Interference-Resilient Information Exchange

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Abstract—This paper presents an efficient protocol to reliably exchange information in a single-hop radio network with unpredictable interference. The devices can access C communication channels. We model the interference with an adversary that can disrupt up to t of these channels simultaneously. We assume no shared secret keys or third-party infrastructure. The running time of our protocol decreases as the gap between C and t increases. Two extreme cases prove particularly interesting: The running time is linear when the number of channels $C = \Omega(t^2)$, and exponential when only C = t + 1 channels are available. We prove that exponential-time is unavoidable in the latter case.

At the core of our protocol lies a combinatorial function, of independent interest, and described for the first time in this paper: the *multi-selector*. This function determines a sequence of device channel assignments such that every sufficiently large subset of devices is partitioned, by at least one of these assignments, onto distinct channels.

Keywords: radio networks, wireless networks, jamming, information exchange, multi-selectors, combinatorial data structures.

I. Introduction

We study the problem of reliable information exchange in a multi-channel single-hop radio network subject to unpredictable interference. Each node begins the execution with a value that it wants to distribute to everyone else; the goal is for as many nodes as possible to learn as much information as possible. This problem is at the core of many distributed applications, including: sensor data aggregation, distributed data storage, fault-tolerant agreement, group membership, and mobile location services.

As practitioners readily admit, reliably exchanging information is challenging in the context of radio networks. This holds especially true for devices operating on the increasingly crowded unlicensed bands of the radio spectrum. In this setting, devices must tolerate unpredictable and perhaps even *adversarial* interference from sources as diverse as the electromagnetic radiation of nearby microwaves, to nearby devices running unrelated protocols, to any combination of fading, multi-path, or shadowing effects that can render a once reliable channel unreliable, to actual malcontents armed with signal jammers. Shared secrets can be used to perform pseudorandom frequency hopping in this environment, as in Bluetooth

[1], but the establishment of such secrets can be problematic in certain settings. We seek solutions that do not assume such secrecy.

We model disruption with an adaptive adversary. We assume that it knows, in each round, which channels are used for communication, and it can disrupt up to t among the C channels per round. This adversary is a useful modeling convention: it does not necessarily describe an actual malicious entity. It provides a powerful abstraction for modeling a diversity of different unpredictable interference sources.² Our assumption that this abstract adversary knows which channels are used can be read at least three different ways. First, this captures the worst-case disruption. A protocol that tolerates such an adversary will work under any disruption patterns—a desirable property for mission critical scenarios. Second, it is possible that the source of disruption is a collection of formerly honest devices suffering from faults. These faulty devices could share the secrets of the non-faulty devices, rendering random choices non-random. Third, it can capture a collection of up to t actual malicious devices that can scan the C channels quickly to see which are in use but then each only have time to disrupt one. (This assumes it takes longer to disrupt than to listen due to the need to overcome error correction.)³

It is easy to see that, against such a strong adversary, reliable communication requires the simultaneous use of more channels than can be disrupted (C>t). Imagine, for example, that we identify a sequence of channel assignments that guarantees the following: for every subset of t+1 processes, there exists an element of the sequence that assigns all t+1 nodes to distinct channels. If we use this channel assignment, then we know that at most t nodes can be consistently disrupted, as

¹Elsewhere, the problem of information exchange is occasionally referred to as *gossip*. Sometimes, however, the term *gossip* refers to a specific randomized epidemic approach for disseminating information. Hence, to avoid confusion, we use the term *information exchange*.

²We did not want to constrain ourselves to more restricted interference patterns—eg., random interference—as real world interference is often much less well-behaved. An arbitrary adversary captures almost any possible interference a device might encounter—from actual jammers to unexpected path fading—in the chaos of real radio communication.

 $^{^3}$ By contrast, if we assume the adversary cannot discover which channel is in use until after the transmission is complete, then there is a relatively simple randomized protocol with polynomial time complexity: each device is allocated a separate "epoch" in which to distribute its data. In each round of the epoch, the designated device chooses a random channel on which to transmit; all other devices listen on a randomly chosen channel. It is easy to see that if C channels are available, at least one of which the adversary cannot block, then within $O(C^2 \log n)$ time, with high probability, every device has received the data. The devices then all proceed to the next epoch. See [2] for more on randomized protocols for a weak adversary.

all groups of size t+1 would have been on t+1 distinct channels during at least one round, preventing all from being disrupted. The paper shows how to solve this *simultaneous* selection problem using multi-selectors and generalized multi-selectors, two new combinatorial constructions that generalizes the classical notion of selectors (classical mathematical tools used for fault-free radio communication, e.g., [3], [4]) in a non-trivial fashion. We show that there exist efficient multi-selectors and generalized multi-selectors and that, for certain important cases, these combinatorial objects are polynomial in length. Moreover, for these important cases, we present a method for constructing polynomial length multi-selectors using hash functions. We use these tools at the core of our information exchange protocol.

