

Tight Linear Lower Memory Bound for Local Routing in Planar Digraphs

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Abstract

Local *geometric* routing algorithms with logarithmic memory are in widespread use in modern MANETs (mobile ad hoc networks). Formally, these are algorithms executed by an agent traveling from node to node in a geometric graph, using only *local geometric information* at each node, leaving no traces and carrying $O(\log n)$ bits of memory. For the case of undirected graphs, theoretical and practical aspects of such algorithms have been extensively developed since Face Routing (FR) was proposed in 1999 for planar embedded graphs. By contrast, the corresponding problem in geometric digraphs has been relatively little studied. In CCCG'08, the author and co-authors showed a lower bound of $\Omega(n)$ bits on the memory of local geometric routing algorithms for planar embedded digraphs.

The purpose of the present paper is to show this lower bound is tight under two models: either node identifiers (possibly coordinates) are known to come from an $O(n)$ size space and no marks may be left, or else $O(\log n)$ bits suffice to identify a node (as assumed in FR) and pebbles may be left. We describe an analog to FR which under either model guarantees delivery in polynomial time in strongly connected planar embedded digraphs. In the first model, memory of $O(n)$ bits is transported, in the second $O(\log n)$ bits are transported and $O(n)$ pebbles are left. By contrast, for non-geometric algorithms of the second model a tight lower memory bound of $\Omega(n \log n)$ bits follows from work of Ilcinkas and Fraigniaud with an exponential runtime algorithm. Our work thus provides a first example confirming that geometry simplifies routing in digraphs.

1 Introduction

Face Routing (FR), proposed in a CCCG'99 paper by Kranakis, Singh and Urrutia, was the first routing algorithm to use geometric and purely local information. It guarantees delivery in time $O(n)$ for planar embedded (undirected) graphs of size n , while transporting only $O(\log n)$ bits memory¹. It opened a new era in routing at a time when both wireless ad hoc networks (where global connectivity information is not available) and

global positioning devices (which provide real-time position information) were becoming commonplace. The idea is simple: to get from node s to node t the algorithm walks one-by-one around the faces which meet the segment st , until t is reached. While only applying to graphs with no edge-crossings, the simplicity and robustness of the algorithm made it canonical and it was modified and extended in many ways so that today most practically occurring MANETs may be handled by some derivative of FR, and it remains at the base of some of the most commonly used algorithms in this class today.

By contrast very little is known for the case of geometric *directed graphs* (digraphs). In certain special cases of planar embedded digraphs, local geometric routing algorithms with logarithmic memory are known to exist: in Eulerian graphs (in which in- and out-degrees coincide and are constant) and in outerplanar graphs (in which a single face contains all vertices) [2]. But these are very restricted classes and even within the class of planar embedded digraphs there is no hope of a logarithmic memory algorithm like FR: in CCCG'08 we showed [5] there exist planar embedded digraphs in which correct local geometric routing *requires* $\Omega(n)$ bits memory. In that paper, we considered only algorithms which do not leave traces, however our proof can be adapted to cover algorithms which do leave traces, in which case the *required memory* is the combined number of pebbles and transported bits. We give the complete argument in the full version of this paper. The point is that our proof of the lower bound in [5] was based on a simulator of local geometry for a special class, \mathcal{C} , of graphs, defined by a Kolmogorov random bit string x , and this simulator can be made to reproduce pebbles as well.

The aim of the present paper is theoretical². We show the linear lower memory bound is tight under two models: either node identifiers (possibly coordinates) come from an $O(n)$ size space and no marks are left or else $O(\log n)$ bits identify a node (as assumed in FR) and marks (pebbles) may be left. We describe an analog of FR which correctly routes in all strongly connected planar embedded digraphs under these models. In the

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¹the minimal memory for a routing algorithm, if it by definition carries at least the destination ID.

²We concluded in [5] that uni-directional links should be avoided in MANETs. In fact, there is another practical issue. Unless we allow multicasting, node v will not send to node u unless it knows of u 's existence and given a uni-directional arc from v to u this is impossible to achieve directly by communication between the two nodes: nodes will not be locally aware of their downstream neighbours.

first model, memory of $O(n)$ bits is transported and no marks are left; in the second, $O(\log n)$ bits are transported and $O(n)$ pebbles are left.

