# Opiii

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### 1 Dynamic Networks

Dynamic graph networks are graph networks that change over time. Communication is in synchronous, asynchronous or semi-synchronous rounds. Additionally shared memory is possible. Network elements may be failure-free or failure-prone. A classical example are <u>mobile ad-hoc networks</u>. Those are temporary interconnection networks of mobile wireless nodes without a fixed infrastructure. Communication happens whenever mobile nodes come within the wireless range of each other.

**Example 1.1.** In mobile ad hoc networks, one may want to colour the graph or maintain a routing mechanism for communication to any particular destination in the network.

#### 1.1 Almost constant message-passing vertex colouring in a tree

Let T be a tree network with n labelled vertices in [n]. Colouring the graph can be done in almost constant, i.e. in  $\log^*$  time.

**Definition 1.2.**  $\log^*(x)$  is defined as the number of log functions that need to be applied to x such that the result is at most 1. E.g.  $\log^*(16) = 3$  and  $\log^* 2^{65536} = 5$ .

- 1. begin by rooting the tree at vertex 0. This defines an order on the tree
- 2. each parent sends its number to all of its children
- 3. each child computes the smallest index i where its number differs from the parent's number. It is important to note that this can be done in constant time with suitable hardware
- 4. It computes a new ID for itself consisting of a trailing bit corresponding to the bit where IDs disagreed. The new ID begins with the binary representation of the digit where the Ids differed.
- 5. the new ID is now only  $\log \log n$  bits long. This is repeated until there are only six distinct numbers left. This takes  $\log^*$  rounds each taking only constant time.
- 6. each parent sends its number to its children which relabel themselves accordingly
- 7. This is repeated another time and the IDs are taken mod 3 resulting in a three colourin

**Definition 1.3.** The collection of the initial states of all nodes in the r-neighbourhood of a node v is the r-hop view of v.

**Definition 1.4.** Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a family of network graphs. The r-neighbourhood graph  $N_r(\mathcal{G})$  is defined as follows:

The node set is the set of all possible labelled r-neighbourhoods (i.e. all possible r-hop views). There is an edge between tow labelled r-neighbourhoods  $V_r$  and  $V'_r$  if  $V_r$  and  $V'_r$  can be the r-hop views of adjacent nodes.

**Lemma 1.5.** For a given family of network graphs  $\mathcal{G}$  there is an r-round algorithm that colours graphs of  $\mathcal{G}$  with c colours of the chromatic number of the neighbourhood graph is  $\chi(N_r(\mathcal{G})) \leq c$ .

**Definition 1.6.** We define a directed graph  $B_k$  which is closely related to the neighbourhood graph. The vertex set is made up of all k-tuples consisting increasing node labels. For two nodes  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k)$  and  $\beta = (\beta_1, ..., \beta_k)$  there is an edge from  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$  if  $\forall i$  it holds that  $\beta_i = \alpha_{i+1}$ .

**Lemma 1.7.** Viewed as an undirected graph,  $B_{2r+1}$  is a subgraph of the r-neighbourhood graph of directed rings with n nodes.

**Lemma 1.8.** If n > k the graph  $B_{k+1}$  can be defined as the line graph  $\mathcal{L}(B_k)$  of  $B_k$ .

Lemma 1.9. It holds that

$$\chi(\mathcal{L}(G)) \ge \log_2(\chi(G))$$

**Lemma 1.10.** For all  $n \ge 1$  it holds that  $\chi(B_1) = n$ . Further for  $n \ge k \ge 2$  it holds that  $\chi(B_k) \ge \log^{(k-1)} n$ .

**Theorem 1.11.** Every deterministic distributed algorithm to colour a directed ring with at most 3 colours needs at least  $\log^*(\frac{n}{2}) - 1$  rounds.

Corollary 1.12. Every deterministic distributed algorithm to compute a maximal independent set on a directed ring needs at least  $\log^*(\frac{n}{2}) - \mathcal{O}(1)$  rounds.

#### 1.2 MIS

The following randomized algorithm gives a good solution to the maximum independent set.