Interestingly, in addition to avoiding adversarial disruption, we also make use of multi-selectors in our protocol to adaptively prevent contention, i.e., when more than one node transmits at the same time on the same channel, there is a collision and no messages are delivered. The classical oblivious solution is to determine the transmission schedule in advance, thereby ensuring that there are no collisions. Unfortunately, as was shown in [5], such an oblivious strategy is necessarily exponential in t. We therefore consider adaptive strategies where the nodes dynamically determine their transmission schedule as the execution proceeds. Of course, the adversary can prevent the nodes from maintaining a synchronized view of the world: by preventing some nodes from communicating or receiving information, the adversary can ensure that different nodes have a different view of the current situation; these differing views can result in further disturbances and delays. An important use of multi-selectors is in ensuring that the views do not diverge too much; other protocolic tools underlying our protocol ensure that, despite these differing views, the nodes continue to make progress and avoid contention.

We now summarize the performance of our protocol, which executes in three different regimes, based on the number t of channels that the adversary can disrupt out of the total number C of available channels. (Table 1 summarizes the performance in more details.)

- 1) When the adversary can block no more than (approximately) \sqrt{C} of the channels, the protocol has a linear O(n) time.
- 2) When the adversary can block t=C-1 channels, leaving only one channel free for communication, the protocol is exponential in t. We derive from a lower bound on *multi-selectors* (using Stirling's approximation) a proof that when t=C-1, every information exchange protocol requires exponential time.
- 3) In the intermediate cases where $\sqrt{C} < t < C 1$, we show how the running times increases as the number of disrupted channels increases.

A. Roadmap

In the remainder of this section, we present the basic communication model (Section I-B), we describe the problem of information exchange (Section I-C), and we discuss some related work (Section I-D). In Section II, we introduce the idea of multiselectors. In Section III, we present our basic algorithm for exchanging information, and show that it is efficient in the case where $C=\Omega(t^2)$. In Section IV, we show how to modify the protocol for the case where not as many channels are available. We also show a lower bound in the case where t=C-1. Finally, we conclude with some open question in Section V. For proofs omitted due to space, see the full version of the paper [6].

B. Basic Model

We consider a set of n deterministic nodes $P = \{p_1, \ldots, p_n\}$. Nodes communicate via a synchronous single-hop radio network with multiple-access channels (MAC). In each round, each node chooses a single channel $x \in \{1, \ldots, C\}$ and either transmits or listens on channel x. If exactly one node transmits on channel x, then every node listening on x receives that message. Otherwise, the listening nodes receive nothing. We do not assume any collision detection.

The network is subject to *malicious* interference that can prevent communication. We assume an adversary that can disrupt up to t channels in each round. When the adversary chooses to disrupt some channel $x \in \{1, \ldots, C\}$, none of the nodes listening on channel x receive a message. Throughout this paper, we assume that t is polynomially smaller than n, that is, for some $\epsilon < 1/6$, $t = o(n^{\epsilon})$. In real networks, the number of nodes tends to be much larger than the number of channels; thus since we assume that t < C, it is not unrealistic to assume that n is significantly larger than t.

C. Basic Problem

We study the fundamental problem of information exchange: the nodes are initialized with values $\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}$. Each node attempts to learn as many values as possible. For $t\geq 1$, it is impossible for *all* the nodes to learn *all* the values. To see why, consider the case where the adversary disrupts all communication by nodes in some subset P' of t different nodes. (The adversary can accomplish this disruption since it can block t channels in each round.) In this case, for each $p_i \in P'$, no other node ever learns value v_i , and no node in P' ever learns any value other than its own. Thus, the best we can hope to achieve is (n-t)-to-(n-t) information exchange: eventually, all but t nodes learn all but t values. We call this variant: almost-complete information exchange. This variant is solvable provided t < C.

D. Related Work

Selectors: Selectors were introduced by Komlos and Greenberg [3], and have been widely studied, particularly in the context of group property testing and radio networks [4], [7]–[9]. Given a set $S \subseteq P$, a set S' is said to select an element $i \in P$ if $S \cap S' = \{i\}$. A k-selector is a sequence of sets S_1, \ldots, S_m where for each set S of size k, at least 1 of the elements in S is selected by some set S_i . A multi-selector generalizes a selector in that it simultaneously selects a set of elements. We come back to this notion later in the paper.

Radio Networks: A lot of research has been devoted to information exchange in the context of single-channel, fault-free radio networks (e.g., [3], [10]–[18]), particularly with respect to channel contention. There are also several papers on communicating on a multiple-access channel subject to dynamic arrival, either modeled by an adversarial queuing framework (e.g., [19]) or by stochastic distributions (e.g., [20]). Another area of interest has been the *capacity* of wireless networks (e.g., [21], [22]) and multi-channel wireless networks (e.g., [23]–[25]).

Recently, there has been some interest in tolerating *crash* failures in radio networks (e.g., [26]–[28]). There has also been work on *Byzantine-resilient* broadcast in radio networks [29], [30]; however, in these papers, the adversary cannot disrupt communication. When adversarial disruption is possible, two common approaches are considered. The first assumes that messages may be corrupted *at random* (e.g., [31]); the second bounds the number of messages that the adversary can transmit or disrupt, due, for example, to a limited energy budget (e.g., [32], [33]).

Unreliable Multi-Channel Radio Networks: To avoid disruption, some systems used shared "secrets" to perform pseudo-random frequency hopping (e.g., Bluetooth [1]). It is often unreasonable, however, to assume the existence of shared secrets for all possible sets of wireless devices that may eventually want to communicate.