We remark that a significant amount of theoretical work does exist on routing in *non-geometric* digraphs under other models. In particular the problem of directed st -connectivity is usually posed assuming a JAG model (see for example the survey article [1]). JAG's are automata working in a team and able to teleport (jump) to teammates. This is very different from our setting. An instance of our agent may not be teleported but must be *transmitted* and this is by definition only possible to direct neighbours. Our second model, however, is the geometric analog of a model considered by Ilcinkas and Fraignaud in [3]. They assume an agent which cannot jump but is able to leave pebbles at nodes and transport some memory. They show such an agent needs $\Omega(n \log d)$ bits of memory to explore a digraph with maximum out-degree d but *no vertex labeling*, even if it can use a linear amount of pebbles. Since no geometric information is present, by the adversary argument this is also a lower bound on routing (the destination would be marked instead of specified by ID). They give such an algorithm with exponential runtime. By contrast, our algorithm which has access to geometry (and hence node ID's) can successfully route in polynomial time leaving $O(n)$ pebbles and transporting $O(\log n)$ bits.

2 Directed Face Routing Algorithm

Let G be a directed graph of size n embedded in the plane. The main strategy of the algorithm is the same as that of FR:

Input: source s and destination t

Procedure:

1. Traverse anti-clockwise the face which is entered by the segment st at s .
2. If t is visited then STOP.
3. Else if a node s' such that $d(s', t) < d(s, t)$ is visited then $s \leftarrow s'$.
4. Go to step 1.

The process of traversing a face, however, is much more arduous than in the undirected case.

3 Results

Assuming either of the two models defined above, we will show:

Theorem 1 *There is a local geometric algorithm, Directed Face Traversal, which uses $O(n)$ bits memory and traverses a given face F of a strongly connected planar embedded digraph G .*

This then implies:

Corollary 2 *Directed FR is a local geometric algorithm transporting $O(n)$ bits memory which guarantees delivery in any strongly connected planar embedded digraph G .*

Indeed, using Directed Face Traversal, Directed FR is guaranteed to reach t by the usual argument: since G is embedded in the plane, when the segment st enters a face F it must meet the boundary of F again either to exit F or to arrive at t ; thus, one of the conditions in steps 2. and 3. is guaranteed to hold and either we will stop at t or the next iteration begins with a strictly reduced distance $d(s, t)$. Moreover, this local geometric algorithm transports only $O(\log n)$ bits memory of its own (to record coordinates of s and t) besides the memory of Directed Face Traversal so the over all memory requirement remains $O(n)$ bits.

Observation 1 *For simplicity, we will describe the algorithm in terms of the second model - leaving $O(1)$ pebbles per node. In the case of the first model³, we may associate $O(1)$ bits to each node using an array of total size $O(n)$ bits, and so by transporting this memory we can simulate the algorithm written for the second model.*

The rest of this paper is devoted to describing Directed Face Traversal and proving Theorem 1.

4 Terminology

First we fix some standard terminology for embedded digraphs. By *edge* we mean an edge of the undirected graph G' obtained by forgetting the directions of arcs of G . By *face* we mean a connected component of the complement of G' in the plane. A *walk* will refer to a walk of G' ; i.e., a sequence of vertices v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k such that either $v_{i-1}v_i$ or $v_i v_{i-1}$ is an arc of G for each $i : 1 \leq i \leq k$. The walk is said to be *directed* if arc orientation is respected, i.e. each $v_{i-1}v_i$ is actually an arc of G . A walk is closed if $v_0 = v_k$. The vertices of a walk may in principle coincide; we say the walk is *simple* if they do not. The fact the digraph G is *strongly connected* means that for any two nodes, s and t , there exists a directed walk starting at s and ending at t . Every face has a unique *boundary walk* starting at a vertex v on the boundary of the face, namely the closed walk consisting of the nodes

³We make two remarks. First, the assumption of $O(\log n)$ identifiers is also made in standard FR when coordinates are used as identifiers. Indeed, if nodes were arranged on the real line with exponentially increasing spacing (e.g. distance 2^k between k 'th and $k+1$ 'st nodes) then coordinates with $\Omega(n)$ bits would be needed in order to distinguish nodes; such an example is usually ruled out. Second, if either node ID's or coordinate pairs come naturally from key spaces which are large they could be hashed first; we assume we start with (possibly virtual) node ID's which are integers in a range $[0, Cn]$ for some constant C .

which are encountered when following the face boundary in its canonical boundary orientation, starting from v . This orientation is *to the left* for an observer standing within the face. Boundary walks are in general not directed walks.

