

# Computing the Voronoi Diagram on the Star and Pancake Interconnection Networks

S.G. Akl, K. Qiu  
 Dept. of Computing & Info. Sci.  
 Queen's University  
 Kingston, Canada  
 {akl,qiu}@qucis.queensu.ca

I. Stojmenović  
 Computer Science Department  
 University of Ottawa  
 Ottawa, Canada  
 stosl@uottawa.bitnet

## Abstract

*The star and pancake interconnection networks are two attractive alternatives to the popular hypercube for interconnecting processors in a parallel computer. They possess many desirable properties such as small degree and diameter. In this paper, we present parallel algorithms that compute the Voronoi diagram on the star and pancake networks. For an  $n$ -star or  $n$ -pancake with  $p = n!$  processors, given  $n!$  planar points stored in the processors such that each processor holds one point and has a memory of constant size, the Voronoi diagram of these points can be found in  $O(n^4 \log^2 n)$  time. The algorithm presented in this paper is universal in the sense that it can be used on any network that can efficiently implement the divide-and-conquer paradigm.*

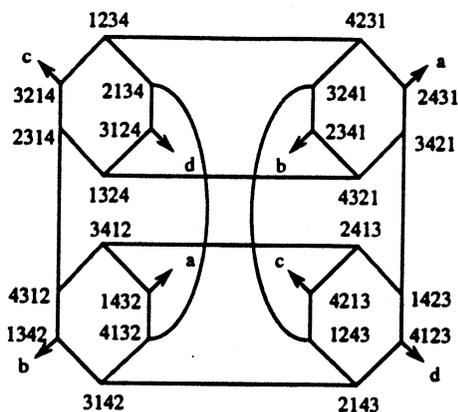
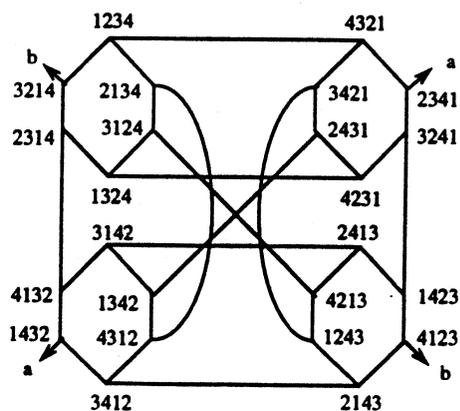
## 1 Introduction

Given a set of generators for a finite group  $\mathcal{G}$ , the *Cayley graph* with respect to  $\mathcal{G}$  is defined as follows. The vertices of the graph correspond to the elements of the group  $\mathcal{G}$ , and there is an edge  $(a, b)$  for  $a, b \in \mathcal{G}$  if and only if there is a generator  $g$  such that  $ag = b$  [1]. We require that the set of generators be closed under inversion so that the resulting graph can be viewed as being undirected [1]. Both the hypercube and CCC are Cayley graphs [1].

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a permutation group and  $V_n$  be the set of all  $n!$  permutations of symbols  $1, 2, \dots, n$ . A *star graph* on  $n$  symbols,  $S_n = (V_n, E_{S_n})$ , is a Cayley graph with generators  $g_i = i23\dots(i-1)1(i+1)\dots n$ ,  $2 \leq i \leq n$ . Fig. 1 shows  $S_4$ . For a node  $v \in V_n$ , we define  $v[i]$  to be the  $i^{\text{th}}$  symbol in  $v$ , with  $v[1]$  being the leftmost one. Each vertex in  $S_n$  is connected to  $n-1$  vertices which can be obtained by interchanging the first symbol of the vertex with the  $i^{\text{th}}$  symbol,  $2 \leq i \leq n$ . We call these  $n-1$  connections *dimensions*. Thus each vertex is connected to  $n-1$  vertices through dimensions  $2, 3, \dots, n$ .  $S_n$  is also called an  $n$ -star.

