Simple Routing Strategies for Adversarial Systems
(Extended Abstract)

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Abstract

In this paper we consider the problem of delivering dynamically changing input streams in dynamically changing networks where both the topology and the input streams can change in an unpredictable way. In particular, we present two simple distributed balancing algorithms (one for packet injections and one for flow injections) and show that for the case of a single receiver these algorithms will always ensure that the number of packets or flow in the system is bounded at any time step, even for an injection process that completely saturates the capacities of the available edges and even if the network topology changes in a completely unpredictable way. We also show that the maximum number of packets or flow that can be in the system at any time is essentially best possible by providing a lower bound that holds for any *online algorithm, whether distributed or not. Interestingly, our balancing algorithms do not only behave well in a completely adversarial setting. We show that also in the other extreme of a static network and a static injection pattern the algorithms will converge to a point in which they achieve an average routing time that is close to the best possible average routing time that can be achieved by* any *strategy. This demonstrates that there are simple algorithms that can be efficient for very different scenarios.*

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1 Introduction

This paper considers the problem of designing distributed algorithms for the delivery of dynamically changing input streams of packets in a dynamically changing network, where both the topology and the input streams change unpredictably and are under adversarial control. Such a network model makes sense, for example, in the context of a wireless mobile ad hoc network (or short MANET) where links (connections) between mobile nodes change quickly and unpredictably.

This paper focuses on the special case of a single receiver. If the topology and the input streams were fixed, this would have translated into a distributed max-flow problem. The dynamic nature of the problem poses new and quite formidable challenges.

First and foremost, the topological changes prevent us from using the augmenting path based methods that were originally introduced by Ford and Fulkerson [10] and subsequently generalized for the distributed setting by Goldberg [14] and Goldberg and Tarjan [15]. That is, if one attempts to run these algorithms, they will fail, in the worst case, to deliver any packets to the destination.

Only "truly" distributed algorithms that work in an augmenting-paths-free way have a chance to succeed in such manner. This fact motivated Awerbuch, Mansour and Shavit [8] to introduce local load balancing as the major building block for dynamic network flow algorithms, and all the subsequent work on dynamic networks is built around this concept. It was further studied and improved in [1, 2, 3] in the context of a single sender-receiver pair, and then generalized by Awerbuch and Leighton [6, 7] to multiple senders and receivers. However, the results [6, 7] are only claimed to hold for known input rates that are below the maximum possible injection rate. The most recent work in this area has been done by Aiello et al. [4] and Gamarnik

[12]. Both papers consider unpredictable input streams in static networks. Whereas Aiello et al. present a distributed algorithm, Gamarnik only presents a centralized algorithm, but for a more general injection model.

It is important to distinguish this setting from a much more restrictive setting of *adversarial queueing* in which an adversary injects packets into the system, and it has to reveal their paths to the system. There is no need to do either routing or admission (input stream) control. Thus, it only remains to find the right switching strategy to send the packets to their destinations. This model was introduced by Borodin et al. in [9] and has subsequently been studied in several papers [5, 11, 12, 13, 16, 17].

All previous results mentioned above (except for a result by Gamarnik for the special case that the adversary reveals the paths to the system [12]) only manage to accomplish their task if the injection process is strictly below what can be handled by the network. Or more precisely, it has to be ensured that every edge of the network on average only has to carry a load of at most $1 - \epsilon$ per time step (using a best possible strategy) for some fixed $\epsilon > 0$. The bounds shown on the maximum number of packets that are in the system at any time go to infinity as ϵ approaches 0.

In contrast, this paper shows that even if the paths for the packets are not given to the system and even if the network changes are completely unpredictable, it is possible to guarantee an upper bound on the number of packets that can be in the system at any time even if the injection process is exactly at the limit of what the network can handle. Interestingly, our online algorithms that achieve this result are not only optimal in the completely adversarial setting but can also be used for almost optimal routing in the situation where the network is static and the input streams have a fixed rate. Furthermore, they have the important property that they do not "oscillate" in this case but monotonically reach the maximum throughput.

1.1 Models

In this section we describe our network models and injection models in more detail. We distinguish between two network models (adversarial and static networks) and four injection models (adversarial injections and static injection patterns, both for the packet and the flow injection model). We assume that every node has an arbitrarily large buffer to store packets or flow, and that the edge capacity is one. Furthermore, we will only consider directed edges. This does not exclude the undirected edge case, since an undirected edge can be viewed as consisting of two directed edges, one in each direction.

The adversarial network model. Motivated by the unpredictable behavior of mobile ad-hoc networks, we introduce the following adversarial network model. Suppose we have a set of n nodes. We assume that the way these nodes are connected can change over time and is completely under the control of an adversary. That is, only the connections specified by the adversary are working and all others are not working.

We distinguish between two adversarial injection models, one for packet injections and one for flow injections. In the case of the *adversarial packet injection model*, the adversary also controls the injection of packets into the system. Of course, the adversary has to be restricted in order to ensure that the routing problem is in principle solvable. We assume that for each injected packet the adversary has to specify a schedule. A *schedule* $S = ((e_0, t_0), (e_1, t_1), \ldots, (e_\ell, t_\ell))$ consists of a sequence of movements by which the injected packet P can be sent from its source node to its destination node. For this the adversary must ensure that

- P is injected at the starting point of e_1 at time step t_0 (this is represented by the imaginary *injection edge* e_0),
- the edges $e_1, \ldots, e_\ell$ form a connected path, with the endpoint of e_ℓ being the destination of P,
- the time steps have the ordering $t_0 < t_1 < \ldots < t_\ell$, and
- edge e_i is active at time t_i for all $1 \leq i \leq \ell$.

