6.852: Distributed Algorithms Fall, 2009

Class 3

Today's plan

- Algorithms in general synchronous networks (continued):
 - Shortest paths spanning tree
 - Minimum-weight spanning tree
 - Maximal independent set
- Reading: Sections 4.3-4.5
- Next:
 - Distributed consensus
 - Reading: Sections 5.1, 6.1-6.3

Last time

- Lower bound on number of messages for comparisonbased leader election in a ring.
- Leader election in general synchronous networks:
 - Flooding algorithm
 - Reducing message complexity
 - Simulation relation proof
- Breadth-first search in general synchronous networks:
 - Marking algorithm
 - Applications:
 - Broadcast, convergecast
 - Data aggregation (computation in networks)
 - Leader election in unknown networks
 - Determining the diameter

Termination for BFS

- Suppose i_0 wants to know when the BFS tree is completed.
- Assume each search message receives a response, parent or non-parent.
 - Easy if edges are bidirectional, harder if unidirectional.
- After a node has received responses to all its search messages, it knows who its children are, and knows they are all marked.
- Leaves of the tree discover who they are (receive all nonparent responses).
- Starting from the leaves, fan in complete messages to i_0 .
- Node can send complete message after:
 - It has receives responses to all its search messages (so it knows who its children are), and
 - It has received complete messages from all its children.

- Motivation: Establish structure for efficient communication.
 - Generalization of Breadth-First Search.
 - Now edges have associated costs (weights).
- Assume:
 - Strongly connected digraph, root i_0 .
 - Weights (nonnegative reals) on edges.
 - Weights represent some communication cost, e.g. latency.
 - UIDs.
 - Nodes know weights of incident edges.
 - Nodes know n (need for termination).
- Required:
 - Shortest-paths tree, giving shortest paths from i_0 to every other node.
 - Shortest path = path with minimum total weight.
 - Each node should output parent, "distance" from root (by weight).





Shortest paths algorithm

- Bellman-Ford (adapted from sequential algorithm)
- "Relaxation algorithm"
- Each node maintains:
 - dist, shortest distance it knows about so far, from i_0
 - parent, its parent in some path with total weight = dist
 - round number
- Initially i_0 has dist 0, all others ∞ ; parents all null
- At each round, each node:
 - Send dist to all out-nbrs
 - Relaxation step:
 - Compute new dist = min(dist, min_i(d_i + w_{ii})).
 - Update parent if dist changes.
- Stop after n-1 rounds
- Then (claim) dist contains shortest distance, parent contains parent in a shortest-paths tree.

































Correctness

- Need to show that, after round n-1, for each process i:
 - dist_i = shortest distance from i₀
 - $parent_i = predecessor on shortest path from i_0$
- Proof:
 - Induction on the number r of rounds.
 - But, what statement should we prove about the situation after r rounds?

Correctness

- Key invariant: After r rounds:
 - Every process i has its dist and parent corresponding to a shortest path from i₀ to i among those paths that consist of at most r hops (edges).
 - If there is no such path, then dist = ∞ and parent = null.
- Proof (sketch):
 - By induction on the number r of rounds.
 - Base: r = 0: Immediate from initializations.
 - Inductive step: Assume for r-1, show for r.
 - Fix i; must show that, after round r, dist_i and parent_i correspond to a shortest at-most-r-hop path.
 - First, show that, if dist_i is finite, then it really is the distance on some atmost-r-hop path to i, and parent is its parent on such a path.
 - LTTR---easy use of inductive hypothesis.
 - But we must still argue that dist_i and parent_i correspond to a shortest at-most-r-hop path.

Correctness

- Key invariant: After r rounds:
 - Every process i has its dist and parent corresponding to a shortest path from i₀ to i among those paths that consist of at most r hops (edges).
 - If there is no such path, then dist = ∞ and parent = null.
- Proof, inductive step:
 - Assume for r-1, show for r.
 - Fix i; must show that, after round r, dist_i and parent_i correspond to a shortest at-most-r-hop path.
 - If dist_i is finite, then it really is the distance on some at-most-r-hop path to i, and parent is its parent on such a path.
 - Claim that dist_i and parent_i correspond to a shortest at-most-r-hop path.
 - Any shortest at-most-r-hop path from i_0 to i, when cut off at i's predecessor j on the path, yields a shortest (r-1)-hop path from i_0 to j.
 - By inductive hypothesis, after round r-1, for every such j, dist_j and parent_j correspond to a shortest at-most-(r-1)-hop path from i₀ to j.
 - At round r, all such j send i their info about their shortest at-most-(r-1)-hop paths, and process i takes this into account in calculating dist_i.
 - So after round r, dist_i and parent_i correspond to a shortest at-most-r-hop path.

Complexity

- Complexity:
 - Time: n-1 rounds
 - Messages: (n-1) |E|
- Worse that BFS, which has:
 - Time: diam rounds
 - Messages: |E|
- Q: Does the time bound really depend on n, or is it O(diam)?
- A: It's really n, since "shortest path" can be over a path with more links.
- Example:



Bellman-Ford Shortest-Paths Algorithm

- Will revisit Bellman-Ford shortly in asynchronous networks.
- Gets even more expensive there.
- Similar to old Arpanet routing algorithm.