The present paper, along with [2], [5], are the first, to our knowledge, to consider multi-channel networks subject to malicious disruption in which nodes do not possess a priori shared secrets. Dolev et al. [5] consider oblivious (non-adaptive) protocols. They prove, for the special case of t=1, a tight bound for information exchange of $\Theta(n^2/C^2)$. They extend their protocol for general t, achieving running time $O((en/t)^{t+1})$. In this paper, we use multi-selectors to produce adaptive strategies that outperform the optimal oblivious solutions in [5].

In [2], Dolev et al. consider a weak adversary that cannot determine on which channel a node is broadcasting until the broadcast is complete. Thus, the focus is on randomized algorithms. In this paper we consider deterministic protocols, and we assume that the adversary can always determine which channels are in use.

II. Simultaneous Selection

We now introduce *multi-selectors*, a combinatorial tool that captures the idea of simultaneous selection, generalizing the classical notion of *selectors* [3], [4]. We provide upper and lower bounds on the size of a multi-selector.

A. Definitions

We first define a multi-selector that selects exactly one set of size k simultaneously:

Definition 1. An (n,c,k)-multi-selector, where $n \ge c \ge k \ge 1$, is a sequence of functions M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_m from $P \to [1,c]$ such that:

For every subset $S \subseteq P$ where |S| = k, there exists some $\ell \in [1, m]$ such that M_{ℓ} maps each element in S to a unique value in [1, c].

We say that such a multi-selector has size m. A generalized multi-selector selects many sets of size k simultaneously; it generalizes both selectors and multi-selectors:

Definition 2. A generalized (n,c,k,r)-multi-selector, where $n \ge c \ge k \ge 1$ and $n \ge r$, is a sequence of functions M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_m from $P \to [0, c]$ such that:

For every subset $S \subseteq P$ where |S| = r, for every subset $S' \subseteq S$ where |S'| = k, there exists some $\ell \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ such that (1) M_{ℓ} maps each element in S' to a unique value in $\{1, \ldots, c\}$, and (2) M_{ℓ} maps each element in $S \setminus S'$ to 0.

B. Upper Bound

We now show that there exist (n, c, k)-multi-selectors and determine their size. The proof is non-constructive, and relies on the probabilistic method.

Theorem 1. For every $n \ge c \ge k$, there exists an (n, c, k)-multi-selector of size:

$$\begin{aligned} c &= k & : & \frac{ke^c}{\sqrt{2\pi c}} \ln \frac{en}{k} \\ c/2 &< k < c & : & ke^k \ln \frac{en}{k} \\ k &\leq c/2 & : & k2^{2k^2/c} \ln \frac{en}{k} \end{aligned}$$

Proof: We include here the proof for the case where $k \le c/2$; the other cases are similar and can be found in the full version of the paper [6]. Let $m = k2^{2k^2/c} \ln \frac{en}{k}$, the desired bound.

For each M_ℓ , for each $i \in P$, choose $M_\ell(i)$ at random from [1,c]. We show that with some probability >0, M is an (n,c,k)-multi-selector. Fix an arbitrary set $S \subseteq P$ where |S|=k. Consider a particular M_ℓ . We calculate the probability that each element of S is assigned a unique element in [1,c]. Since there are $\binom{c}{k}k!$ good mappings from k elements to [1,c], and c^k total mappings of k elements to [1,c] sets, we conclude that:

$$\Pr\left\{S \text{ is uniquely mapped}\right\} = \frac{\binom{c}{k}k!}{c^k} = \frac{c!}{(c-k)!c^k}.$$

Since $k \le c/2$ we get the following estimate which we denote as q:

$$\Pr\left\{S \text{ is uniquely mapped}\right\} \geq \left(\frac{c-k}{c}\right)^k \geq 4^{-k^2/c} = q \ .$$

The probability that S is not well-mapped for all M_ℓ is at most $(1-q)^m$. Since $m=q^{-1}\cdot k\ln\frac{en}{k}$, the probability that S is not well-mapped for all M_ℓ is at most $e^{-k\ln\frac{en}{k}} \leq \left(\frac{k}{en}\right)^k$. Since there are only $\binom{n}{k} < \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$ possible subsets S of size k, we argue (by a union bound) that the probability of some S being incorrectly mapped by all M_ℓ is at most $\binom{n}{k} \cdot \left(\frac{k}{en}\right)^k$, which is smaller than 1, implying the conclusion.

If c is sufficiently larger than k, there are efficient (n,c,k)-multi-selectors:

Corollary 2. For every $n \ge c \ge k^2$, there exists an (n, c, k)-multi-selector of size $O(k \log(n/k))$.

The same argument extends to bound the size of generalized multi-selectors:

Theorem 3. For every $n \ge r \ge c \ge k$ where $n \ge 2r$, there exists (n,c,k,r)-multi-selectors of size $O\left(r\frac{(c+1)^r e^k}{k^k}\log\left(en/r\right)\right)$ or $O\left(r\frac{(c+1)^r}{(c-k)^k}\log\left(en/r\right)\right)$.

The proof can be found in the full version of the paper [6].