Since G is embedded there is a natural cyclical ordering of edges at each vertex: draw a small circle around v , travel around it in the clockwise direction and cyclically order the edges incident at v by the cyclical order in which they are encountered. Suppose uv is an incoming arc at v then we denote by $\text{succ}(uv)$ the next outgoing arc in this cyclical ordering. Given a set M of marked vertices one may analogously define $\text{succ}_M(uv)$ as the next outgoing arc whose head belongs to M ; we assume succ_M returns NULL if there are no such outgoing arcs.

This allows one to define a walk starting from a given arc a by iteratively taking $\text{succ}(a)$. If a walk v_0, \dots, v_k is thus defined by succ_M where M is the vertex set of the walk, we say the walk is *left-free*, since the condition is equivalent to there being no edges of the walk incident on the left side of the walk. Boundary walks are always left-free (since there are no edges at all between uv and vw)⁴. Simple walks are certainly left-free.

We now introduce two notions which will simplify our discussion of face traversal.

Definition 1 A closed walk $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k = v_0$ is said to **self-cross** if some edge $v_{i-1}v_i$ is incident at $v_k = v_i$ and lies strictly to one side of the walk at v_k , while $v_i v_{i+1}$ lies strictly to the other. When a closed walk β is not self-crossing we define $\mathcal{C}(\beta)$ to be the collection of **faces it encloses**: those faces from which a curve may be traced which first meets β on the left and not the right side of β .

This is illustrated in Figure 1.

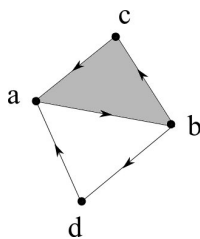


Figure 1: The shaded face is enclosed by the walk a, b, c, a . On the other hand, the walk a, b, d, a encloses a collection of two faces: the shaded one and the outer face.

Suppose β is non self-crossing and F is a face not in $\mathcal{C}(\beta)$ but *adjacent* to an edge $v_{i-1}v_i$ of β . It lies

⁴For this to hold, it is important that the cyclical ordering be done in clockwise fashion when one considers boundary walks with canonical boundary orientation.

necessarily on the right of β and when one replaces the sub-walk $v_{i-1}v_i$ of β with the remainder of the boundary walk of F (also a walk from v_{i-1} to v_i) one obtains a new non self-crossing walk β' which encloses one more face than did β . For example, in Figure 1, the unshaded triangle is a face not enclosed by a, b, c, a , and so using it we can produce the walk a, d, b, c, a which encloses both triangular faces.

Definition 2 Given a directed walk α define its **outer shell** $\text{shell}(\alpha)$ to be the (non self-crossing) closed directed walk which includes α as a sub-walk and encloses a minimal number of faces.

To see this is well-defined, suppose there are two non-identical closed directed walks $u, v, w_1, \dots, w_k = u$ and $u, v, w'_1, \dots, w'_k = u$ both enclosing a minimal number M of faces. Starting from v let the last vertex where they coincide be w_ℓ , so $w_i = w'_i$ for $i \leq \ell$ and $w_{\ell+1} \neq w'_{\ell+1}$. Now let $w_m = w'_p$ be the first vertices which coincide for $m, p > \ell$. We then have two directed walks from $w_\ell = w'_\ell$ to $w_m = w'_p$ which meet only at their endpoints: $w_\ell, w_{\ell+1}, \dots, w_m$ and $w'_\ell, w'_{\ell+1}, \dots, w'_p$. By replacing one sub-walk with the other we can obtain a closed directed walk which includes u, v and encloses fewer than M faces, a contradiction.

5 Directed Face Traversal Algorithm

Idea The idea of this algorithm is to traverse the face boundary β until an opposing arc a is encountered, say at vertex v , and then to traverse the outer shell σ of the arc a (or the outer shell of a longer directed walk ending in a). This shell traversal cannot in general be done in one iteration, rather our algorithm will on the i 'th iteration produce a non self-crossing directed closed walk δ_i such that $\mathcal{C}(\delta_i) \subset \mathcal{C}(\sigma)$ and such that $\mathcal{C}(\delta_i) \subsetneq \mathcal{C}(\delta_{i+1})$. Eventually therefore we must have $\delta = \sigma$. Suppose this walk starts and ends at the head of a . We now use, as an exit from this area, the outgoing arc uv whose tail (on σ) most closely precedes v (in the order on σ) such that there are no outgoing arcs on the right of σ between uv at u and the incoming arc at v and thus we know that this part of σ (which includes a) is part of the face boundary β which we seek. And then we continue. This process must terminate since we always increase the visited portion of β .