Another necessary requirement is that two schedules are not allowed to *intersect*, that is, they are not allowed to have a pair (e, t) in common. This ensures that a schedule represents a valid routing strategy for a packet.

There are no further restrictions. That is, apart from the necessary requirements above the adversary can do whatever it wants, such as activating any set of non-schedule edges at a time step. Hence, our model is as general as it can be when dealing with packets.

A schedule $S = ((e_0, t_0), (e_1, t_1), \ldots, (e_\ell, t_\ell))$ is called *active* at time t for every t with $t_0 \leq t \leq t_\ell$. Besides the model it is important to specify parameters that allow to prove reasonable results within the model. First we demonstrate that it is not possible to bound the number of packets in the system in terms of the number of currently active schedules and any collection of network parameters.

Proposition 1.1 *Even if the adversary is oblivious (i.e. does not see the distribution of packets in the network), the number of packets in the system at some time step cannot be bounded by the number of currently active schedules or any network parameter.*

Proof. Suppose that we inject s schedules into node 1. Then we offer s edges to node 2. No matter what kind of routing algorithm we use, either node 1 or node 2 will have

(in the expected case or with certainty, depending on the algorithm) at least $s/2$ packets afterwards. Suppose that this is node 2. (The arguments for the case of node 1 are similar.) Then we simply choose the adversarial strategy of using s schedules of the form $((\times,1),t_0),((1,2),t_1),((2,3),t_2)$, where 3 is the destination node. This causes the (expected) number of packets that are still in the system after all schedules have been completed to be at least $s/2$, which certainly cannot be bounded by any network parameter or the number of currently active schedules at that time. □

Hence, we will use a parameter $S_{\max}$ that gives an upper bound on the maximum number of schedules that can be active at any given time. Obviously, $S_{\max}$ is a lower bound for the number of packets that are in the system at any given time using any algorithm. For online algorithms, a much higher lower bound can be given:

Theorem 1.2 *For any online algorithm there is an adversary, using only one node as destination for all packets, that causes the number of packets in the system to be at least* $S_{\max} \cdot \binom{n-1}{2} + S_{\max}$ *at some time.*

Proof. (Sketch) W.l.o.g. we restrict our attention to deterministic algorithms. This allows us to use adaptive adversaries instead of adversaries that have to specify schedules at injection times, which simplifies the proof. (The proof can be extended to randomized algorithms, since any set of choices that can be taken with positive probability within a finite time interval will eventually be taken by the algorithm.)

For all $i \in \{0,\dots,n-1\}$ let the *height* h_i of node i be defined as the number of packets stored in it. Initially, $h_i = 0$ for all i. We will always assume that the nodes are sorted so that $h_{n-1} \geq h_{n-2} \geq \dots \geq h_0$ and node 0 represents the destination of all packets. Let the *potential* of the system at any given time be defined as $\Phi = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} h_i^2$.

The adversarial strategy works as follows: First, inject $S_{\max}$ packets to node $n-1$. Then activate $S_{\max}$ times the edge $(n-1,n-2)$. If not all $S_{\max}$ packets have been moved, then activate $S_{\max}$ times the edge $(n-2,0)$. The schedules for the $S_{\max}$ packets can therefore be chosen to be of the form $((\times,n-1),t_0),((n-1,n-2),t_1),((n-2,0),t_2)$. Furthermore, it is easy to check that the potential afterwards is strictly larger than before. Suppose on the contrary that all $S_{\max}$ packets have been moved. If afterwards $h_{n-2} > h_{n-1}$, activate $S_{\max}$ times the edge $(n-1,0)$. In this case, we can choose the $S_{\max}$ schedules to be of the form $((\times,n-1),t_0),((n-1,0),t_1)$. Moreover, also in this case the potential afterwards is strictly larger than before. It remains to consider the case that all $S_{\max}$ packets were moved from $n-1$ to $n-2$ and still $h_{n-1} \geq h_{n-2}$. Then we continue with $n-2$ as for $n-1$ above (i.e. instead of the pair $n-1$ and $n-2$ we consider the pair $n-2$ and $n-3$) and use as the beginning for the $S_{\max}$ schedules the form $((\times,n-1),t_0),((n-1,n-2),t_1)$. If also there all $S_{\max}$ packets are moved from $n-2$ to $n-3$ and afterwards $h_{n-2} \geq h_{n-3}$, we continue with node $n-3$, and so on.

It can easily be checked that the only way to prevent the potential (and therefore the number of packets) from increasing to infinity is to have that $h_{i+1} \geq h_i + S_{\max}$ for all i before the next set of $S_{\max}$ schedules is created. In this case, the number of packets in the system must be at least $S_{\max} \cdot \binom{n-1}{2}$. Adding $S_{\max}$ more packets for the new schedules results in the lower bound. □

Our second adversarial injection model, the *adversarial flow injection model*, is closely related to the above described model. We assume that flows of arbitrary positive values are injected into the network. Each flow comes with a schedule describing a path system that can be used to route the flow to its destination. Of course, the flow may be partitioned into several streams that are routed along different paths and that use different time steps to cross edges. Hence, a schedule for a flow f with value c may decompose into k schedules along simple paths for some number k:

$$((c^1,e_0^1,t_0^1),(c^1,e_1^1,t_1^1),\dots,(c^1,e_{\ell_1}^1,t_{\ell_1}^1)),\cdots,$$

$$((c^k,e_0^k,t_0^k),(c^k,e_1^k,t_1^k),\dots,(c^k,e_{\ell_k}^k,t_{\ell_k}^k)).$$

c^i is the *weight* (i.e. the amount of flow) of the ith schedule and $c = c^1 + c^2 + \cdots, +c^k$. Again, we have to demand from the adversary that all edges used in a schedule have to be active for that point of time. We assume that each edge can route a total flow of one per edge and that every node can store an arbitrarily large amount of flow. Hence, the schedules have to fulfill the property that the sum of flow values routed over the same edge at the same time has to be at most one. In the flow setting, we define $S_{\max}$ as the sum of the weights of all flow schedules along simple paths that are active at any time.