C. Constructing Multi-Selectors

There exists a connection between good hash functions and multi-selectors when $k^2 < c$. (In general, however, for other values of k and c, it is not immediately clear how multi-selectors relate to hash functions.) We discuss some of these connections and derive some multi-selector constructions.

First, we show how to use a universal family of hash functions to construct a (n,c,k)-multi-selector. A (two)-universal family of hash functions is a set of functions from universe P to some domain $\{1,\ldots,c\}$ such that for each pair $x,y\in P$, at least a (1-1/n) fraction of the hash functions map x and y to a unique value. Carter et al. [34] present such a family of size $\Theta(n^2)$. This family of hash functions is also an (n,c,k)-multi-selector, for any $k<\sqrt{c}$: consider some set S of k elements; for each of the $O(k^2)=O(c)$ pairs, there are $\leq n$ hash functions that collide; thus there are at most $O(cn)< O(n^2)$ hash functions for which elements of S collide. The resulting multi-selector is of size $O(n^2)$.

We now derive a more efficient construction. Assume that c is sufficiently large such that there exist $p_1,\ldots,p_{\Theta(k^2\log n)}$, a set of $\Theta(k^2\log n)$ distinct primes less than c. Fix a set $S\subseteq P$ of size k. For every pair $x,y\in S$, there are at most $\log n$ primes p_i such that $x=y\mod p_i$. Thus there is some prime p_i such that none of the $\Theta(k^2)$ pairs in S collide. This results in an (n,c,k)-multi-selector of size $O(k^2\log n)$.

If $k^2 = c$ then there are not a sufficient number of primes $\leq c$; the two techniques can be combined. The second technique reduces the channel range to $O(k^2 \log^2 n)$ (using the Prime Number Theorem to demonstrate sufficient prime numbers) using $O(k^2 \log n)$ mappings; the two-universal hash family of [34] reduces the channel range to c, multiplying each mapping by $O(k^4 \log^4 n)$. From this we conclude:

Theorem 4. For every $n > c > k^2$, we can construct a (n, c, k)-multi-selector of size $O(k^6 \log^5 n)$.

It is also possible to construct multi-selectors using selectors. The resulting construction is not particularly efficient, but illustrates a connection between selectors and multi-selectors. The following theorem can be found in the full version of the paper [6]:

Theorem 5. For every n, c, k, there exists a construction of a (n, c, k)-multi-selector of size $O(k^k \log^k n)$.

D. Lower Bound

In this section, we prove a lower bound on the size of an (n, c, k)-multi-selector.

Theorem 6. For some m > 0, let $M = M_1, ..., M_m$ be an (n, c, k)-multi-selector where $n \ge 2c$ and $c \ge k$. Then M has size at least:

$$c = k : \frac{2^{c}}{4\sqrt{2\pi c}}$$

$$c/2 < k < c : e^{k \ln \frac{c}{c-k} - k^2/n} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n(c-k)}}{4\sqrt{c(n-k)}}$$

$$k \le c/2 : e^{k^2/c - k^2/n} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n(c-k)}}{4\sqrt{c(n-k)}}$$

Proof: We consider the case where k=c; for the remaining cases, see the full version of the paper [6]. We begin by choosing a subset $S\subseteq P$ of size c at random. We calculate the probability that S is correctly mapped by some M_ℓ . We show that if $m<\frac{2^c}{4\sqrt{2\pi c}}$, then this probability is smaller than one, thus the probability that a random set S violates the definition of multi-selector M is positive. By the probabilistic argument, such a set S exists, which contradicts that M is an (n,c,k)-multi-selector.

Fix some $\ell \in [1,m]$, and define $S_d = \{i: M_\ell(i) = d\}$, that is, the subset of P that M_ℓ maps to d. To calculate the probability that M_ℓ correctly maps each element of S to a unique element of [1,c], we first approximate the number of subsets of P that are correctly mapped by $M_\ell\colon \prod_{d=1}^c |S_d| \le (n/c)^c$. (The inequality follows from the relationship between the arithmetic and geometric means.) Since there are $\binom{n}{c}$ sets of size c, and since $(n-c) \ge n/2$, we conclude (via Stirling's approximation) that the probability that S is correctly mapped by M_ℓ is at most

$$\frac{n^{c}}{c^{c}\binom{n}{c}} \le \frac{n^{c}}{\frac{n^{n}}{(n-c)^{n-c} \cdot 4\sqrt{2\pi c}}} = \frac{4\sqrt{2\pi c}}{\left(\frac{n}{n-c}\right)^{n-c}} \le \frac{4\sqrt{2\pi c}}{2^{c}} .$$

Thus, the probability that S is correctly mapped by any of the m functions is at most $m \cdot 4\sqrt{2\pi}c2^{-c}$ (by a union bound). If $m < \frac{2^c}{4\sqrt{2\pi}c}$, then with positive probability the set S is not correctly mapped by any of the M_ℓ , resulting in a contradiction.

III. Reliable Information Exchange

We now present our protocol for solving the problem of reliable information exchange. In this section, we assume that $C\gg t$, specifically $C=\Theta(t^2)$. In Section IV, we show how to adapt this protocol to the case where C=t+1, and conclude with a discussion of the remaining cases.