5.1 Internal memory

Under the first model, the algorithm stores three binary arrays of size $O(n)$:

INNER[], OUTER[], and MID[],

all initialized to zero. Under the second model it uses pebbles of types INNER, OUTER, MID. In

both models, it also records three node identifiers: JOIN, NEW_EXIT, and EXIT, each of size $O(\log n)$ as well as the coordinates of s and t . We will assume there is a simple logspace subroutine which verifies if a given edge crosses the segment st .

In addition, Directed Face Traversal records its state which is one of the following: WALK_BDRY, BACKTRACK, FIND_EXIT, GO_EXIT. Finally there is a Boolean flag TENTATIVE, initially set to false.

5.2 State diagram

The state diagram for the algorithm is cyclical:

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WALK_BDRY → BACKTRACK
           → FIND_EXIT
           → GO_EXIT → WALK_BDRY
    
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5.3 Invariant

In the full version of this paper we prove that the following property is an invariant, always true upon entering a new state.

Path property:

1. The nodes marked OUTER form a *directed* simple walk, τ , from s to EXIT.
2. The nodes marked INNER form a left-free walk from s to JOIN which passes through EXIT. We denote by η the sub-walk up to EXIT and by λ the sub-walk after EXIT.
3. The nodes marked INNER and MID can be used to form a *directed* walk from EXIT to s (take MID when INNER cannot be taken).
4. τ concatenated with $-\eta$ (which goes from EXIT to s) is non self-crossing and all nodes marked MID belong to faces enclosed by this concatenated curve.

This is illustrated in Figure 2.

Explanation Borrowing the notation used to describe the *Idea* of the algorithm at the start of Section 5, the point of the Path property is that it allows the current δ_i to be defined by pebbles; namely, δ_i is ‘almost’ traversed by starting at s and following τ then $-\eta$ back to s . The reason for the word ‘almost’ is that such a walk will in general not be a directed walk: although τ is directed so that one can indeed follow it in this direction, $-\eta$ may not be. The small walks marked MID are detours which allow one to get back to s from EXIT (i.e. each piece of MID by-passes an unsuitably directed part of $-\eta$). Thus a more accurate statement is that by following

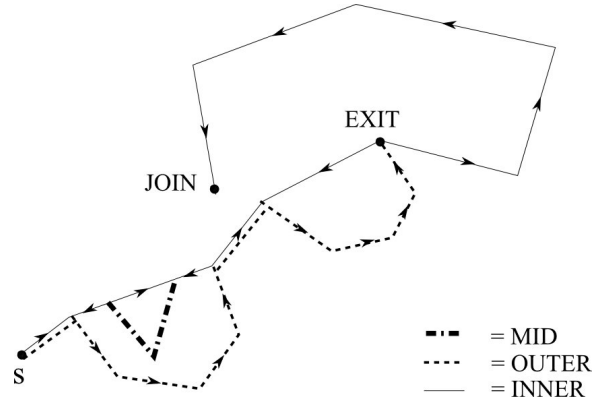


Figure 2: Path property

OUTER till EXIT and then INNER+MID back to s one traverses δ_i .

In establishing the Path property, showing pebbles form a walk relies on the following fact.

Lemma 3 *Any left-free walk β may be uniquely followed (from some vertex u onward) by a memory-less (local) geometric algorithm as long as all its vertices are marked by pebbles, no adjacent non- β vertices are marked, and the algorithm is given a starting arc at u .*

This holds because if we start at a pebble-marked node u and are given the first arc uv to follow, then we may iteratively follow the path defined by succ_M where M is the set of pebble-marked vertices.

Now, assume we have established the Path property as an invariant. We will *upon entry into each state* be able to follow τ , $-\eta$, or λ . In our pseudocode we write follow to indicate we are following one of these walks appealing to these principles. We now describe the main loop of Directed Face Traversal.