Additionally, we consider two non-adversarial injection models, again in a flow injection and a packet injection version. In our *static pattern packet injection* model we assume that a fixed set of source-destination pairs is injected in every time step. Of course, the adversary has to provide schedules that enables every generated packet to be sent to its destination. In the *static pattern flow injection* model, we have a fixed set of source-destination pairs with fixed flow values that is injected in every step. Also here, valid schedules have to be provided by the adversary.

The static network model. Here, we simply assume that the network is static, i.e, all specified links are working all the time.

1.2 New results

In order to analyze the performance of our algorithms, we will use the parameters $S_{\max}$ and B, where B denotes the maximum number of non-injection edges leaving (resp. leading to) a single node that can be active at any time. Since our results allow multiple edges connecting the same pair of nodes, they also hold for networks that use non-uniform edge capacities. However, in the case of non-uniform capacities, B has to be defined as the maximum sum of the capacities of the edges leaving (resp. leading to) a single node at any time.

A protocol for our injection models is called *bounded* for some $S_{\max}$ and B if it ensures that for any adversary respecting $S_{\max}$ and B there is an upper bound on the number of packets (depending only on $S_{\max}$, B, and the network size) that can be in the system at any time. Note that this notion is more strict than the stability notion used by some other papers in the adversarial setting, since it requires to have a strict upper bound on the number of packets in the system (which has usually not been demanded for randomized protocols). As our main result we show that there are simple balancing algorithms that are bounded for both packets and flows, even when both the network and injection process is adversarial and the injection process is at the limit of what the network can handle. Even more, our upper bounds on the number of packets and flows (see Theorem 3.2) that are in the system at any time essentially match the lower bound given by Theorem 1.2 .

Our algorithms are also bounded in the setting of (w, λ)-bounded adversaries introduced by Borodin et al. in [9]. For any w and $\lambda > 0$, we call an adversary a *discrete* (w, λ)-*bounded adversary* if it selects paths for the injected packets so that for all edges e and all time intervals I of length w, e is contained in no more than $\lambda \cdot w$ paths of packets injected during I. Analogously, we call an adversary a *fractional* (w, λ)-*bounded adversary* if it selects fractional path collections for its injected flows so that for all edges e and all time intervals I of length w, the total flow of the fractional paths injected in I that traverse e does not exceed $\lambda \cdot w$. Note that transferring stability to these models is not straight forward, since our model requires the existence of a bounded number of active schedules at any point of time. However, we show that our algorithms will guarantee that the number of packets (resp. the amount of flow) will always be polynomial in the network size and w even if $\lambda = 1$. Using Garmaniks results [12] for the stability of NTO (nearest to origin) in order to to bound the number of active schedules would only allow to give exponential bounds.

Next, we show that our algorithms also behave well if we have a static network and a static injection pattern. Our algorithm for the flow case converges against a fixpoint in which the amount of flow stored by any node does not change any more (Theorem 5.1). In Theorem 5.3 we show that in this fixpoint, when using LIFO (last in first out), the average delay of the flow achieved by our algorithm is very close to a best possible average delay, and hence almost as good as it can possibly be. Furthermore, our algorithm does not "oscillate", because we can show that the flows in the nodes will monotonically increase and that the throughput monotonically reaches the rate of flow injected into the system. We also note how to transfer these results to the situation that packets have to be sent.

Our results demonstrate that simple balancing strategies are not only efficient in a completely adversarial scenario but also efficient in the case of static networks and injection patterns. Thus, there is hope that efficient and flexible communication strategies can be constructed that can even handle such "adversarial" networks like MANETs.

2 The Balancing Algorithms

In this section we will present our simple, distributed balancing algorithms. Both algorithms use parameters σ and $\Delta \geq 1$ that determine how aggressively the algorithms try to balance the load in the network.

2.1 The discrete (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm

This algorithm will be used for the packet injection models, where packets cannot be split and have to be sent through the network in one piece. The algorithm requires each node to have a buffer of sufficiently large size for storing packets. The buffer at node v is denoted by Q_v, and the number of packets stored in Q_v at time t is denoted by $h_{v,t}$. Furthermore, let $\bar{h}_{v,t} = h_{v,t}/\Delta$. In every time step $t \geq 1$ the balancing algorithm performs the following operations.

1. For every edge $e = (v, w)$, check whether $\bar{h}_{v,t} - \bar{h}_{w,t} > \sigma$. If so, send a packet from v to w (otherwise do nothing).
2. Receive incoming packets and newly injected packets, and absorb those that reached the destination.

2.2 The fractional (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm

Let the amount of flow stored in node v at time t be denoted by $h_{v,t}$. Furthermore, let $\bar{h}_{v,t} = h_{v,t}/\Delta$. In every time step $t \geq 1$ the balancing algorithm performs the following operations.

1. For every edge $e = (v, w)$, check whether $\bar{h}_{v,t} - \bar{h}_{w,t} > \sigma$. If so, send a flow of $\min[\bar{h}_{v,t} - \bar{h}_{w,t} - \sigma, 1]$ from v to w (otherwise do nothing).
2. Receive incoming flow and newly injected flow, and absorb the flow that reached the destination.