The protocol adaptively chooses a set of nodes to transmit in each round based on which nodes have already succeeded in a previous round. Adapting to the past proves challenging as nodes do not share a uniform view: a node does not know *a priori* which transmissions succeeded, unless it was listening on that channel. Our protocol circumvents this challenge by

Figure 1: Information exchange routine for node p_i .

```
InfoExchange()_i

L \leftarrow a partition of the set \{1,\ldots,c^2\} into c sets of size c.

for e=1 to |E| do // First set of epochs:

knowledgeable \leftarrow \mathsf{Epoch}(L,knowledgeable,E[e])_i

L \leftarrow a partition of the set \{c^2+1,\ldots,2c^2\} into c sets of size c.

for e=1 to |E| do // Second set of epochs:

knowledgeable \leftarrow \mathsf{Epoch}(L,knowledgeable,E[e])_i

// Lastly, do the special epoch which attempts to transmit the final \leq 4t values.

Special-Epoch(knowledgeable)_i
```

using a (n,c,t+1)-multi-selector to ensure that *almost* all the nodes have the same view. nodes use the multi-selector to guide their channel selection when attempting to receive updates on the system state. Because it guarantees the simultaneous selection of any subset of size t+1, it follows that for any group of size t+1 nodes, there exists a round during which these nodes are listening on different channels. Therefore, at most t total can be kept ignorant by the adversary. This bound on ignorance allows efficient and consistent adaptation.

Preliminaries: For the remainder of this section, we fix the constant $c=(5t+1)^2$. Of the C available channels, our protocol will use exactly c. Recall here that n is assumed to be large compared to t, specifically, that $t=o(n^{\epsilon})$ for some $\epsilon<1/6$. It follows: (a) $n\geq c^2(5t+1)+5t$; and (b) $n\geq c^2t+c$.

We refer to values as either *complete* or *incomplete*. Initially, each value is *incomplete*; when a value is received by at least n-t nodes, it is designated as *complete*; the node at which it originated is said to have *completed*. We use the notation S[k] to refer to the k^{th} value in a set S under some fixed ordering. When given a set S comprised of sets, we use S[j][k] to refer to the k^{th} value of the j^{th} set also under some fixed orderings.

Information Exchange: The main routine for the information exchange protocol is in Figure 1. It consists of two parts, each consisting of a set of *epochs*. In each part, a set of *listeners* is chosen, and they facilitate the dissemination of incomplete values. The listeners' own initial values are not disseminated, however, as they are busy listening; hence each part chooses a disjoint set of listeners: $\{p_1,\ldots,p_{c^2}\}$ in the first part, and $\{p_{c^2+1},\ldots,p_{2c^2}\}$ in the second part. Each part ensures that there are at most 2t non-listener values that remain incomplete. Thus, after the two parts, at most 4t values are left incomplete in total. The final call to Special-Epoch reduces the number of incomplete values from 4t to t, as required.

The function E(r) bounds the length of epoch r and the number of epochs. We define it recursively. Let $E(1) = \lceil n/c \rceil$. For all r > 1, let $E(r) = \left\lceil \frac{2t \cdot E(r-1)}{c} \right\rceil$. The sequence terminates when E(r) = 1. Notice that $|E| = O(\log n)$ and $\sum E = O(n/c)$.

Epochs: In each call to Epoch, some set of incomplete values are *completed*; i.e., disseminated to at least n-t nodes. At the end of an epoch, each node is designated as

knowledgeable or unknowledgeable based on the outcome of the epoch: a knowledgeable node knows the results of all preceding epochs, including the current set of completed values; an unknowledgeable node does not have this information.

The epoch pseudocode is in Figure 2. For each epoch, we are given (1) a set of listeners L, (2) a flag knowledgeable, indicating the status of node i, and (3) a number rnds indicating the length of the aggregation phase. We conclude:

Lemma 7. If some epoch begins with s incomplete nodes in the set $P \setminus L$, then at the end of the epoch, there are at most 2t|s/c| incomplete nodes in $P \setminus L$.

Aggregation: In the first phase of an epoch (lines 2–9), values are transmitted to the listeners in the set L. Let S be the set of nodes that have not yet completed. The set S is divided into subsets of size c, each of which is scheduled to transmit in one of the subsequent $\lfloor |S|/c \rfloor$ rounds. Only knowledgeable nodes can calculate S; thus only nodes that are both knowledgeable and incomplete transmit.

Throughout, c listeners are scheduled to listen on each channel. In each of these rounds, the adversary can block up to t; moreover, up to t of the nodes "scheduled" to transmit in a round may in fact be unknowledgeable and hence not transmit. Thus, in each round, at most 2t values are not successfully received by the listeners. By the end of the aggregation phase, only 2t |S|/c values remain incomplete.

Dissemination: In the second phase of an epoch, the listeners disseminate their information. The pseudocode for Disseminate is in Figure 3. The disseminate routine ensures:

Lemma 8. If some value v is known to a set of listeners when the disseminate routine begins, then the value is complete at the end of the disseminate routine.