- Another classical problem.
- Many sequential algorithms.
- Construct a spanning tree, minimizing the total weight of all edges in the tree.
- Assume:
 - Weighted undirected graph (bidirectional communication).
 - Weights are nonnegative reals.
 - Each node knows weights of incident edges.
 - Processes have UIDs.
 - Nodes know (a good upper bound on) n.
- Required:
 - Each process should decide which of its incident edges are in MST and which are not.

Minimum spanning tree theory

- Graph theory definitions (for undirected graphs)
 - Tree: Connected acyclic graph
 - Forest: An acyclic graph (not necessarily connected)
 - Spanning subgraph of a graph G: Subgraph that includes all nodes of G.
 - Spanning tree, spanning forest.
 - Component of a graph: A maximal connected subgraph.
- Common strategy for computing MST:
 - Start with trivial spanning forest, n isolated nodes.
 - Repeat (n-1 times):
 - Merge two components along an edge that connects them.
 - Specifically, add the minimum-weight outgoing edge (MWOE) of some component to the edge set of the current forest.

Why this works:

- Similar argument to sequential case.
- Lemma 1: Let { T_i : 1 ≤ i ≤ k } be a spanning forest of G. Fix any j, 1 ≤ j ≤ k. Let e be a minimum weight outgoing edge of T_j. Then there is a spanning tree for G that includes all the T_is and e, and has minimum weight among all spanning trees for G that include all the T_is.
- Proof:
 - Suppose not---there's some spanning tree T for G that includes all the T_is and does not include e, and whose total weight is strictly less than that of any spanning tree that includes all the T_is and e.
 - Construct a new graph T' (not a tree) by adding e to T.
 - Contains a cycle, which must contain another outgoing edge, e', of T_i .
 - weight(e') \geq weight(e), by choice of e (smallest weight).
 - Construct a new tree T' by removing e' from T'.
 - Then T'' is a spanning tree, contains all the T_i s and e.
 - weight(T'') \leq weight(T).
 - Contradicts assumed properties of T.

Minimum spanning tree algorithms

- General strategy:
 - Start with n isolated nodes.
 - Repeat (n-1 times):
 - Choose some component i.
 - Add the minimum-weight outgoing edge (MWOE) of component i.
- Sequential MST algorithms follow (special cases of) this strategy:
 - Dijkstra/Prim: Grows one big component by adding one more node at each step.
 - Kruskal: Always add min weight edge globally.
- Distributed?
 - All components can choose simultaneously.
 - But there is a problem...

Can get cycles:



- Avoid this problem by assuming that all weights are distinct.
- Not a serious restriction---could break ties with UIDs.
- Lemma 2: If all weights are distinct, then the MST is unique.
- **Proof:** Another cycle argument (LTTR).
- Justifies the following concurrent strategy:
 - At each stage, suppose (inductively) that the current forest contains only edges from the unique MST.
 - Now several components choose MWOEs concurrently.
 - Each of these edges is in the unique MST, by Lemma 1.
 - So OK to add them all (no cycles, since all are in the same MST).
- GHS (Gallager, Humblet, Spira) algorithm
 - Very influential (Dijkstra prize).
 - Designed for asynchronous setting, but simplified here.
 - We will revisit it in asynchronous networks.

GHS distributed MST algorithm

- Proceeds in phases (levels), each with O(n) rounds.
 - Length of phases is fixed, and known to everyone.
 - This is all that n is used for.
 - We'll remove use of n for asynchronous algorithm.
- For each $k \ge 0$, level k components form a spanning forest that is a subgraph of the unique MST.
- Each component is a tree rooted at a leader node.
 - Component identified by UID of leader.
 - Nodes in the component know which incident edges are in the tree.
- Each level k component has at least 2^k nodes.
- Every level k+1 component is constructed from two or more level k components.
- Level 0 components: Single nodes.
- Level $k \rightarrow$ level k+1:

Level $k \rightarrow$ Level k+1

- Each level-k component leader finds MWOE of its component:
 - Broadcasts search (via tree edges).
 - Each process finds the mwoe among its own incident edges.
 - Sends test messages along non-tree edges, asking if node at the other end is in the same component (compare component ids).
 - Convergecast the min back to the leader (via tree edges).
 - Leader determines MWOE.
- Combine level-k components using MWOEs, to obtain level-(k+1) components:
 - Wait long enough for all components to find MWOEs.
 - Leader of each level k component tells endpoint nodes of its MWOE to add the edge for level k+1.
 - Each new component has $\geq 2^{k+1}$ nodes, as claimed.

Level k \rightarrow Level k+1, cont'd

- Each level-k component leader finds MWOE of its component.
- Combine level-k components using MWOEs, to obtain level-(k+1) components.
- Choose new leaders:
 - For each new, level k+1 component, there is a unique edge e that is the MWOE of two level k sub-components:



n edges, must have a cycle. Cycle can't have length > 2, because weights of different edges on the cycle must decrease around the cycle.