We will demonstrate in the following that the two balancing algorithms perform well in a wide range of injection models, ranging from adversarial networks and injections to static networks and injection patterns.

3 Adversarial Networks and Injections

In this section we present upper and lower bounds on the number of packets or flow in the system when using the (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm in the scenario that we have an adversarial network and adversarial packet or flow injections.

3.1 Packet injections

First we present a lower bound for the discrete algorithm, and then we present a matching upper bound (that matches the universal lower bound in Theorem 1.2 for $B = \Delta = 1$).

Theorem 3.1 *For any $S_{\max}, B \in \mathbb{N}$ and any $T \in \mathbb{N}_0$, there exists an adversary such that the number of packets in the system when using the (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm with $T = \sigma \cdot \Delta$ is at least* $\max[S_{\max}, S_{\max}+T-1] \cdot \binom{n-1}{2} + S_{\max}$.

Proof. (Sketch) We will only consider the case $T > 0$, since the bound for $T = 0$ follows from Theorem 1.2. It is not difficult to show that repeating the following set of schedules sufficiently often will result in the lower bound for $T > 0$. Initially, all buffers are empty. The injection of schedules proceeds in rounds, starting with round 1. In each round $r \geq 1$, we inject $S_{\max}$ schedules, where schedule s is given by $(((\times, n-1), t_r + s)((n-1, n-2), t_r + S_{\max} + s), ((n-2, n-3), t_r + 2S_{\max} + s), ((n-3, n-4), t_r + 3S_{\max} + s), \ldots, ((1,0), t_r + (n-1)S_{\max} + s))$ with $t_r = (r-1) \cdot n \cdot S_{\max}$. This will cause the packets to pile up in the nodes and ultimately cause a slope of steepness $S_{\max} + T - 1$ from node $n-1$ to 1. Adding $S_{\max}$ packets when starting a new round then results in the lower bound. □

Theorem 3.2 *For any $S_{\max}, B \in \mathbb{N}$ and any σ and Δ with $T = \sigma \cdot \Delta \geq 2(B-1)$, the discrete (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm ensures that there are at most* $\max[S_{\max}, S_{\max} + T - 1] \cdot \binom{n-1}{2} + S_{\max}$ *packets in the system at any time. Furthermore, the maximum number of packets in a node at any time is at most* $\max[S_{\max}, S_{\max} + T - 1](n-2) + S_{\max}$.

Proof. (Sketch) Let $h_{v,t}$ be the number of packets that are stored in node v at step t. We say that node v has *height* h *at time* t if $h = h_{v,t}$. For our proof we will always view the nodes as being sorted in the order of decreasing height, i.e. for every time step t we assign positions to the nodes so that $h_{n-1,t} \geq h_{n-2,t} \geq \ldots \geq h_{0,t}$. We assume that the height of the destination is $-T$ (in this case, position 0 is always the position of the destination). The position of a node v is *left* (resp. *right*) from a node w if the positions i of v and j of w fulfill $i > j$ (resp. $j < i$). We will assume that every node has sufficiently many slots to store packets. The slots are numbered in a consecutive way starting with 1. Every slot can store at most one packet. After every step of the balancing algorithm we assume that if a buffer holds h packets, then its first h slots are occupied. The *height* of a packet is defined as the number of the slot in which it is currently stored. If the balancing algorithm allows k packets to be moved out of some node, we will assume for the proof that always the k packets of highest height are taken. If a new packet is injected, it will obtain the lowest slot that is available after all packets that are moved to that node from another node have been placed.

A slot i in position j of the sorted node sequence is called a *slope slot* if $i \leq \max[S_{\max}, S_{\max} + T - 1] \cdot (j-1)$. The set of all slope slots is defined as the *slope* (see also Figure 1). The definition of the slope ensures that all non-slope slots (except for those in the destination, which we will not need to consider) have positive numbers. That is, if we know for some node that it has a height of beyond the slope, then there must be packets stored in it in non-slope positions.

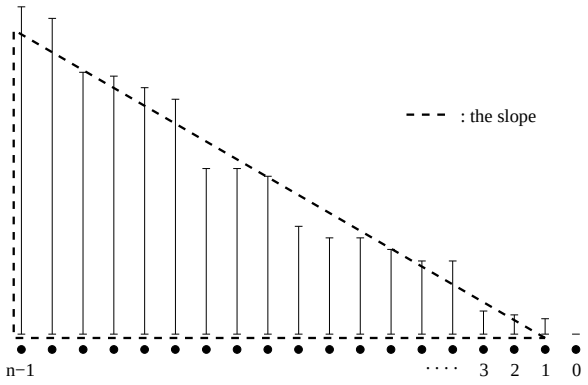

Figure 1. Illustration of the node ordering and the slope.

In order to show that the number of packets in the system is bounded, we will compare the actions of an optimal strategy (given by the schedules of the adversary) with the actions of our balancing algorithm. To do so we will divide the packets into so-called *slope packets* and *representatives*. When a new packet is injected into the system, we declare it a representative of the corresponding schedule. During the lifetime of the schedule, the role of the representative may be passed on to other packets. However, as we will show, there will be a time point before the schedule becomes in-

active when we are either able to transform the representative into a slope packet (without passing on the role of the representative to another packet) or the representative must reach the destination. This will limit the number of representatives to be at most the number of active schedules at any time step.

For the proof of the theorem we will take care that all packets in the system can either be exclusively assigned to a slope slot (if it is a slope packet) or to an active schedule (if it is a representative). This will ensure that the number of packets in the system can never exceed $\max[S_{\max}, S_{\max} + T - 1] \cdot \binom{n-1}{2} + S_{\max}$. The mapping of the slope packets to slope slots is called *slope mapping*, and the mapping of the representatives to the active schedules is called *schedule mapping*. Next we define properties these mappings must have. A slope mapping is called *legal* if

1. it is one-to-one and
2. ensures that every slope packet at height h is assigned to a slope slot at height h' with $h' \geq h$.