In Part 1 (lines 3–9), each of the c sets of c listeners attempts to disseminate its set of values. For each set (lines 5–9), each of the c listeners in the set transmits continually on a unique channel (line 7). An (n,c,t+1)-multi-selector M is used to schedule the non-listener nodes (line 8). While the listeners are broadcasting, the non-listeners choose which channel to receive on according to M. This ensures that for any set of t+1 non-listeners, there is some round in which they are all receiving simultaneously on different channels. As a result, at

Figure 2: Epoch routine for node p_i .

```
Epoch(L, knowledgeable, rnds)_i

S \leftarrow \emptyset

if knowledgeable = true then

let S be the set of processes that are not in L and not completed.

Partition S into \lceil |S|/c \rceil sets of size c.

for r=1 to rnds do

if (knowledgeable = true) and (r \leq \lceil |S|/c \rceil) then

if \exists k \in \{1, ..., c\} : i = S[r][k] then schedule i to transmit on channel k.

if \exists k \in \{1, ..., c\} : i \in L[k] then schedule i to receive on channel k.

knowledgeable \leftarrow \text{Disseminate}(L[1], ..., L[c])_i

return knowledgeable
```

Figure 3: Disseminate routine for node p_i .

```
Disseminate (L[1], \ldots, L[c])_i
     let M be a (n, c, t + 1)-multiselector.
      // Part 1: Ensure that for each listener group, all but some set of t processes receive its value set.
      knowledgeable \leftarrow true
     for k = 1 to c do
         for each round r = 1 to |M|
             if \exists j \in \{1, ..., c\} : i = L[k][j] schedule i to transmit on channel j.
             if i \notin L[k] then schedule i to receive on channel M_r(i).
         if i does not receive a message in any of the |M| rounds then knowledgeable \leftarrow false.
10
      // Part 2: Ensure that all but some set of t processes receive all the value sets from all the listener groups.
11
      L' \leftarrow an arbitrary subset of \{1, \ldots, n\} of size c(ct+1).
12
     Partition L' into ct + 1 sets L'[1], \ldots, L'[ct + 1] of size c
13
     for each s = 1 to ct + 1 do
14
         for each r=1 to |M| do
15
             if \exists j \in \{1,...,c\} : i = L'[s][j] schedule i to transmit on channel j
16
             if i \notin L'[s] then schedule i to receive on channel M_r(i).
17
         if i receives a message in any of the |M| rounds from a node with knowledgeable = true then
18
             knowledgeable \leftarrow \mathbf{true}
19
      return knowledgeable
```

most t can be disrupted by the adversary. Since there are c sets of listeners, this results in at most ct nodes that do not receive a value from $all\ c$ sets of listeners.

In Part 2 (lines 11–19), we select a larger set of c(ct+1) nodes, which we partition into sets of size c. (Recall that $n \geq c(ct+1)$.) At least one of these ct+1 partitions consists only of nodes that have received a message from all c sets of listeners in Part 1. Thus, all the nodes in the set know all the values known to all the sets of listeners. As before, each of these sets transmits its information to the remaining nodes in such a way that at most t nodes can fail to learn these values.

Special Epoch: In order to transmit the remaining values, we execute a special epoch. The pseudocode for Special-Epoch is in Figure 4. The special epoch operates somewhat differently, as there are very few values left to transmit. As before, we use listeners to collect the values; we need to choose a set of listeners that have already completed. Recall, up to 4t values may be incomplete after the two sets of epochs. An additional t nodes might be complete but not aware of it because they are unknowledgeable. This leaves at most 5t

nodes that are not complete and knowledgeable. We refer to these as special nodes. We choose a set of $c^2(5t+1)$ possible listeners, and divide them into 5t+1 sets of size c^2 ; at least one of these sets contains only nodes that are complete and knowledgeable. We use a (n,c,5t)-multi-selector to ensure that in some round, each of the $k \leq 5t$ special nodes is assigned to a different channel to transmit; at most t can be blocked. Dissemination proceeds as before.

Performance: Each epoch e spends E(e) rounds during the aggregation phase, resulting in O(n/c) rounds of aggregation. Each epoch e performs c|M|+(ct+1)|M| rounds of dissemination. By Corollary 2, we conclude that $|M|=O((t+1)\log n/(t+1));$ and thus during $O(\log n)$ epochs, there are $O(ct^2\log^2 n)$ rounds of dissemination. Finally, we observe that the special epoch aggregation has running time (5t+1)|M| where M is a multi-selector of size at most $O(t\log n/(5t))$ (again by Corollary 2). Thus the special epoch has round complexity $O(t^2\log n/t)$, along with O(t) disseminations. Summing these costs and substituting in for $c=O(t^2)$ and $t=o(n^{1/6})$, we conclude that:

Figure 4: Special Epoch routine for node p_i .

```
Special-Epoch(knowledgeable)<sub>i</sub>
     let M be an (n, c, 5t)-multiselector.
      special \leftarrow \mathbf{false}
     if (knowledgeable = false) or (i \text{ has not completed}) then special \leftarrow true
     if knowledgeable = true then
          L \leftarrow \text{set of } c^2(5t+1) smallest processes that have completed in a previous epoch.
         Partition L into (5t+1) sets L_1, \ldots, L_{t+1} of size c^2.
         Partition each L_k into c sets L_k[1], \ldots, L_k[c] of size c.
     for s = 1 to 5t + 1 do
         for r=1 to |M| do
10
             if special = true then schedule i to transmit on channel M_r(i)
11
             if \exists k : i \in L_s[k] then schedule i to receive on channel k.
12
         Disseminate (L_s[1], \ldots, L_s[c])_i
```

Theorem 9. Within O(n) rounds, all but t values are complete. More precisely, the information exchange protocol has round complexity $O(n/t^2 + t^5 \log^2 n)$.