- 1. the algorithm operates in synchronous rounds grouped into phases
- 2. each node marks itself with probability  $\frac{1}{2d(v)}$
- 3. if no higher degree neighbour of v is marked, node v unmarks itself again

4. delete all nodes that joined the MIS and their neighbours as the cannot join the MIS any more

**Lemma 1.13.** A node v joins the MIS in step 3 with probability  $p \ge \frac{1}{4d(v)}$ 

Lemma 1.14. A node is called good if

$$\sum_{w \in N(v)} \frac{1}{2d(v)} \ge \frac{1}{6}$$

A good node will be removed in Step 4 with probability  $p \ge \frac{1}{36}$ .

**Lemma 1.15.** An edge is called bad if both its endvertices are bad. Otherwise it's called good. At any time at least half of the edges are good.

**Lemma 1.16.** A bad node has out-degree at least twice its in-degree.

**Lemma 1.17.** The algorithm terminates in expectation in  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  rounds.

## 2 Consensus

In a distributed system with each node starting with input  $x_i$ , we speak of consensus if an algorithm can achieve the following properties

- 1. Agreement: all alive nodes decide on a single value x
- 2. Validity: the decided value x is one of the initial inputs
- 3. Termination: each vertex terminates at some point (either voting for one value or crashing)

The following randomized consensus algorithm works in an asynchronous setting with less than half the nodes crashing

- 1. input bit  $v_i \in \{0,1\}$ , round = 1, decided = false
- 2. broadcast  $(v_i, round)$
- 3. while true
- 4. wait until majority of messages of current round arrived
- 5. if all messages contain the same value v:
- 6. propose (v, round), decided = true

- 7. else:
- 8. propose  $(\perp, round)$  // $\perp$  is a signal of disagreement
- 9. end if
- 10. wait until a majority of proposals of current round arrived
- 11. if all messages propose the same value v:
- 12.  $v_i = v$ , decide = true
- 13. else if there is at least one proposal for v:
- 14.  $v_i = v$
- 15. else:
- 16. choose  $v_i$  uniformly at random
- 17. end if
- 18. round = round + 1
- 19. broadcast  $(v_i, round)$
- 20. end while

**Theorem 2.1.** The above algorithm satisfies validity, termination and comes to an agreement. In expectation it takes exponential time.

#### 2.1 shared coin

The following algorithm allows a dynamic network to use the same coin for all vertices at the same time. Here f is the number of nodes that can turn byzantine. It should hold that  $f \leq \frac{n}{3}$ .

- 1. choose local coin  $c_u = 0$  with probability  $\frac{1}{n}$
- 2. broadcast  $c_u$
- 3. wait for n-f coins and store them in the local coin set  $C_u$
- 4. broadcast  $C_u$
- 5. wait for n f coin sets

- 6. if at least one coin is 0 among all coins in  $C_u$ :
- 7. return 0
- 8. return 1
- 9. end if

#### 2.2 byzantine consensus

**Definition 2.2.** A node which can have arbitrary or malicious behaviour is called <u>byzantine</u>. This includes not sending messages, sending wrong messages, sending different messages to different neighbours and many more. A node that is not byzantine is called <u>correct</u> or truthful.

The following probabilistic algorithm achieves consensus in an asynchronous setting with  $< \frac{n}{9}$  byzantine nodes.

- 1.  $x_i \in \{0, 1\}, r = 1, \text{ decided} = \text{false}$
- 2. propose $(x_i, r)$
- 3. while not decided
- 4. wait until n-f proposals of current round r arrived
- 5. if at least n-2f proposals contain the same value x:  $x_i = x$  decided = true
- 6. elseif at least n-4f proposals contain the same value x:  $x_i=x$
- 7. else: choose  $x_i$  randomly with  $\mathbb{P}[x_i = 0] = \mathbb{P}[x_i = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$
- 8. endif
- 9. r = r + 1, propose $(x_i, r)$
- 10. endwhile
- 11. decision =  $x_i$