- Choose new leader to be the endpoint of e with the larger UID.
- Broadcast leader UID to new (merged) component.
- GHS terminates when there are no more outgoing edges.

Note on synchronization

- This simplified version of GHS is designed to work with component levels synchronized.
- Difficulties can arise when they get out of synch (as we'll see).
- In particular, test messages are supposed to compare leader UIDs to determine whether endpoints are in the same component.
- Requires that the node being queried has up-to-date UID information.



































Simplified GHS MST Algorithm

- Proof?
- Use invariants; but this is complicated because the algorithm is complicated.
- Complexity:
 - Time: O(n log n)
 - n rounds for each level
 - log n levels, because there are $\geq 2^k$ nodes in each level k component.
 - Messages: O((n + |E|) log n)
 - Naïve analysis.
 - At each level, O(n) messages sent on tree edges, O(|E|) messages overall for all the test messages and their responses.
 - Messages: O(n log n + |E|)
 - A surprising, significant reduction.
 - Trick also works in asynchronous setting.
 - Has implications for other problems, such as leader election.

O(n log n + |E|) message complexity

- Each process marks its incident edges as rejected when they are discovered to lead to the same component; no need to retest them.
- At each level, tests candidate edges one a a time, in order of increasing weight, until the first one is found that leads outside (or exhaust candidates)
- Rejects all edges that are found to lead to same component.
- At next level, resumes where it left off.
- $O(n \log n + |E|)$ bound:
 - O(n) for messages on tree edges at each phase, O(n log n) total.
 - Test, accept (different component), reject (same component):
 - Amortized analysis.
 - Test-reject: Each (directed) edge has at most one test-reject, for O(|E|) total.
 - Test-accept: Can accept the same directed edge several times; but at most one test-accept per node per level, O(n log n) total.

Where/how did we use synchrony?

- Leader election
- Breadth-first search
- Shortest paths
- Minimum spanning tree

We will see these algorithms again in the asynchronous setting.

Spanning tree \rightarrow Leader

- Given any spanning tree of an undirected graph, elect a leader:
 - Convergecast from the leaves, until messages meet at a node (which can become the leader) or cross on an edge (choose endpoint with the larger UID).
 - Complexity: Time O(n); Messages O(n)
- Given any weighted connected undirected graph, with known n, but no leader, elect a leader:
 - First use GHS MST to get a spanning tree, then use the spanning tree to elect a leader.
 - Complexity: Time O(n log n); Messages O(n log n + |E|).
 - Example: In a ring, O(n log n) time and messages.

Other graph problems...

- We can define a distributed version of practically any graph problem: maximal independent set (MIS), dominating set, graph coloring,...
- Most of these have been well studied.
- For example...

Maximal Independent Set

- Subset I of vertices V of undirected graph G = (V,E) is independent if no two G-neighbors are in V.
- Independent set I is maximal if no strict superset of I is independent.
- Distributed MIS problem:
 - Assume: No UIDs, nodes know (good upper bound on) n.
 - Required:
 - Compute an MIS I of the network graph.
 - Each process in I should output winner, others output loser.
- Application: Wireless network transmission
 - A transmitted message reaches neighbors in the graph; they receive the message if they are in "receive mode".
 - Let nodes in the MIS transmit messages simultaneously, others receive.
 - Independence guarantees that all transmitted messages are received by all neighbors (since neighbors don't transmit at the same time).
 - Neglecting collisions here---some strategy (backoff and retransmission, or coding) is needed for this.
- Unsolvable by deterministic algorithm, in some graphs.
- Randomized algorithm [Luby]:

Luby's MIS Algorithm (sketch)

- Each process chooses a random val in {1,2,...,n⁴}.
 - Large enough set so it's very likely that all numbers are distinct.
- Neighbors exchange vals.
- If node i's val > all neighbors' vals, then process i declares itself a winner and notifies its neighbors.
- Any neighbor of a winner declares itself a loser, notifies its neighbors.
- Processes reconstruct the remaining graph, eliminating winners, losers, and edges incident on winners and lowers.
- Repeat on the remaining graph, until no nodes are left.
- Theorem: If LubyMIS ever terminates, it produces an MIS.
- Theorem: With probability 1, it eventually terminates; the expected number of rounds until termination is O(log n).
- Proof: LTTR.

Termination theorem for Luby MIS

- Theorem: With probability 1, Luby MIS eventually terminates; the expected number of rounds until termination is O(log n).
- Proof: Key ideas
 - Define sum(i) = $\sum_{j \in nbrs(i)} 1/degree(j)$.
 - Sum of the inverses of the neighbors' degrees.
 - Lemma 1: In one stage of Luby MIS, for each in the graph, the probability that i is a loser (neighbor of a winner) is $\geq 1/8$ sum(i).
 - Lemma 2: The expected number of edges removed from G in one stage is $\ge |E| / 8$.
 - Lemma 3: With probability at least 1/16, the number of edges removed from G at a single stage is $\ge |E| / 16$.

Next time

- Distributed consensus
- Reading: Sections 5.1, 6.1-6.3

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