IV. Limiting the Number of Channels

We consider here the case where there are fewer than t^2 channels available. We first describe how to adapt the protocol of Section III to the setting where C=t+1, the minimal number of channels for which information exchange is feasible. We then present a lower bound showing that the time complexity is inherently exponential in t. Finally, we briefly discuss the intermediate cases where $t+1 < C < \Theta(t)^2$.

A. Protocol Description

In this section, we modify the information exchange routine to use only C=t+1 channels. The disseminate protocol (Section III) can be used without modification. We replace, however, Epoch and Special-Epoch with Limited-Epoch (Figure 5) and Limited-Special-Epoch (Figure 6), respectively.

The key problem addressed is as follows: since only t+1channels are available, if any of the t+1 nodes scheduled in a round are unknowledgeable and therefore choose not to transmit, then the adversary can disrupt all $\leq t$ nodes that do broadcast. In order to circumvent this problem, we use a (n, C, C, 2t + 1)-generalized-multi-selector in the aggregation phase of Limited-Epoch, nodes know at the beginning of a round if they are scheduled or if they are unknowledgeable. Such nodes will attempt to transmit according to the schedule described by the generalized multi-selector. The multi-selector guarantees that one of the rounds will simultaneously select the t+1 nodes that are actually scheduled to transmit during this round of the epoch, some of which might be unknowledgeable. From this we conclude that at least 1 incomplete value is transmitted to the listeners for each round of the schedule. The function E is redefined as follows: for r > 1, $E(r) = \lceil \frac{E(r-1)t}{C} \rceil$. In this case, Limited-Special-Epoch only has to cope with at most 3t "special" nodes—t from each set of epochs, and as many as t additional unknowledgeable nodes. A (n, C, C, 3t)-generalized-multi-selector is used to ensure that all subsets of size t+1 of these (no more than) 3t special nodes get an opportunity to transmit concurrently.

Performance: The total running time of the aggregation phases is now $O(n|M_a|)$, where $|M_a| = O((2t+1)(C+1)^{2t+1}\log n/(2t+1))$ by Theorem 3 and the fact that e < t+1. Dissemination has running time $(Ct+1)|M_d|$, where in this case $|M_d| = O((t+1)e^{t+1}\log n/(t+1))$ by Theorem 1; the number of disseminations is bounded by n/t. Finally, the special epoch costs a factor of O(t) more than a regular epoch. We conclude that the total running time when C = t+1 is

$$O\left(\left[n^3 + (t+2)^{3(t+1)}\right] \cdot \log \frac{n}{2t+1}\right),$$

yielding:

Theorem 10. When C = t + 1, the information exchange protocol terminates in time:

$$O\left(t(c+1)^{2t+1}\log\frac{n}{2t+1}\left[n+t(c+1)^{t-1}\right]\right)$$
.

B. Lower Bound

In this section, we show that if C = t + 1, every information exchange protocol is exponential in t.

Theorem 11. Every almost-complete information exchange protocol where C=t+1 requires at least time $\Omega(2^{t+1}/\sqrt{t+1})$.

Proof: Consider a protocol that solves almost-complete information exchange in m rounds. We construct a (n,C,t+1)-multi-selector of length m, and invoke Theorem 6 to conclude the proof. We construct the multi-selector by simulating the information exchange protocol in each round:

- Every node that is scheduled to listen is simulated as if it receives no messages in that round (as if the adversary had disrupted the channel).
- Every node that is scheduled to transmit on some channel is simulated as if it transmits its message.

(Notice, the resulting simulation might violate our model assumptions by allowing more than t channels to be disrupted.) For each round r of this simulated execution, we construct M_r as follows: if a node i listens on channel k, then $M_r(i) \leftarrow k$; otherwise, if node i does not listen on any channel (either

because it transmits or because it does nothing), then M_r maps i to 1, a default.

We argue that M is a (n,C,t+1)-multi-selector. Assume for the sake of contradiction that it is not. Then, for some set S of size t+1, no M_ℓ maps S to unique channels. We now construct a new execution. This the time the adversary always and only disrupts the channels occupied by nodes in S. To the nodes in S this execution looks indistinguishable from our original simulated execution (in both, they receive nothing in all rounds). Therefore, they behave the same: never occupying more than t channels. It follows that the adversary never has to disrupt more than t channels per round in this second simulation, meaning that it is legal. This legal execution cannot solve almost-complete information exchange because none of the t+1 nodes in S ever receive a message. This contradicts the assumption that the protocol under consideration solves the problem in m rounds.

We can therefore return to original contradiction assumption, and conclude that M is indeed a (n,C,t+1)-multiselector. The bound follows from applying Theorem 6 with C=t+1.