Note that a legal slope mapping does not require that slope packets are stored in slope slots.

Given a schedule $S = ((e_0, t_0), \ldots, (e_\ell, t_\ell))$ and a time step t, the *position* of S at time t is defined as the node at which its packet would have been if all edge activations in S up to t had been used by it. Now, we define a schedule mapping to be *legal* if

1. it is one-to-one and
2. ensures that every representative at a node of height h is assigned to a schedule at a node of height h' with $h' \geq h$.

Finally, we define the system to be in a *legal state* if

1. the slope mapping is legal,
2. the schedule mapping is legal, and
3. all representatives are stored in non-slope positions.

Properties 1 and 2 ensure that in a legal state the number of packets is bounded. Property 3 is necessary for technical reasons. Since the balancing algorithm starts with an empty system, which is certainly legal, the following lemma completes the proof of Theorem 3.2. □

Lemma 3.3 *For any adversary and any time step t, the balancing algorithm ensures the following:*
If the system is in a legal state at the beginning of t, it will also be in a legal state at the end of t.

Proof. (Sketch) The key to the proof of the lemma is to use two strategies: the *escape strategy* and the *exchange strategy*. These strategies allow to get always back to a legal state. The details are deferred to a full version of the paper.

Escape strategy: Suppose that it happens that some representative R is in some slope slot at node v. Then we show that either R can be moved to some non-slope slot at some node w with $h_{w,t} \leq h_{v,t}$ or R can be converted into a slope packet.

If no slope packet points to the slot of R, then R can be converted into a slope packet. If a slope packet is mapped to this slot, we follow the directed list of slope packets formed by the slope mapping backwards from the position of R until we reach some slope packet, say P, that is either in a non-slope slot (that must be at a node w with $h_{w,t} \leq h_{v,t}$ due to property 2 of a legal slope mapping) or in a slope slot that is not assigned to any slope packet. In the former case, we map all slope packets of the list to their own slot except for P, exchange roles between R and P, and map P to its new slot. In the latter case, we map all slope packets of the list to their own slot. Then the slot of R becomes available and R can be transformed into a slope packet.

Exchange strategy: Suppose that we want to pass on the role of a representative R at node v to some packet in node w with $h_{v,t} > h_{w,t} \geq h_{v,t} - T$ without violating any of the conditions of a legal state. Since the position of w is right from v and the steepness of the slope is $T + S_{\max} - 1$, w must have at least $S_{\max}$ packets in non-slope positions. Because there can be at most $S_{\max} - 1$ representatives besides R, at least one of these packets must be a slope packet, say P. We now show how to exchange the roles of R and P while remaining in a legal state.

First of all, P cannot be assigned to the slot storing P, since this is a non-slope slot. Hence, P can be seen as the beginning of a directed list of packets formed by the slope mapping. The endpoint of the list must be a slope packet that is assigned to an empty slope slot, say x. Since the difference in height between v and w is at most T and R is in a non-slope slot, there cannot be an empty slope slot between v and w. Thus, property 2 of a legal slope mapping and the fact that P is in a non-slope slot imply that x must have a height that is above the height of R.

Now, we exchange the roles of R and P. That is, P becomes the new representative and R becomes a slope packet. The slope slot x is assigned to R, and all the other slope packets in the directed list are now assigned to their own slot. This results in a legal slot mapping, which brings us back to a legal state. □

One may ask whether small buffer sizes may improve the performance of the balancing algorithm or not. However, it can be shown that a single buffer of size less than $\max[S_{\max}, S_{\max} + T - 1](n-3) + S_{\max}$ can already cause instability.

3.2 Flow injections

For the fractional case, the following upper bound can be shown. The lower bound is the same as for the discrete case.

Theorem 3.4 *For any $S_{\max}, B \in \mathbb{N}$ and any σ and Δ with $T = \sigma \cdot \Delta \geq B$, the fractional (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm ensures that there is at most $(S_{\max} + T - 1) \cdot \binom{n-1}{2} + S_{\max}$ flow in the system at any time.*

4 Adversarial Injections into Static Networks

In this section we assume that the injections are still adversarial, but the network is now static, i.e. its structure is fixed and no edge breaks down.

4.1 Packet injections

The following result shows that stability in our model can be transferred to stability when using any discrete (w, λ)-bounded adversary (i.e. a bounded adversary that injects discrete packets).

Theorem 4.1 *For any network of maximum degree B and any discrete (w, λ)-bounded adversary with $\lambda \leq 1$ that uses only one receiver, the discrete (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm ensures: If $T = \sigma \cdot \Delta \geq 2(B-1)$, then there are at most $(3w \cdot m + T)\binom{n-1}{2} + 3w \cdot m$ packets in the system at any time.*

Proof. In order to prove the theorem, it suffices to show that for any discrete (w, λ)-bounded adversary there exists a routing strategy such that there are at most $w(2n + m)$ packets in the system at any time.

Consider the time to be partitioned into time frames of length w. Due to the restrictions on the (ω, λ)-bounded adversary, there are routing paths for all the packets injected during this time frame with a congestion of at most w. Let R_I be the set of routing paths for time frame I. Now suppose we use the following strategy:

For each time frame I of length w, first buffer all arriving packets in the corresponding injection buffers. During the next time frame I' of length w, send a packet over every edge that occurs in a routing path in R_I. Or more precisely, for every path $p = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k)$ in R_I, the packet injected for p is sent along (v_1, v_2) and for every $i \in \{2, \ldots, k-1\}$, any available packet in a non-injection buffer in v_i is sent along (v_i, v_{i+1}).

