## Local Distributed Decision

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## Outline

## Distributed decision problems

## Does randomization helps?

## Nondeterminism

## Power of oracles

## Non classical ressources

Further works

Decide coloring


## Computational model

## $\mathcal{L O C A L}$ model

In each round during the execution of a distributed algorithm, every processor:

1. sends messages to its neighbors,
2. receives messages from its neighbors, and
3. computes, i.e., performs individual computations.

## Input

An input configuration is a pair $(G, x)$ where $G$ is a connected graph, and every node $v \in V(G)$ is assigned as its local input a binary string $x(v) \in\{0,1\}^{*}$.

## Output

The output of node $v$ performing Algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ running in $G$ with input $x$ and identity assignment Id:

$$
\text { out }_{\mathcal{A}}(G, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{Id}, v)
$$

## Languages

A distributed language is a decidable collection of configurations.

- Coloring $=$ $\{(G, x)$ s.t. $\forall v \in V(G), \forall w \in N(v), \mathrm{x}(v) \neq \mathrm{x}(w)\}$.
- At-Most-One-Selected $=\left\{(G, x)\right.$ s.t. $\left.\|x\|_{1} \leq 1\right\}$.
- Consensus $=$ $\left\{\left(G,\left(\mathrm{x}_{1}, \mathrm{x}_{2}\right)\right)\right.$ s.t. $\left.\exists u \in V(G), \forall v \in V(G), \mathrm{x}_{2}(v)=\mathrm{x}_{1}(u)\right\}$.
- MIS $=\{(G, x)$ s.t. $S=\{v \in V(G) \mid x(v)=1\}$ is a MIS $\}$.


## Decision

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a distributed language.
Algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ decides $\mathcal{L} \Longleftrightarrow$ for every configuration $(G, x)$ :

- If $(G, x) \in \mathcal{L}$, then for every identity assignment Id, out $_{\mathcal{A}}(G, x$, Id, $v)=$ "yes" for every node $v \in V(G)$;
- If $(G, x) \notin \mathcal{L}$, then for every identity assignment Id, out $_{\mathcal{A}}(G, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{Id}, v)=$ "no" for at least one node $v \in V(G)$.



## Local decision

## Definition

$\mathrm{LD}(t)$ is the class of all distributed languages that can be decided by a distributed algorithm that runs in at most $t$ communication rounds.

$$
\mathrm{LD}=\cup_{t \geq 0} \mathrm{LD}(t)
$$

- Coloring $\in \operatorname{LD}$ and MIs $\in \operatorname{LD}$.
- AMOS, Consensus, and SpanningTree are not in LD.


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## Related work

## What can be computed locally?

Define LCL as LD $(O(1))$ involving

- solely graphs of constant maximum degree
- inputs taken from a set of constant size


## Theorem (Naor and Stockmeyer [STOC '93])

If there exists a randomized algorithm that constructs a solution for a problem in LCL in $O(1)$ rounds, then there is also a deterministic algorithm constructing a solution for that problem in $O(1)$ rounds.

Proof uses Ramsey theory.
Not clearly extendable to languages in $\mathrm{LD}(O(1)) \backslash \mathrm{LCL}$.

## $(\Delta+1)$-coloring

## Arbitrary graphs

- can be randomly computed in expected \#rounds $O(\log n)$ (Alon, Babai, Itai [J. Alg. 1986]) (Luby [SIAM J. Comput. 1986])
- best known deterministic algorithm performs in $2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ rounds (Panconesi, Srinivasan [J. Algorithms, 1996])

Bounded degree graphs

- Randomization does not help for 3-coloring the ring (Naor [SIAM Disc. Maths 1991])
- can be randomly computed in expected \#rounds $O(\log \Delta+\sqrt{\log n}) \quad$ (Schneider, Wattenhofer [PODC 2010])
- best known deterministic algorithm performs in $O\left(\Delta+\log ^{*} n\right)$ rounds
(Barenboim, Elkin [STOC 2009]) (Kuhn [SPAA 2009])


## 2-sided error Monte Carlo algorithms

Focus on distributed algorithms that use randomization but whose running time are deterministic.
( $p, q$ )-decider

- If $(G, x) \in \mathcal{L}$ then, for every identity assignment Id, $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\right.$ out $_{\mathcal{A}}(G, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{ld}, v)=$ "yes" for every node $\left.v \in V(G)\right] \geq p$
- If $(G, x) \notin \mathcal{L}$ then, for every identity assignment Id, $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{out}_{\mathcal{A}}(G, x, \mathrm{ld}, v)=\right.$ "no" for at least one node $\left.v \in V(G)\right] \geq q$


## Example: AMOS



Randomized algorithm

- every unmarked node says "yes" with probability 1 ;
- every marked node says "yes" with probability p.


## Remarks:

- Runs in zero time;
- If the configuration has at most one marked node then correct with probability at least $p$.
- If there are at least $k \geq 2$ marked nodes, correct with probability at least $1-p^{k} \geq 1-p^{2}$
- Thus there exists a $(p, q)$-decider for $q+p^{2} \leq 1$.


