Network Computing and Efficient Algorithms Locality Lower Bounds

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Locality Lower Bounds

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Minimization \rightarrow Lower bounds $\rightarrow \Omega(f(n))$ Maximization \rightarrow Upper bounds $\rightarrow O(f(n))$

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Each node execute the same code; Different only in terms of neighborhoods.

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Recall: Tree Coloring



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Round 1



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Ring Coloring



Algorithm for trees can be adapted!

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Problem

• Lower bound of distributed coloring problem:

- Coloring rings (and rooted trees) with 3 or less colors indeed requires Ω(log* n) rounds.
- How to prove?

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• Assumptions:

- Deterministic, synchronous algorithms.
- Message size and local computations are unbounded.
- Network is a directed ring with n nodes.
- Nodes have unique labels (identifiers) from 1 to *n*.

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• All the conditions above make a lower bound stronger.

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What can a distributed algorithm do or learn in r rounds?

- 1. Initially, all nodes only know their own ID
- 2. As information needs at least r rounds to travel r hops, a node can only learn about r-loop neighborhood!

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Lemma 8.2

Any deterministic synchronous r-round algorithm can be transformed into Canonical Form:

ALGORITHM 8.1 SYNCHRONOUS ALGORITHM: CANONICAL FORM()

- 1: In r rounds: send complete initial stat to nodes at distance at most r
- 2: ▷ do all the communication first
- 3: Compute output based on the complete information about r-neighborhood
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In other words: we can emulate any local algorithm by making all communication first and then do all local computations! Why?

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Example "leader election":

Whether nodes only forward highest ID so far or whether all information is collected first and later selected does not make a difference!

We can do all communication forst and then do all local computations!

How to prove this?

Let A be any r-round algorithm. We can show that the canonical forn algorithm C can compute all possible messages that A may send as well. By induction over distance of nodes ... if we can compute messages of first *i* rounds in (r - i + 1)neighborhood, we have all information to compute first (i + 1) round message in (r - i)-neighborhood. So first trivial: Can compute all first messages in *r*-neighborhood



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Definition 8.3(*r*-hop view).

We call the collection of the initial states of all nodes in the *r*-neighborhood of a node *v* the *r*-hop view of *v*.

How do *r*-hop views of our rings look like? E.g.,1-hop view of 4?



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How do r-hop views for our rings look like? Generally: The *r*-hop view of a ring is a (2r+1) tuple: $(l_{-r}, l_{-r+1}, \dots, l_0, \dots, l_r)$ where l_0 is ID/label of considered node *v*. 2*r*-hop view 3

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Corollary 8.4.

A deterministic *r*-round algorithm *A* is a function that maps every possible *r*-hop view to the set of possible outputs.

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(4,1,2) and (1,2,3) are 1-hop view of two adjacent nodes. So what?

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When is a coloring valid?

Consider two r-hop views:

$$(l_{-r}, l_{-r+1}, \dots, l_0, \dots, l_r)$$

 $(l'_{-r}, l'_{-r+1}, \dots, l'_0, \dots, l'_r)$

where $l'_i = l_{i+1}$, for $-r \le i \le r-1$ and $l'_i \ne l_{i+1}$ for $-r \le i \le r$, so what? Then the two views can originate from the adjacent nodes in the ring!

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So every algorithm needs to assign different colors to the two views!

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Neighborhood Graph

- Nodes: any possible neighborhoods
- Edges: conflicting neighborhoods are connected (when?)
- Coloring:
 - The same neighborhoods have the same color.
 - Conflicting ones with different colors



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Definition 8.5 (Neighborhood Graph).

For a given **famliy of network graphs** G, the *r*-neighborhood graph $N_r(G)$ is defined as follows. The node set of $N_r(G)$ is the set of all possible labeled *r*-neighborhoods (*i.e.*, all possible *r*-hop views). There is an edge between two labeled *r*-neighborhoods V_r and V'_r if V_r and V'_r can be the *r*-hop views of two adjacent nodes.

Lemma 8.6.

For a given family of network graphs *G*, there is an *r*-round algorithm that colors graphs of *G* with *c* colors *iff* the chromatic number of the neighborhood graph is $\chi(N_r(G)) \leq c$.

Road Map

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So how does $\chi(N_r(G))$ of a ring look like? For example for our ring graph?



r-hop neighborhood graph for ring family (n=6 known)



 $\chi(N_0(G)) = ?$

 $\chi(N_1(G)) = ?$

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Instead of directly defining the neighborhood graph for directed rings, we define directed graphs B_k that are closely related to the neighborhood graph. The node set of B_k contains all k-tuples of increasing node labels $([n] = \{1, ..., n\})$:

$$V[B_k] = \{(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k) : \alpha_i \in [n], i < j \to \alpha_i < \alpha_j\}$$

For $\underline{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ and $\underline{\beta} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)$ there is a directed edge from $\underline{\alpha}$ to $\underline{\beta}$ *iff* $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, k-1\}: \beta_i = \alpha_{i+1}$

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Lemma 8.7.

