummy variables equal to 1 to complete the row.

Each of the intervals  $C_1, C_2$  occupy at most  $\lceil s'/p \rceil + 1$  rows. There might be another row that contain a switch between blocks  $B_i$  and  $B_{i+1}$ . Each other row consist either entirely of 0s, or entirely of 1s. Denote the number of all 0 rows by a and the number of all 1 rows by b.

We apply a comparator to each column separately. As a result, each column will contain a zeros in the beginning, b ones in the end and some part in between. The number of rows in the middle part is at most  $2 \lceil s'/p \rceil + 3$ . The number of entries in these rows is at most

$$s^{\prime\prime}=p(2\left\lceil s^{\prime}/p\right\rceil +3)\leq 2s^{\prime}+5p\leq 3s^{\prime}$$

for large enough input size. Thus, after the second stage we get s''-sorted array and we are done with the recursion step.

Thus, we get that  $s'' \leq 12 \frac{\lceil \log_t n \rceil s}{t}$  and we get the following recursive relation

$$T(n) \leq \log_t n + T\left(\frac{12\lceil \log_t n\rceil n}{t}\right).$$

We apply Lemma 21 again to get  $T(n) \leq (2 + o(1)) \log_k^2 n$ .

This finishes the proof of Theorem 2.

#### 50:16 Towards Simpler Sorting Networks and Monotone Circuits for Majority

## 4.5 Other Applications

In this section we give two more examples of results that follow from our construction.

▶ Lemma 22. There is a MAJ<sub>k</sub>-circuit of depth 4 computing MAJ<sub>n</sub> for  $k = O(n^{3/5})$ .

**Proof.** Denote  $r = \lceil n^{1/5} \rceil$ . For simplicity we pad the input with constants 0 and 1 to make the size of the array  $r^5$  without changing the output of majority. We will use k-sorters for  $k = 4r^3$ .

As in the proof of Theorem 20 it is enough to compute  $MAJ_n$  on minterms and maxterms, thus we can assume that there are approximately equal number of 0s and 1s in the input.

We will build a k-sorting network and the existence of the circuit follows. On the first layer of the network we split the input into blocks of size  $r^3$  and sort them. On the second layer we use Lemma 18 with p = r and  $t = r^2$ . As a result we get blocks of size  $r^4$  that are  $r^2$ -sorted. On the third level we apply Lemma 18 again with the same values of p and t. As a result we have that the whole input is now  $2r^3$ -sorted. On the last layer of the network just as in the proof of Theorem 20 we apply  $4r^3$ -comparator to the middle of the array.

In [16] Knuth posed a problem of constructing a minimal depth k-sorting network for the input of size  $k^2$ . Parker and Parbery [23] gave a construction of depth 9. Here we slightly improve on this at the cost of using comparators of size O(k).

▶ Lemma 23. There is a k-sorting network of depth 8 that sorts an array of size n with  $k = O(n^{1/2})$ .

**Proof.** As usual pad an array with constants to make  $n = r^4$  for some integer r. Thus  $k = O(r^2)$ .

We follow the same strategy as in Section 4.4. First we apply Lemma 19 that uses three layers of network and results in a s-sorted array for  $s = O(r^3)$ . Then, we apply Lemma 19 again to the blocks of size  $O(r^3)$  to get a network of depth 2 that results in each block being  $O(r^2)$ -sorted. Then we apply one more layer to merge unsorted intervals in different blocks to get the array that is  $O(r^2)$ -sorted. Finally, we again split the array into blocks, this time of size  $O(r^2)$  to complete the sorting using two layers. In total we use 3 + 2 + 1 + 2 = 8 layers.

## 5 Conclusion

The obvious open problems are to come up with explicit constructions of sorting networks and monotone circuits for majority of smaller depth. One specific problem is to extend our  $O(\log^{5/3} n)$  construction to sorting networks. The obstacle that we encountered is that there is no randomized construction of a low-depth sorting network that we can use as a start. Another interesting question is to extend our  $O(\log^{5/3} n)$  construction to get a MAJ<sub>k</sub>-circuit for MAJ<sub>n</sub> of depth  $O(\log_k^{5/3} n)$ . Such a construction can be used instead of  $O(\log_k^2 n)$ -depth circuit in downward self-reduction to further improve the upper bound. Again, the obvious obstacle is that it is not clear how to get a starting construction.

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## 50:18 Towards Simpler Sorting Networks and Monotone Circuits for Majority

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