## Bounded-probability error local decision

## Definition

$\operatorname{BPLD}(t, p, q)$ is the class of all distributed languages that have a randomized distributed $(p, q)$-decider running in time at most $t$.

## Remark

For $p$ and $q$ such that $p^{2}+q \leq 1$, there exists a language $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{BPLD}(0, p, q)$, such that $\mathcal{L} \notin \operatorname{LD}(t)$, for any $t=o(n)$.

## A sharp threshold for hereditary languages

## Hereditary languages

A language $\mathcal{L}$ is hereditary if it is closed by node deletion.

- Coloring and AMOS are hereditary languages.
- Every language $\{(G, \epsilon) \mid G \in \mathcal{G}\}$ where $\mathcal{G}$ is hereditary is... hereditary. (Examples of hereditary graph families are planar graphs, interval graphs, forests, chordal graphs, cographs, perfect graphs, etc.)


## Theorem (F., Korman, Peleg [FOCS 2011])

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an hereditary language and let $t$ be a function of triples $(G, x$, Id $)$. If $\mathcal{L} \in B P L D(t, p, q)$ for constants $p, q \in(0,1]$ such that $p^{2}+q>1$, then $\mathcal{L} \in L D(O(t))$.

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## Distributed certification

## One motivation

Settings in which one must perform local verifications repeatedly.

- Self-stabilizing algorithms
- Construction algorithms that may fail
- Property testing


## Definition

An algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ verifies $\mathcal{L}$ if and only if for every configuration ( $G, x$ ), the following hold:

- If $(G, x) \in \mathcal{L}$, then there exists a certificate $y$ such that, for every id-assignment Id, out ${ }_{\mathcal{A}}(G,(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}), \mathrm{Id}, v)=$ "yes" for all $v \in V(G)$;
- If $(G, x) \notin \mathcal{L}$, then for every certificate $y$, and for every id-assignment Id, out $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{A}}(G,(x, y)$, Id,$v)=$ "no" for at least one node $v \in V(G)$.


## Non-determinism helps

## Definition

$\mathrm{NLD}(t)$ is the class of all distributed languages that can be verified in at most $t$ communication rounds.

$$
\mathrm{NLD}=\cup_{t \geq 0} \mathrm{NLD}(t)
$$

## Example

$$
\text { Tree }=\{(G, \epsilon) \mid G \text { is a tree }\} \in \operatorname{NLD}(1)
$$

Certificate given at node $v$ is $\mathrm{y}(v)=\operatorname{dist}_{G}(v, \hat{v})$, where $\hat{v} \in V(G)$ is an arbitrary fixed node.

Verification procedure verifies the following:

- $\mathrm{y}(v)$ is a non-negative integer,
- if $\mathrm{y}(v)=0$, then $\mathrm{y}(w)=1$ for every neighbor $w$ of $v$, and
- if $y(v)>0$, then there exists a neighbor $w$ of $v$ such that $\mathrm{y}(w)=\mathrm{y}(v)-1$, and, for all other neighbors $w^{\prime}$ of $v$, we have $\mathrm{y}\left(w^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{y}(v)+1$.


## NLD-complete problem

## Reduction

$\mathcal{L}_{1}$ is locally reducible to $\mathcal{L}_{2}$, denoted by $\mathcal{L}_{1} \preceq \mathcal{L}_{2}$, if there exists a constant time local algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ such that, for every configuration $(G, x)$ and every id-assignment Id, $\mathcal{A}$ produces out $(v) \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ as output at every node $v \in V(G)$ so that

$$
(G, x) \in \mathcal{L}_{1} \Longleftrightarrow(G, \text { out }) \in \mathcal{L}_{2}
$$

The language containment
$x(v)=(\mathcal{E}(v), \mathcal{S}(v))$ where:

- $\mathcal{E}(v)$ is an element
- $\mathcal{S}(v)$ is a finite collection of sets
$\{(G,(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{S})) \mid \exists v \in V, \exists S \in \mathcal{S}(v)$ s.t. $S \supseteq\{\mathcal{E}(u) \mid u \in V\}\}$.
Theorem
Containment is NLD-complete.


## Proof

## Reduction

For every node $v$, set $\mathcal{E}(v)$ as the ball of radius $t$ around $v$ where $t$ is the "running time" of a non-deterministic algorithm for $\mathcal{L}$.
Let width $(v)=2^{|\mathrm{Id}(v)|+|\mathrm{X}(v)|}$. Every node $v$

- constructs all possible input configurations $\left(G^{\prime}, x^{\prime}\right)$ on graphs with at most width $(v)$ nodes, and,
- for each configuration ( $G^{\prime}, x^{\prime}$ ), constructs one set $S$ equal to the collection of every $t$-ball around every node of $G^{\prime}$.