A *pancake interconnection network* on  $n$  symbols,  $P_n = (V_n, E_{P_n})$ , is a Cayley graph with generators  $h_i = i(i-1)\dots 321(i+1)(i+2)\dots n$ ,  $2 \leq i \leq n$ . Each vertex in  $P_n$  is connected to  $n-1$  vertices which can be obtained by flipping the first  $i$  symbols,  $2 \leq i \leq n$ . The dimensions for  $P_n$  are defined similarly as for star networks.  $P_n$  is also called an  $n$ -pancake.

Fig. 2 shows  $P_4$ . Note that  $S_n$  and  $P_n$  have the same vertex set. Clearly,  $h_i = g_i$  for  $i \leq 3$ , and  $S_n = P_n$ , for  $n \leq 3$ .

Figure 1: A 4-Star  $S_4$ Figure 2: A 4-Pancake  $P_4$ 

In those cases where our discussion and results apply to both networks, we will use  $X_n$  to denote either  $S_n$  or  $P_n$ .

Both the star and pancake interconnection networks are attractive alternatives to the hypercube for interconnecting processors in a parallel computer, and compare favorably with it in several aspects [1, 2]. For example, the degree of  $X_n$  is  $n-1$ , i.e., sub-logarithmic in the number of vertices of  $X_n$ , while a hypercube with  $\Theta(n!)$  vertices has degree  $\Theta(\log n!) = \Theta(n \log n)$ , i.e., logarithmic in the number of vertices. Similarly, the diameter of  $X_n$  is  $\Theta(n)$ , while a hypercube with  $\Theta(n!)$  vertices has a diameter of  $\Theta(\log n!) = \Theta(n \log n)$ . Other attractive properties include their symmetry properties, as well as many desirable fault tolerance characteristics [1, 2, 3]. Recently, interest in the study of these two networks has grown steadily. For example, Akl, Qiu, and Stojmenovic have studied various data communication algorithms and their applications in developing parallel algorithms for solving problems in the area of computational geometry [4].

In this paper, we present parallel algorithms that compute the Voronoi diagram on the star and pancake networks. A major component and contribution of our Voronoi diagram algorithms is a parallel batched planar point location algorithm that works for the planar subdivision induced by the Voronoi diagram. All of our algorithms are motivated by the ones developed in [11] for the hypercube model. For an  $n$ -star or  $n$ -pancake with  $p = n!$  processors, given  $n!$  planar points stored in the processors such that each processor holds one point and has a memory of constant size, the problem of batched planar

point location for a planar subdivision induced by a Voronoi diagram can be solved in time  $O(n^3 \log n)$ , and the Voronoi diagram of these  $n!$  points can be found in  $O(n^4 \log^2 n)$  time. It is important to note that our algorithms belong to the divide-and-conquer paradigm and in that sense they can be used on any network that implements this paradigm efficiently.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we briefly review previous results concerning a number of basic data communication algorithms used in our planar point location and Voronoi diagram algorithms. We discuss the problem of planar point location for a subdivision induced by a Voronoi diagram in Section 3. Section 4 presents Voronoi diagram algorithms for  $S_n$  as well as  $P_n$ .

## 2 Preliminaries

**Definition 1** Let  $X_{n-1}(i)$  be a sub-graph of  $X_n$  induced by all the vertices with the same last symbol  $i$ , for some  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

From the definitions of  $S_n$  and  $P_n$ , it can be seen easily that  $S_{n-1}(i)$  is an  $(n-1)$ -star and that  $P_{n-1}(i)$  is an  $(n-1)$ -pancake, both defined on symbols  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\} - \{i\}$ . It follows that  $X_n$  can be decomposed into  $n$   $X_{n-1}$ 's:  $X_{n-1}(i)$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$  [1, 2]. For example,  $S_4$  in Fig. 1 contains four 3-stars, namely  $S_3(1)$ ,  $S_3(2)$ ,  $S_3(3)$ , and  $S_3(4)$ , by fixing the last symbol at 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively.  $P_n$  can also be decomposed similarly.