5.4 Main loop

We describe the algorithm in **high-level pseudocode**, suitable for proving correctness. In the interests of clarity we will refer to the curves η , τ and λ from the Path property, as well as a vertex called PRIOR which is defined below. **All of these walks as well as PRIOR can however be determined locally.** The extended version of this paper includes an appendix where lower-level pseudocode is given for the algorithm. That code does not refer to η , τ , λ and PRIOR but implements the same actions as specified below.

It remains to define the high-level variable PRIOR. Assuming the path property, the walk along INNER from EXIT to JOIN meets either:

1. the walk INNER only, and on the left side of that walk, in a section bypassed by MID (a) or not (b).

2. the walk OUTER only, and on the right side of that walk
3. a vertex of both walks, either on the left or right side (cases (a) and (b) resp.).

In all cases, we define PRIOR to be the vertex belonging to *both walks* which most closely precedes (or equals) the vertex⁵ JOIN (in the walk that was met).

This is illustrated in Figure 3. The convention is the same as in Figure 2: the dotted directed walk represents OUTER and it ends at EXIT. After that point the walk along INNER continues from EXIT to JOIN, where it meets either INNER, or OUTER, or both. This is indicated by a ray with its arrow pointing to the place of return. The possible cases are illustrated and labeled as above: 1ab, 2, 3ab.

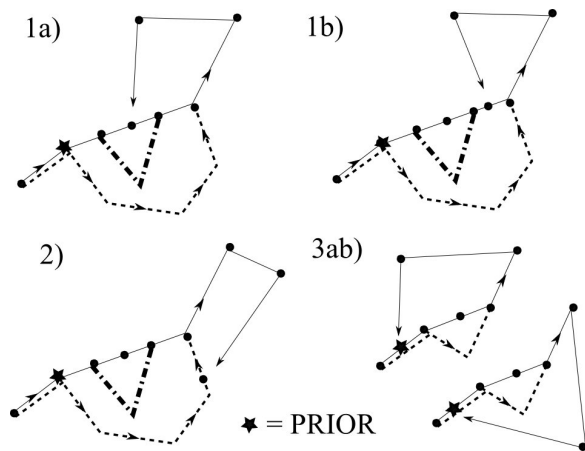


Figure 3: PRIOR is shown for the various cases

We now make two remarks. They concern respectively the setting of PRIOR (in the state BACKTRACK) and the use of PRIOR (in the state FIND_EXIT).

Observation 2 *It is possible for the agent to deduce which case has occurred by walking provisionally to the left once JOIN occurs. A case by case analysis shows the logic involved. The details are given in the extended version of this paper. The key point is that the orientation of arcs along INNER between intersections with OUTER or MID is prescribed and so contradictions must eventually arise if the provisional assumption is wrong. We assume that PRIOR can be found, i.e. the agent can walk to this vertex and determine that it is the vertex PRIOR. Moreover, at that moment it knows which way τ is oriented.*

Observation 3 *Once the agent is at PRIOR, by walking along τ and then $-\eta$ (using detours provided by*

⁵In the first case, where JOIN is a repeated vertex of INNER, we refer to its first occurrence.

MID), always keeping track of the last outgoing arc on the right until PRIOR is reached again, the location of a new exit can be found. By strong connectivity some outgoing arc must exist and this method of choosing it will ensure there are no outgoing arcs between it and PRIOR on the walk just described.

The actions to perform in the main loop depend on the state. If at any point the following implicit exit condition becomes valid the main loop is exited and the algorithm places the agent at whichever endpoint u or v is closer to t and returns.

Exit condition: the arc uv crosses the line segment st .

Initialization: Set EXIT and JOIN to s and let $a = sv$ be the first arc which exits s to the right of the line segment st .

Main loop:

- WALK_BDRY:
 1. Use succ() starting along the arc a (at EXIT) to build a left-free walk, marking all its vertices with INNER. Stop when this walk first meets an existing INNER or OUTER vertex and let JOIN be the intersection vertex.
 2. Change state to BACKTRACK.
- BACKTRACK:
 1. Follow INNER+MID or OUTER and thereby determine and reach the vertex PRIOR (see Observation 2).
 2. Change state to FIND_EXIT.
- FIND_EXIT:
 1. Walk along τ then $-\eta$, always recording the last outgoing arc encountered on the right (see Observation 3). Let NEW_EXIT be the vertex where this outgoing arc is found (it will be PRIOR itself if no later outgoing arc was found).
 2. Change state to GO_EXIT.
- GO_EXIT:
 1. Return to NEW_EXIT correcting all markers so the Path property will be preserved⁶ upon setting EXIT \leftarrow NEW_EXIT. Set EXIT \leftarrow NEW_EXIT and also JOIN \leftarrow NEW_EXIT. Set a to succ(b) at EXIT, where b is the outgoing arc of the new $-\eta$ at EXIT.
 2. Change state to WALK_BDRY.