C. Generalizing the Number of Channels

We have discussed the case where $C=\Theta(t^2)$ and the case where C=t+1. We briefly addresses the performance of information exchange for intermediate values of C; running times are summarized in Table 1. When C<2t+1, the aggregation phase requires generalized multi-selectors as in Limited-Epoch. It follows that the running time does not differ significantly for $t+1 \le C \le 2t+1$. For $C \ge 5t+1$, we can use the protocol described in Section III, where the multi-selectors are sized appropriately; as C grows the running time decreases, as the greater number of available channels reduces the size of the multi-selectors. For 2t+1 < C < 5t+1, we use a hybrid protocol in which Disseminate stays the same, but Special-Epoch uses generalized multi-selectors as in Limited-Special-Epoch. It is straightforward to calculate the associated running times which can be found in Table 1.

V. Open Questions

Beyond the results in this paper, we believe that multiselectors may prove to be an important tool in developing other protocols for multi-channel networks, especially given that multi-channel networks are increasingly viewed as the most promising approach for coping with malicious disruption. We expect that multi-selectors will play a key role in adapting single-channel protocols for a multi-channel environment. (This is especially the case for the large subset of singlechannel protocols that are themselves based on selectors.) Moreover, much in the way that selectors have proved useful in a variety of settings, ranging from wireless communication to group property testing, we hope that multi-selectors will find a similar wide range of applications. For example there are possible connections to renaming and k-set agreement, both of which depend on simultaneously allocating a set of scarce resources (in this case, names or decision values).

Interesting open questions include: (1) deriving better constructive bounds for multi-selectors; (2) studying other algorithmic uses of multi-selectors; (3) determining the complexity of information exchange as t approaches n; (4) studying the tradeoff between the number of channels, the resilience, and the performance in terms of different complexity measures, such as energy usage; (5) studying the capacity of a wireless network under the influence of a strong, malicious adversary.

Channels	Running time	Calculation
$C \ge (5t+1)^2$	O(n)	$O(n/c + ct M_1 \log n + ct^2 M_1 + t M_2)$
$C \ge 10t$	$O\left(n2^{\frac{2t^2}{C}} + t^2 2^{\frac{50t^2}{C}} \log n\right)$	$O(n/c + ct M_1 \log n + ct^2 M_1 + t M_2)$
$C \ge 5t$	$O\left(n2^{\frac{2t^2}{C}} + t^2e^t\log n\right)$	$O(n/c + ct M_1 \log n + ct^2 M_1 + t M_2)$
$C \ge 2t + 1$	$O\left(n2^{\frac{2t^2}{C}} + t(C+1)^{3t}e^c \log \frac{n}{5t}\right)$	$O(n/c + ct M_1 \log n + ct^2 M_1 + t M_3)$
$C \ge t + 1$	$O\left(\left[n^3 + (2t+1)(C+1)^{2(t+1)}\right]\log\frac{n}{2t+1}\right)$	$O(n M_4 + nct M_1 + ct^2 M_1 + t M_5)$

```
M_1: \quad (n,C,t+1)-multi-selector M_2: \quad (n,C,5t)-multi-selector M_3: \quad (n,C,C,5t)-multi-selector M_4: \quad (n,C,C,2t+1)-multi-selector M_5: \quad (n,C,C,3t)-multi-selector
```

TABLE I

For each value of C, there exists an protocol that runs in the specified time. The secondary table specifies the parameters of the multi-selectors. The running time is calculated by instantiating each multi-selector with the best bound presented in Section II

Figure 5: Epoch routine for node p_i where C = t + 1.

```
Limited-Epoch(L, knowledgeable, rnds)_i

let M be a (n, C, C, 2t+1)-generalized-multiselector.

S \leftarrow \emptyset

if knowledgeable = true then

Let S be the set of processes that are not in L and not completed.

Partition S into \lceil |S|/c \rceil sets of size C.

for r_1 = 1 to rnds do

if (r_1 \leq \lceil |S|/C \rceil) then

for r_2 = 1 to |M| do

if i \notin L and ((i \text{ is NOt } knowledgeable) \text{ or } (i \in S[r_1])) then schedule i to transmit on channel M_{r_2}(i).

if \exists k \in \{1, ..., C\} : i \in L[k] then schedule i to receive on channel k.

knowledgeable \leftarrow \text{Disseminate}(L[1], ..., L[C])_i

return knowledgeable
```

```
Figure 6: Special Epoch routine for node p_i where C = t + 1.
Limited-Special-Epoch(knowledgeable)<sub>i</sub>
     Let M be an (n, C, C, 3t)-multiselector
      special \leftarrow false
     if (knowledgeable = false) or (i \text{ has not completed}) then special \leftarrow true
     if knowledgeable = true then
         L \leftarrow \text{set of } c^2(3t+1) smallest processes that have completed in a previous epoch.
         Partition L into (3t+1) sets L_1, \ldots, L_{t+1} of size c^2.
         Partition each L_k into c sets L_k[1], \ldots, L_k[c] of size c.
     for s = 1 to 3t + 1 do
         for r=1 to |M| do
10
            if special = true then schedule i to transmit on channel M_r(i)
11
             if \exists k : i \in L_s[k] then schedule i to receive on channel k.
12
         Disseminate (L_s[1], \ldots, L_s[c])_i
```

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