**Definition 2** In  $X_n$ , let  $p$  denote the processor associated with the vertex  $a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$  and  $q$  denote the processor associated with the vertex  $b_1 b_2 \dots b_n$ . An ordering,  $\prec$ , on the processors is defined as follows:  $p \prec q$  if there exists an  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , such that  $a_j = b_j$  for  $j > i$ , and  $a_i < b_i$ . In other words, the processors are ordered in reverse lexicographic order (i.e., lexicographic order if we read from right to left). If  $p \prec q$ , we say that  $p$  precedes  $q$ .

**Definition 3** In  $X_n$ , the rank  $r(u)$  of a vertex  $u$  is the number of vertices  $v$  such that  $v \prec u$ , i.e.,  $r(u) = |\{v | v \prec u, v \in V_n\}|$ . Clearly,  $0 \leq r(u) \leq n! - 1$ .

Throughout this paper, we assume that in one time unit, a processor can send (receive) at most one datum of fixed length to (from) one and only one of its neighbors.

In what follows, we list a number of results to be used in our algorithms.

**Sorting, Merging, and Unmerging:** Given  $n!$  numbers in  $X_n$  with each processor holding one number, they can be sorted in time  $O(n^3 \log n)$ , with respect to the processor ordering given in Definition 2 [8, 10]. Also, given two sorted sequences stored in two groups of  $X_{n-1}$ 's:

$$\begin{aligned} A &: X_{n-1}(i), X_{n-1}(i+1), \dots, X_{n-1}(j), \\ B &: X_{n-1}(k), X_{n-1}(k+1), \dots, X_{n-1}(l), \end{aligned}$$

$i \leq j < k \leq l$ , ( $A$  and  $B$  do not necessarily contain the same number of  $X_{n-1}$ 's), such that  $A$  and  $B$  are in opposite directions (meaning that one is non-decreasing and the other is non-increasing), they can be merged into a sorted sequence stored in  $C$ :  $X_{n-1}(i), X_{n-1}(i+1), \dots, X_{n-1}(j), X_{n-1}(k), X_{n-1}(k+1), \dots, X_{n-1}(l)$ , in either direction, in  $O(n^2)$  time [4]. Given sequences  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  as defined above, where each element in  $C$  knows the rank of the vertex in which it was originally before the merging, the problem of unmerging is to permute the list such that each element in  $C$  returns to its original vertex in  $A$  or  $B$ . This problem can also be solved in  $O(n^2)$  time [4].

**Compression:** The problem of *compression* is defined as follows. Some vertices of  $X_n$  contain "active" elements. The rank  $r(u)$  of an active vertex  $u$  is the number of active vertices preceding  $u$  (note the difference between this definition and Definition 3). These active elements are to be compressed so that they are stored in vertices  $0, 1, 2, \dots$ , with the active element originally in vertex  $u$  now in vertex  $r(u)$ . Compression can be performed in  $O(n^2)$  time on  $X_n$  [4].

**Interval Broadcasting:** In  $X_n$ , a certain number  $k$  of vertices are marked as *leaders*  $l_1, l_2, \dots, l_k$ , with  $l_i < l_j$  if  $i < j$ , and  $k \leq n! - 1$ . Each leader possesses a datum that it must share with all the higher numbered vertices (in terms of the processor ordering in Definition 2) up to but not including the next leader. That is, each marked vertex  $l_i$  has to broadcast its message to the interval of vertices between  $l_i$  and  $l_{i+1}$ . Interval broadcasting can be done in  $O(n \log n)$  time on  $X_n$  [4].

### 3 Batched Planar Point Location

In order to locate  $O(N)$  query points in a planar subdivision defined by  $O(N)$  edges and induced by a Voronoi diagram, we use the chain method described by Lee and Preparata [6], a parallelization of which for mesh-connected computers is given in [7]. The two algorithms are used in [11] to obtain an algorithm for the hypercube. The latter has motivated our algorithm for the star and pancake interconnection networks, which we now describe.