The strategy is always feasible, since the congestion of the optimal path collection is always at most w, and therefore it is possible for every edge e to send one packet across e in I' for each path crossing e (if such a packet is available). Furthermore, it has the following consequence:

Lemma 4.2 *At the end of every time frame I, every injection buffer only holds the packets injected in I, and every node of in-degree d stores at most $d \cdot w$ packets.*

The number of packets in the injection buffers is upper bounded by $2w \cdot m$, where m is the number of edges, because this is the maximum amount of packets that can be injected into the system within two time intervals of length w. Thus, together with Lemma 4.2 it follows that the total amount of packets in the system at any time cannot exceed $3w \cdot m$. Using this in Theorem 3.2 proves Theorem 4.1. □

4.2 Flow injections

We can also transfer the stability results for our adversarial flow model to stability results in Garmanik's adversarial flow model [12]. The proof is similar to the proof of Theorem 4.1.

Theorem 4.3 *For any network of maximum degree B and any fractional (w, λ)-bounded adversary with $\lambda \leq 1$ that uses only one receiver, the fractional (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm ensures: If $T = \sigma \cdot \Delta \geq B$, then there is at most $(3w \cdot m + T)\binom{n-1}{2} + 3w \cdot m$ flow in the system at any time.*

5 Static Networks and Injection Patterns

Finally, we consider the situation that the network and the injection pattern is static.

5.1 Flow injections

In this section we study the performance of the (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm when used in the situation that we have a flow injection process where the amount of flow injected at any fixed node is the same for all time steps. The next theorem shows that in this case the distribution of flow among the nodes caused by the balancing algorithm will approach a *fixpoint*, i.e. a point in which the amount of flow at every node remains unchanged when applying the balancing algorithm to it.

Theorem 5.1 *For any static network, any sustainable static flow injection pattern, and any σ and Δ with $\sigma \cdot \Delta \geq B$, the distribution of the flow will converge towards a fixpoint.*

Proof. Let $\bar{h}_{v,t}$ denote the normalized height of node v at time step t and $\delta_{v,t} = \bar{h}_{v,t+1} - \bar{h}_{v,t}$. We will show that if the system starts with $\bar{h}_{v,0} = 0$ for every node v, then $\delta_{v,t} \geq 0$ for all v and t. Since this implies that the (normalized) heights of the nodes can only grow, and since we know from Theorem 4.3 that the total amount of flow in the system must be bounded, this implies that the system must converge towards a state with $\delta_{v,t} = 0$ for all v, i.e. a fixpoint.

Lemma 5.2 *If $\bar{h}_{v,0} = 0$ for every node v, then $\delta_{v,t} \geq 0$ for all $t \geq 0$ and all $v \in V$.*

Proof. (Sketch) To simplify the proof, we will view the injected flow as flow along edges coming from imaginary nodes v for which w.l.o.g. we have $\delta_{v,t} \geq 0$ for all $t \geq 0$.

At the beginning, the lemma is obviously true. Now suppose that we already showed for some time step t that $\delta_{v,t} \geq 0$ for all $v \in V$. Then we will show that it also holds for step $t+1$.

Consider an arbitrary node v. We know that $\bar{h}_{v,t+1} = \bar{h}_{v,t} + \delta_{v,t}$ where $\delta_{v,t} \geq 0$. Since also $\bar{h}_{w,t+1} \geq \bar{h}_{w,t}$ for all other nodes w, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
&\bar{h}_{v,t+2} \\
&= \bar{h}_{v,t+1} + \tfrac{1}{\Delta} \sum_{\substack{w\,:\,\bar{h}_{w,t+1} > \\ \bar{h}_{v,t+1}+\sigma}} \min[1,\ \bar{h}_{w,t+1} - \bar{h}_{v,t+1} - \sigma] \\
&\quad - \tfrac{1}{\Delta} \sum_{\substack{w\,:\,\bar{h}_{w,t+1} < \\ \bar{h}_{v,t+1}-\sigma}} \min[1,\ \bar{h}_{v,t+1} - \bar{h}_{w,t+1} - \sigma] \\
&\geq \bar{h}_{v,t+1} + \tfrac{1}{\Delta} \sum_{\substack{w\,:\,\bar{h}_{w,t} > \\ \bar{h}_{v,t+1}+\sigma}} (\min[1,\ \bar{h}_{w,t} - \bar{h}_{v,t} - \sigma] - \delta_{v,t}) \\
&\quad - \tfrac{1}{\Delta} \sum_{\substack{w\,:\,\bar{h}_{w,t} < \\ \bar{h}_{v,t+1}-\sigma}} (\min[1,\ \bar{h}_{v,t} - \bar{h}_{w,t} - \sigma] + \delta_{v,t}) \\
&\geq \bar{h}_{v,t+1} - \delta_{v,t} + \tfrac{1}{\Delta} \sum_{\substack{w\,:\,\bar{h}_{w,t} > \\ \bar{h}_{v,t}+\sigma}} \min[1,\ \bar{h}_{w,t} - \bar{h}_{v,t} - \sigma] \\
&\quad - \tfrac{1}{\Delta} \sum_{\substack{w\,:\,\bar{h}_{w,t} < \\ \bar{h}_{v,t}-\sigma}} \min[1,\ \bar{h}_{v,t} - \bar{h}_{w,t} - \sigma] \\
&= \bar{h}_{v,t+1} - \delta_{v,t} + \delta_{v,t} = \bar{h}_{v,t+1}\ .
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, in this case also $\delta_{v,t+1} \geq 0$, which proves the lemma. □