Viewed as an undirected graph, the graph B_{2r+1} is a **subgraph** of the *r*-neighborhood graph of directed *n*-node tings with node lables from [n].

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Coloring a subgraph is not harder!

Diline Graph

Definition 8.8 (Diline Graph).

The directed line graph (diline graph) DL(G) of a directed graph G = (V, E) is defined as follows. The node set of DL(G) is V[DL(G)] = E. There is a directed edge ((w,x), (y,z)) between $(w,x) \in E$ and $(y,z) \in E$ *iff* x = y, *i.e.*, if the first edge ends where the second one starts.

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if n > k, the graph B_{k+1} can be defined recursively as follows:

$$B_{k+1} = DL(B_k).$$

Proof. The edges of B_k are pairs of k-tuples $\underline{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ and $\underline{\beta} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)$ that satisfy Conditions (8.1) and (8.2). Because the last k - 1 labels in $\underline{\alpha}$ are equal to the first k - 1 labels in $\underline{\beta}$, **the pair** $(\underline{\alpha}, \underline{\beta})$ **can be represented by a (k+1)-tuple** $\underline{\gamma} = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{k+1})$ with $\overline{\gamma}_1 = \alpha_1, \gamma_i = \beta_{i-1} = \alpha_i$ for $2 \le i \le k$, and $\gamma_{k+1} = \beta_k$. Because the labels in $\underline{\alpha}$ and the labels in $\underline{\beta}$ are increasing, the labels in $\underline{\gamma}$ are increasing as well. The two graphs B_{k+1} and $\overline{DL}(B_k)$ therefor habe the same node sets. There is an edge between two nodes $(\underline{\alpha}_1, \underline{\beta}_1)$ and $(\underline{\alpha}_2, \underline{\beta}_2)$ of $DL(B_k)$ if $\underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{\alpha}_2$. This is equivalent to requiring that the two corresponding (k+1)-tuples $\underline{\gamma}_1$ and $\underline{\gamma}_2$ are neighbors in B_{k+1} , *i.e.*, that the last k labels of γ_1 are equal to the first k labels of γ_2 .

Lemma 8.10.

For the chromatic numbers $\chi(G)$ and $\chi(DL(G))$ of a directed grapg *G* and its diline graph, it holds that

 $\chi(DL(G)) \ge \log_2(\chi(G)).$

Proof. Given a *c*-coloring of DL(G), we show how to construct a 2^c coloring of *G*. The claim of the lemma then follows because this implies that $\chi(G) \leq 2^{\chi(DL(G))}$.

Assume that we are given a *c*-coloring of DL(G). A *c*-coloring of the diline graph DL(G) can be seen as a coloring of the edges of *G* such that no two adjacent edges have the same color. For a node *v* of *G*, let S_v be the set of colors of its outgoing edges. Let *u* and *v* be two nodes such that *G* contains a directed edge (u, v) from *u* to *v* and let *c* be the color of (u, v). Clearly, $x \in S_u$ because (u, v) is an outgoing edge of *u*. Because adjacent edges have different colors, no outgoing edge (v, w) of *v* can have color *x*. Therefore $x \notin S_v$. This implies that $S_u \neq S_v$. We can therefore use these color sets to obtain a vertex coloring of *G*, *i*, *e*, the color of *u* is S_u and the color of *v* is S_v . Because the number of possible subsets of [c] is 2^c , this yields a 2^c -coloring of *G*.

Theorem 8.12

Lemma 8.11.

For all $n \ge 1$, $\chi(B_1) = n$. Further, for $n \ge k \ge 2$, $\chi(B_k) \ge \log^{(k-1)} n$.

$$\log^* x = 1 \text{ if } x \le 2, \log^* x = 1 + \min\{i : \log^{(i)} x \le 2\}.$$

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Proof. For k = 1, B_k is the complete graph on *n* nodes with a directed edge from node *i* to node *j* iff i < j. Therefore, $\chi(B_1) = n$.

For k > 2, the claim follows by induction and Lemmas 8.9 and 8.10.

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Every deterministic, distributed algorithms to color a directed ring with 3 or less colors needs at least $(\log^* n)/2 - 1$ rounds.

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Theorem 8.12.

Every deterministic, distributed algorithms to color a directed ring with 3 or less colors needs at least $(\log^* n)/2 - 1$ rounds.

We need to show that $\chi(B_{2r+1,n}) > 3$ for all $r < (\log^* n)/2 - 1$. We know that $\chi(B_{2r+1,n}) \ge \log^{(2r)} n$. And $B_{2r+1,n}$ is subgraph of neighborhood graph we actually want! The rest is simple maths...

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- The neighborhood graph concept can be used more generally to study distributed graph coloring. It can for instance be used to show that with a single round (every node sends its identifier to all neighbors) it is possible to color a graph with $(1 + o(1))\Delta^2$ in n colors, and that every one-round algorithm needs at least $\Omega(\Delta^2/\log^2 \Delta + \log \log n)$ colors.
- One may also extend the proof to other problems, for instance one may show that a constant approximation of the minimum dominating set problem on unit disk graphs costs at least log-star time.

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References

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