# Network Computing and Efficient Algorithms Locality Lower Bounds 

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## Locality Lower Bounds

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

## Locality Lower Bounds

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

## Recall: Tree Coloring

We count the bit positions from right to left, starting with $0: 0010110000$

## Round 1

| Grand-parent | 0010110000 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Parent | 1010010000 | $\rightarrow 01010$ |
| Child | 0110010000 | $\rightarrow 10001$ |

## Recall: Tree Coloring

We count the bit positions from right to left, starting with 0 :
$\log ^{*}(n)$ time ,down to 6 colors $\ldots$
$\ldots$ and then shift-down: down to 3 colors


Round 1

| Grand-parent | 0010110000 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Parent | 1010010000 | $\rightarrow 01010$ |
| Child | 0110010000 | $\rightarrow 10001$ |

## Ring Coloring

Possible Output:


## Problem

- Lower bound of distributed coloring problem:
- Coloring rings (and rooted trees) with 3 or less colors indeed requires $\Omega\left(\log ^{*} n\right)$ rounds.
- How to prove?


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- 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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- 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 $n$.
- All the conditions above make a lower bound stronger.


## Canonical Form for Synchronous Alg.

## 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:
$\triangleright$ 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!

## Canonical Form for Synchronous Alg.

## 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


## $r$-hop view

## 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 $(2 r+1)$ tuple:

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\left(l_{-r}, l_{-r+1}, \ldots, l_{0}, \ldots, l_{r}\right)
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where $l_{0}$ is ID/label of considered node $v$.


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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?

## Ring Coloring

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

## When is a coloring valid?

## Consider two r-hop views:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(l_{-r}, l_{-r+1}, \ldots, l_{0}, \ldots, l_{r}\right) \\
& \left(l_{-r}^{\prime}, l_{-r+1}^{\prime}, \ldots, l_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, l_{r}^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $l_{i}^{\prime}=l_{i+1}$, for $-r \leq i \leq r-1$ and $l_{i}^{\prime} \neq l_{i+1}$ for $-r \leq i \leq r$, so what? Then the two views can originate from the adjacent nodes in the ring!

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where $l_{i}^{\prime}=l_{i+1}$, for $-r \leq i \leq r-1$ and $l_{i}^{\prime} \neq l_{i+1}$ for $-r \leq i \leq r$, so what?
Then the two views can originate from the adjacent nodes in the ring!

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

## 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 $V_{r}^{\prime}$ if $V_{r}$ and $V_{r}^{\prime}$ 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 $\chi\left(N_{r}(G)\right) \leq c$.

## Road Map

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How to find a good lower bound with this lemma?
We have to show that $\chi\left(N_{r}(G)\right)$ is small only for a larger $\mathbf{r}$...

So how does $\chi\left(N_{r}(G)\right)$ of a ring look like? For example for our ring graph?


## The Neighborhood Graph

r-hop neighborhood graph for ring family ( $\mathrm{n}=6$ known)


$$
\chi\left(N_{0}(G)\right)=?
$$



$$
\chi\left(N_{1}(G)\right)=?
$$

## The Neighborhood Graph

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 $([n]=\{1, \ldots, n\})$ :

$$
V\left[B_{k}\right]=\left\{\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}\right): \alpha_{i} \in[n], i<j \rightarrow \alpha_{i}<\alpha_{j}\right\}
$$

For $\underline{\alpha}=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}\right)$ and $\underline{\beta}=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{k}\right)$ there is a directed edge from $\underline{\alpha}$ to $\underline{\beta}$ iff

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Viewed as an undirected graph, the graph $B_{2 r+1}$ 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) $D L(G)$ of a directed graph $G=(V, E)$ is defined as follows. The node set of $D L(G)$ is $V[D L(G)]=E$. 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:

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Proof. The edges of $B_{k}$ are pairs of $k$-tuples $\underline{\alpha}=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}\right)$ and $\underline{\beta}=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{k}\right)$ 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 $(\mathbf{k}+1)$-tuple $\underline{\gamma}=\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k+1}\right)$ with $\bar{\gamma}_{1}=\alpha_{1}, \gamma_{i}=\beta_{i-1}=\alpha_{i}$ for $2 \leq i \leq k$, 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 $\bar{D} L\left(B_{k}\right)$ therefor habe the same node sets. There is an edge between two nodes $\left(\underline{\alpha}_{1}, \underline{\beta}_{1}\right)$ and $\left(\underline{\alpha}_{2}, \underline{\beta}_{2}\right)$ of $D L\left(B_{k}\right)$ 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 $\underline{\gamma}_{1}$ are equal to the first $k$ labels of $\underline{\gamma}_{2}$.

## Diline Graph

## Lemma 8.10.

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

$$
\chi(D L(G)) \geq \log _{2}(\chi(G))
$$

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

Assume that we are given a $c$-coloring of $D L(G)$. A $c$-coloring of the diline graph $D L(G)$ 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 $n \geq 1, \chi\left(B_{1}\right)=n$. Further, for $n \geq k \geq 2, \chi\left(B_{k}\right) \geq \log ^{(k-1)} n$.

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\log ^{*} x=1 \text { if } x \leq 2, \log ^{*} x=1+\min \left\{i: \log ^{(i)} x \leq 2\right\} .
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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, $\chi\left(B_{1}\right)=n$.
For $k>2$, the claim follows by induction and Lemmas 8.9 and 8.10.

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

## Remarks

- 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 $\Omega\left(\Delta^{2} / \log ^{2} \Delta+\log \log n\right)$ 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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