This completes the proof of Theorem 5.1. □

In the fixpoint, the heights of the nodes do not change any more. This implies that, when the fixpoint is reached, the amount of flow entering a node is equal to the amount of flow leaving a node. Since flow can only move from higher nodes to lower nodes, this implies that the flow movements form fixed, connected, and loop-free paths. The sum of the capacities of these paths is equal to the amount of flow injected into the system in every time step. When using the LIFO (last-in-first-out) rule to send flow through the system, we obtain a worst case delay of n (a path may visit in the worst case all nodes). Let the average delay $\bar{T}_{BAL}$ of these paths be defined as follows.

$$\bar{T}_{BAL} = \tfrac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{\text{flow paths } p} \ell_p \cdot \lambda_p$$

where ℓ_p is the length of flow path p, λ_p is the amount of flow following path p, and $\lambda = \sum_{\text{flow paths } p} \lambda_p$. The question is how close $\bar{T}_{BAL}$ can be to a best possible average case delay, $\bar{T}_{OPT}$. The next theorem gives the answer to this question.

Theorem 5.3 *For any static network, any sustainable static flow injection pattern, any $\sigma \in \mathbb{N}$, and any $\Delta \geq B$ the (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm together with the LIFO rule ensures that, in the fixpoint, $\bar{T}_{BAL} \leq (1 + 1/\sigma)\bar{T}_{OPT}$.*

Proof. We know that at the fixpoint of the balancing algorithm we have a fixed collection P of paths whose demands sum up to the total injection rate. Let Q be any collection of optimal paths for the given injection process. W.l.o.g. we can assume that P and Q have the same number of paths, and the ith path of P and Q has the same demand and connects the same source-destination pair (otherwise split the paths of P and Q into subpaths such that this property is fulfilled). Thus, let $p_1, \ldots, p_r$ be the paths in P, and let $q_1, \ldots, q_r$ be the paths in Q. Let ℓ_i denote the length of p_i and k_i denote the length of q_i. Furthermore, let λ_i be the demand of path p_i and q_i. Suppose now that

$$\sum_i \lambda_i \ell_i > \frac{\sigma+1}{\sigma} \sum_i \lambda_i k_i\ . \tag{1}$$

We will show via contradiction that this is not possible, which would prove the theorem.

For each $i \in \{1, \ldots, r\}$, let s_i denote the source of path p_i and q_i. Furthermore, for any node v let h_v denote the height of node v in the fixpoint, and for any edge $e = (v, w)$ let $\delta_e = h_v - h_w$. We define the *potential* of a collection C of paths p with demands λ_p as $\Phi(C) = \sum_{p \in C} \lambda_p \sum_{(v,w) \in p} (h_v - h_w)$. Then we obtain for any collection of paths C connecting the same set of endpoints as P and Q that $\Phi(C) = \sum_i \lambda_i h_{s_i}$. Thus, $\Phi(P) = \Phi(Q)$. For any edge e and path collection C, let $\lambda_e(C)$ denote the amount of capacity of e used by the paths in C. Furthermore, for any two path collections C_1 and C_2 let $\lambda_e(C_1 \cap C_2) = \min[\lambda_e(C_1), \lambda_e(C_2)]$ and $\lambda_e(C_1 \setminus C_2) = \max[\lambda_e(C_1) - \lambda_e(C_2), 0]$. Then we obtain from $\Phi(P) = \Phi(Q)$ that $\sum_{e \in E} \delta_e \lambda_e(P \cap Q) + \sum_{e \in E} \delta_e \lambda_e(P \setminus Q) = \sum_{e \in E} \delta_e \lambda_e(P \cap Q) + \sum_{e \in E} \delta_e \lambda_e(Q \setminus P)$ and thus $\sum_{e \in E} \delta_e \lambda_e(P \setminus Q) = \sum_{e \in E} \delta_e \lambda_e(Q \setminus P)$. We know that for all edges e with $\lambda_e(P \setminus Q) > 0$ we have $\delta_e \geq \sigma \cdot \Delta$, and for all edges e with $\lambda_e(Q \setminus P) > 0$ we have $\delta_e \leq (\sigma + 1)\Delta$. Hence, $\sum_{e \in E} \lambda_e(P \setminus Q) \leq \frac{\sigma+1}{\sigma} \sum_{e \in E} \lambda_e(Q \setminus P)$. On the other hand, (1) implies that

$\sum_{e\in E}\lambda_e(P\setminus Q) > \frac{\sigma+1}{\sigma}\sum_{e\in E}\lambda_e(Q\setminus P)$, which is a contradiction. □

Since there are examples that show that $\bar{T}_{BAL}$ may not be approached in a monotonic way, it is extremely difficult to prove how quickly the system converges to $\bar{T}_{BAL}$. However, we can show that the flow always has a very special property formulated in the next theorem.

Theorem 5.4 *When using the LIFO rule, any flow piece that reaches the destination has been travelling without waiting.*

Proof. (Sketch) For any time step t and node v, let $h_{v,t}^{(o)}$ denote the amount of flow in node v after the flow has been sent out of v and before new flow has been received by v at step t. Similar to the proof of Lemma 5.2 one can show by induction that for every v and t, $h_{v,t+1}^{(o)} \geq h_{v,t}^{(o)}$. This will then immediately imply the theorem. □

Furthermore, we can bound the time it takes until the system reaches a maximum possible throughput.

A system is called to reach its ϵ-*almost stable* state at time t if for any time step $t' \geq t$ the difference between the flow injected into the network and the flow absorbed in the destination is at most ϵ.