⁶We want to move EXIT to a new vertex, NEW_EXIT, along the combined walk τ with $-\eta$ and thus we will be changing the breakpoint between τ and $-\eta$. To retain the Path property the pebbles for INNER, MID and OUTER must be adjusted accordingly. Details are given in the extended version of this paper.

5.5 Correctness

Proof. Let F be the face determined by sv from the initialization. We will prove that Directed Face Traversal traverses F . We assume that the Path property holds upon entry to all states (the proof of this invariance is given in the extended version).

Consider the first v_{i-1}, v_i on the boundary walk β of F which is *not an arc*. Then $v_i v_{i-1}$ is an arc. We claim the agent will eventually reach v_i . Let α be a maximal directed sub-walk of $-\beta$ which ends with v_i, v_{i-1} . Let $\sigma = \text{shell}(\alpha)$ be the outer shell of α .

Let μ be the concatenation of τ with $-\eta$. We prove by induction (on the iteration), that at the start of the main loop we have $\mathcal{C}(\mu) \subsetneq \mathcal{C}(\sigma)$ as long as the agent has not yet arrived v_i . To see this, assume μ is as at the start of the k 'th iteration and it satisfies this condition. We claim its new value at the start of the $k+1$ 'st iteration will also do so. We consider the new λ which will be formed during the WALK_BDRY state. Suppose the agent will not arrive at v_i by the start of the $k+1$ 'st iteration. Let F_1, F_2, F_3, \dots be the faces encountered on the left when following the new λ and a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots the corresponding arcs which are incoming to λ on the left. If the first vertex of this walk after EXIT does *not* belong to a face in $\mathcal{C}(\sigma)$ then since $\mathcal{C}(\mu) \subset \mathcal{C}(\sigma)$, the walk μ must coincide with σ at EXIT. But following μ back to v_{i-1} we do not meet any outgoing arcs on the right. Thus μ and σ must coincide all the way back to v_{i-1} and so μ passes through v_i , a contradiction. Thus the first vertex past EXIT on the new λ does indeed belong to a face in $\mathcal{C}(\sigma)$. And so σ encloses F_1 . But given the orientation of a_1 , this implies σ encloses the outer shell of a_1 and hence encloses F_2 , and so on. This continues until we reach the end of the new λ (at the new JOIN) because on the left side of λ there are only incoming arcs. Thus at the start of the $k+1$ 'st iteration we will have $\mathcal{C}(\mu) \subset \mathcal{C}(\sigma)$ and this inclusion must be strict, otherwise μ would equal σ and the agent would return to v_i .

Moreover, we have also shown that $\mathcal{C}(\mu)$ increases on each such iteration. This cannot go on forever so eventually the agent must reach v_i . This means it will advance along β past a_1 . We repeat the above argument using (in place of τ and η) τ_v and η_v , the sub-walks of τ and η starting at v , where v is the next value of EXIT after the agent has returned to v_i (we know EXIT belongs to both walks). This process continues and since the agent thus advances by at least one edge along β every time, eventually it must traverse all of β . \square

6 Conclusions

We have shown that the lower linear bound on memory for local routing algorithms that was proved in [5] is tight. Our algorithm mimics Face Routing but in-

volves a much more involved face traversal procedure. Nevertheless the linear memory requirement of the algorithm is a significant reduction in the $\Omega(n \log n)$ memory required for local routing in *non-geometric* digraphs proven by Ilcinkas and Fraigniaud [3], where they also provide algorithms with exponential runtime or else polynomial runtime and higher memory. Our geometric algorithm's worst case runtime (hop-length) is polynomial. Indeed on a given iteration of Directed Face Traversal, each arc may be traversed at most $O(1)$ times and there are $O(n)$ iterations for a given face (since the node EXIT will be different on each) and $O(n)$ faces in total.

7 Acknowledgements

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