A connected planar straight line graph with a finite number of vertices subdivides the plane into nonempty regions of which exactly one is infinite. These regions form a *planar subdivision*. A chain  $C = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_p)$  is a straight line graph with vertex set  $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_p\}$  and edge set  $\{(u_i, u_{i+1}) \mid 1 \leq i \leq p-1\}$ . The chain is said to be *monotone* with respect to a straight line  $l$  if the orthogonal projections  $\{l(u_1), l(u_2), \dots, l(u_p)\}$  of the vertices of  $C$  on  $l$  are ordered as  $(l(u_1), l(u_2), \dots, l(u_p))$  [6].

First we sort the regions induced by the Voronoi diagram using the  $x$ -coordinates of a number of selected interior points (called *centers*). Then a monotone complete set of chains is defined as in [6, 7, 9]. These chains are nodes of a binary tree whose leaves correspond to regions of the subdivision. Each chain has its own level and index (the rank of the chain among the chains of a given level). Chains may share common edges. If an edge  $e$  belongs to more than one chain it belongs to all members of a set (an interval) of consecutive chains. We assign  $e$  to the hierarchically highest chain to which it belongs. Each edge  $e_i$  is associated with two regions represented by their centers. Since the regions constitute a Voronoi diagram for a set of points, these points are used as the centers of these regions. Because these points are sorted by their  $x$ -coordinates, we denote them by  $u_0, u_1, \dots$ , such that  $u_i(x) \leq u_j(x)$  if  $i \leq j$ . We can represent these centers (thus regions) by the binary representations of their ranks, so the centers are  $00\dots0, 00\dots01, 00\dots10, \dots$ . Therefore, each edge is associated with two binary numbers. The level and index of each chain and edge are determined in constant time by the following rule as described in [7]: Find the "bit-wise exclusive or", say  $\Psi$ , of the two binary numbers of a pair of points associated with edge  $e_i$ . The level of  $e_i$ , call it  $l_i$ , can be obtained from  $l_i = \lfloor \log \Psi \rfloor$ . The index of the chain to which  $e_i$  belongs is given by  $[(2^i \text{ complement}(2^i) - 2^i) \wedge (\text{binary representation of } e_i \text{'s associated point})] / 2^{l_i+1}$ . For example, if  $e_i$  is associated with points  $0010$  and  $0101$ , then  $\Psi = 0111$  and  $\lfloor \log 0111 \rfloor = (2)_{10}$ , so  $e_i$  is of level 2. Furthermore,  $[(2^2 \text{ complement}(2^2) - 2^2) = 1100 - 0100 = 1000$ , and  $(1000 \wedge 0010)$  (or  $1000 \wedge 0101) = 0$ ; so  $e_i$  is indexed as 0 in the chains of level 2.

All edges are now sorted by their level as the primary key, their index as the secondary key, and the  $y$ -coordinate of one of their two end-points as the ternary key (the end-point with smaller  $y$ -coordinate is chosen). Also, all query points have their level, index, and  $y$ -coordinate as their primary, secondary, and ternary keys. Initially, all query points are assigned a level of  $\lfloor \log N \rfloor$  (the highest possible) and an index of 0, and all query points are sorted by their  $y$ -coordinates. Following [6], we call a discrimination (of point  $Z$  against edge  $e$ ) the operation of deciding on which side of  $e$  the point  $Z$  lies. Then, for each level  $i$ , from  $i = \lfloor \log N \rfloor$  to  $i = 0$  the following steps are performed:

1. Merge the set of edges with the set of query points, using current indices of query points; note that all query points have the same level, equal to  $i$ ;
2. Perform interval broadcasting to find, for each query point  $Z$ , the corresponding edge  $e$  against which  $Z$  should be discriminated. If the  $y$ -coordinate of  $Z$  is not between the  $y$ -coordinates of the end-points of  $e$ , then  $Z$  has been discriminated at the previous level. Depending on which side of  $e$   $Z$  is,  $Z$  calculates the index of the chain against which it should be discriminated at the next level (we refer to this as the new index of the given query point). If  $Z$  is to the left of the corresponding edge, we call it a *left* query point, otherwise, we call it a *right* query point. If the current index of  $Z$  is  $k$ , then the new index is either  $2k$  or  $2k + 1$ , for the left and right query points, respectively;
3. Unmerge edges and query points;
4. Re-sort query points by their new indices, by compressing *left* query points and *right* query points separately, and by merging left and right query points by their new indices;
5. Assign the next level to all query points.