Theorem 5.5 *For any static graph of n nodes and m edges, any sustainable static flow injection pattern, and any $\epsilon > 0$, it takes at most $(n+m)\cdot n^2/\epsilon$ steps to reach an ϵ-almost stable state.*

Proof. From the proof of Lemma 5.2 we know that the heights of the nodes are monotonically increasing. Since the height of the destination will always be 0, this means that the amount of flow reaching the destination is monotonically increasing over the time. Let t be the first time step in which the amount of flow absorbed in the destination is by at most ϵ less than the injected flow. Then for all time steps $t' < t$ at least an ϵ amount of the injected flow remained in the system. Since the total amount of flow in the system can be bounded by $(n+m)\cdot n^2$ (use Theorem 3.4 with $S_{\max} = m$ and $T = n$ and as flow paths an optimal flow solution), t can be at most $(n+m)\cdot n^2/\epsilon$. □

5.2 Packet injections

Next we investigate the situation that we have a static packet injection process, that is, the amount of packets injected at a node is the same for all time steps. We use simulations of the fractional balancing algorithm instead of considering directly the discrete algorithm, because this tremendously simplifies the analysis. It also allows us to argue about the behavior in the fixpoint, although the discrete algorithm itself does not converge to one.

A deterministic simulation

We start with a deterministic simulation of the fractional (σ,Δ)-balancing algorithm. Every edge $e=(v,w)$ gets a counter z_e. Initially, $z_e = 0$ for all e. Every time a flow of value f crosses e, we increase z_e by f. If $z_e \geq 1$, then we send a packet along e (if v has at least one packet available for this) and subtract 1 from z_e.

Let $g_{v,t}$ denote the number of packets in node v at time t and $h_{v,t}$ denote the amount of flow in node v at time t. The next theorem shows that with the simulation strategy above the distribution of the packets will, under certain circumstances, always be close to the distribution of flow in the system.

Theorem 5.6 *Suppose that we use the (σ,B)-balancing algorithm for the fractional case with $\sigma \geq 2$. Then the deterministic simulation ensures that for every node v and time step t, $|h_{v,t} - g_{v,t}| \leq 2B$.*

Proof. We call a node v *active* at time step t if $\bar{h}_{v,t} \geq \sigma$. Let the flow reaching v at time t be defined as $f_{v,t}^i$ and the flow leaving v at time t be defined as $f_{v,t}^o$. From the balancing rule of the (σ,Δ)-balancing algorithm we know that a node v can only send flow to some node w if $\bar{h}_{v,t} - \bar{h}_{w,t} \geq \sigma$. Hence, any node that sends out flow must be active. From the proof of Theorem 5.1 we also know that the heights of the nodes are monotonically increasing. Thus, for every time step the incoming flow is always at least as large as the outgoing flow. We sum up these important observations in the following lemma.

Fact 5.7

1. *Every node v that becomes active at time step t for the first time must fulfill $\sum_{\tau\leq t} f_{v,\tau}^i \geq \sigma\cdot\Delta$ and $\sum_{\tau\leq t} f_{v,\tau}^o = 0$.*
2. *For every node v and every time step t, $f_{v,t}^i \geq f_{v,t}^o$.*

The next lemma states that active nodes will never run out of packets during the simulation.

Lemma 5.8 *For any edge $e=(v,w)$ and time step t in which $z_{e,t}$ exceeds 1, a packet can be sent from v to w.*

Proof. We prove the lemma by complete induction over the amount of time considered so far. At the beginning, the lemma is certainly true. So assume now that it is true up to some time step $t \geq 1$. Then we will show that it is also true for time step $t+1$. Consider some fixed node v. Let $f_{v,t}^o$ and $f_{v,t}^i$ be defined as above. Recall that we want to choose $\Delta = B$ (see the theorem). Thus, according to Fact 5.7, there is some flow value f so that $\sum_{\tau=1}^{t} f_{v,\tau}^i \geq f + \sigma\cdot B$ and $\sum_{\tau=1}^{t} f_{v,\tau}^o \leq f$. Hence, at most f packets have been sent out by v up to step t. Furthermore, we know from the

induction hypothesis that v has received at least $f+\sigma \cdot B-B$ packets up to step t. Since $\sigma \geq 2$, there must be at least B packets that are stored at v at the beginning of step $t+1$. Hence, no matter which edges decide to send out packets at step $t+1$, there will be enough packets available for this. □

Lemma 5.8 implies that for every edge the difference between the number of packets and the amount of flow received over that edge is at most 1. Hence, the difference between the number of packets in a node and the amount of flow in a node never exceeds $2B$. □

A randomized simulation

The drawback of the deterministic simulation above is that packets may experience quite high delays. Much better results can be obtained when using a randomized simulation of the fractional (σ, B)-balancing algorithm: with the help of random startup times, the expected delays of the packets can be made comparable to the expected flow delay shown above. More details will be given in a full version of the paper.

6 Conclusions and Open Problems

In this paper we presented simple balancing algorithms for adversarial packet and flow routing in adversarial and static networks. We showed that for both ends of the spectrum (a completely unpredictable network and injection process, and a static network and injection pattern), the balancing algorithms can compete with best possible off-line strategies.

Many open questions remain. The most important is: does our model also allow stability in the case of multiple receivers? How does the balancing algorithm have to look like in this case? How do fixpoints look in this case, if there are any? How good can the average delay of packets be compared to best possible off-line strategies? Also for the case of a single destination there are several questions left. For instance, is the (σ, Δ)-balancing algorithm stable for any $\Delta \geq B$, or even for any $\Delta > 0$? How much time does it take to move from one fixpoint to another if the injection is changed from one static process to another? Are there good parameters for describing this effect?

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