At least one node $v$ gets the actual configuration ( $G, x$ ).
Hence the equivalence......
NLD membership
Cf. BPNLD

## Combining non-determinism with randomization

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{BPNLD}(t) & =\cup_{p^{2}+q \leq 1} \operatorname{BPNLD}(t, p, q) \\
\operatorname{BPNLD} & =\cup_{t \geq 0} \operatorname{BPNLD}(t, p, q)
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem
BPNLD contains all languages.
Proof
The certificate is a map of the graph, i.e., an isomorphic copy $H$ of $G$, with nodes labeled from 1 to $n$.
Each node $v$ is also given its label $\ell(v)$ in $H$.
The proof that nodes can probabilistically check $H \sim G$ relies on two facts:

- To be "cheated", a wrong map must be a lift of $G$.
- One can check whether $H$ is a lift of $G$ by having node(s) labeled 1 acting as in AMOS.


## The "most difficult" decision problem

The problem Cover
$\{(\mathcal{G},(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{S})) \mid \exists v \in V, \exists \mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}(v)$ s.t. $\mathcal{S}=\{\mathcal{E}(u) \mid u \in V\}\}$.
Theorem
Cover is BPNLD-complete.

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## The oracle GraphSize

Numerous examples in the literature for which the knowledge of the size of the network is required to efficiently compute solutions.

GraphSize $=\{(G, k)$ s.t. $|V(G)|=k\}$.
Theorem
For every language $\mathcal{L}$, we have $\mathcal{L} \in N L D^{\text {GraphSize }}$.

## Proof

As for BPNLD, the certificate is the map of $G$. Nodes cannot be "cheated" whenever they know how many they are.

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## Decide whether $x=y$



Deterministically: impossible!
Randomly (private coin): probability of success $\frac{1}{2}$

## CHSH Game (Clauser, Horne, Shimony and Holt [1969])



$$
a \oplus b=x \wedge y
$$

Deterministically: impossible!
Randomly (private coin): probability of success $\frac{1}{2}$

## Shared randomness



$$
a \oplus b=x \wedge y
$$

Deterministically: impossible! Randomly: probability of success $\frac{1}{2}$ Shared randomness: probability of success $\frac{3}{4}$

## Shared randomness



$$
a \oplus b=x \wedge y
$$

Deterministically: impossible! Randomly: probability of success $\frac{1}{2}$ Shared randomness: probability of success $\frac{3}{4}$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
a(0) \oplus b(0)=0 \\
a(1) \oplus b(0)=0 \\
a(0) \oplus b(1)=0 \\
a(1) \oplus b(1)=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

## What does it mean to be "local"?

Hidden variable $\lambda \in \Lambda$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(a b \mid x y)=\sum_{\lambda} \operatorname{Pr}(a \mid x \lambda) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(b \mid y \lambda) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(\lambda)
$$

$\Longrightarrow$ Bell's Inequalities
Physics experiments shows that Bell's inequalities can be violated!

## Quantum effect

$$
a \oplus b=x \wedge y
$$

Deterministically: impossible!
Randomly: probability of success $\frac{1}{2}$
Shared randomness: probability of success $\frac{3}{4}$
Intricated particles (quantum bits):
probability of success (Tsilerson [1980]):

$$
\cos ^{2}\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right) \simeq 0.85>\frac{3}{4}
$$

## Global picture



## PR-box (Popescu, Rohrlic [1994])



Deterministically: impossible!
Randomly: probability of success $\frac{1}{2}$
Shared randomness: probability of success $\frac{3}{4}$ Intricated particles (quantum bits): prob of success $\cos ^{2}\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right)$

PR Box: probability of success 1

## The PR box respects causality: it is non-signaling

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}(a b \mid x y)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{1}{2} & \text { if } a \oplus b=x \wedge y \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right. \\
\operatorname{Pr}(a \mid x y)=\operatorname{Pr}(a, b=0 \mid x y)+\operatorname{Pr}(a, b=1 \mid x y)=\frac{1}{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(a \mid x \bar{y})=\operatorname{Pr}(a, b=0 \mid x \bar{y})+\operatorname{Pr}(a, b=1 \mid x \bar{y})=\frac{1}{2} \\
& \Rightarrow \operatorname{Pr}(a \mid x y)=\operatorname{Pr}(a \mid x) \text { and } \operatorname{Pr}(b \mid x y)=\operatorname{Pr}(b \mid y)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Global picture (enhanced)



## Importance of the xor-operator

A game between Alice and Bob is defined by a pair $(\delta, f)$ of boolean functions.

The objective of Alice and Bob playing game $(\delta, f)$ is, for every inputs $x$ and $y$, to output values $a$ and $b$ satisfying

$$
\delta(a, b)=f(x, y)
$$

in absence of any communication between the two players.

## Theorem (Arfaoui, F. [SIROCCO 2012])

Let $(\delta, f)$ be a 2-player game that is not equivalent to any XOR-game. Let $p$ be the largest success probability for ( $\delta, f$ ) over all local boxes. Then every box solving $(\delta, f)$ with probabilistic guarantee $>p$ is signaling.

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- Connection to classical computational complexity theory (time and space).
- Complexity/computability issues: Deciding $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{LD}$ ? $\mathcal{L} \in$ NLD?
- Other interpretation functions (cf. Arfaoui, F., Pelc [SSS 2013])
- Connection with logics (FO, EMSO, ...)


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## Thank You!