All query points will be located in Step 2 when  $i = 0$ .

In  $X_n$ , the height of the binary tree of chains is  $\sum_{i=2}^n \lceil \log i \rceil$ , which is  $\Theta(n \log n)$ . Thus the number of levels is also  $\Theta(n \log n)$ . Since all the steps can be done in  $O(n^2)$  time, the time complexity of the  $X_n$  algorithm is therefore  $O((n \log n)n^2) = O(n^3 \log n)$ .

## 4 Voronoi Diagram Algorithms on $X_n$

An  $O(n^4 \log^2 n)$  time algorithm to construct the Voronoi diagram of a set of  $n!$  points on  $X_n$  with  $n!$  processors and constant memory per processor can be obtained by combining the algorithm described in [5] (which solves the problem on a mesh-connected computer), the planar point location technique described in Section 3, and the data communication algorithms described in Section 2.

Given a set  $T$  of  $N = n!$  planar points for which we want to find the Voronoi diagram  $V(T)$ , we first sort these  $N$  points by their  $x$ -coordinates. Let the set of points in  $X_{n-1}(i)$  be  $T_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . First,  $X_{n-1}(i)$  finds the Voronoi diagram  $V(T_i)$  for the points in  $T_i$ , recursively, and in parallel for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Then these  $n$   $V(T_i)$ 's are merged  $\lceil \log n \rceil$  times to form  $V(T)$ . The algorithm is given by the following procedure.

### Procedure VD( $X_n$ )

- Sort  $n!$  points by their  $x$ -coordinates;
- do in parallel for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ : VD ( $X_{n-1}(i)$ )
- for  $j = 1$  to  $\lceil \log n \rceil$  do
  1. Starting with 1, arrange all ( $X_{n-1}(i)$ 's) into groups of  $2^j$  consecutively numbered  $X_{n-1}$ 's (The last group may not have  $2^j$   $X_{n-1}$ 's).
  2. for all the groups do in parallel: merge two Voronoi Diagrams within the group. □

For example, when  $n = 7$ , and  $j = 1$ , we have four groups

Group1 :  $X_6(1)$   $X_6(2)$   
 Group2 :  $X_6(3)$   $X_6(4)$   
 Group3 :  $X_6(5)$   $X_6(6)$   
 Group4 :  $X_6(7)$

Let  $L$  and  $R$  be two sets of points such that  $L \cap R = \emptyset$ , all points in  $L$  and  $R$  are sorted by their  $x$ -coordinates, and for any  $u \in L$ ,  $v \in R$ ,  $u(x) < v(x)$ . Suppose we have found  $V(L)$  and  $V(R)$ , respectively.  $V(L)$  and  $V(R)$  are merged using the algorithm of Jeong and Lee [5], except that we use our batched planar point location algorithm described in Section 3. Note that when doing the batched planar point location, for query points in  $R$  ( $L$ ) in regions of  $V(L)$  ( $V(R)$ ), the points of  $L$  ( $R$ ) are chosen to be centers for regions of  $V(L)$  ( $V(R)$ ).

It should be noted here that in sequential computation, the Voronoi diagram of  $N$  points can be computed optimally in  $O(N \log N)$  time [9]. This directly leads to a lower bound of  $\Omega(n \log n)$  on the running time of any parallel algorithm that computes the Voronoi diagram of  $N = n!$  points using  $n!$  processors. Whether this lower bound can be matched by an algorithm for computing the Voronoi diagram on  $X_n$  is an open question.

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