# A General Approach to <br> Dynamic Packet Routing with Bounded Buffers 

## (Extended abstract)

Andrei Z. Broder*

Alan M. Frieze ${ }^{\dagger} \quad$ Eli Upfal ${ }^{\ddagger}$


#### Abstract

We prove a sufficient condition for the stability of $d y$ namic packet routing algorithms. Our approach reduces the problem of steady state analysis to the easier and better understood question of static routing. We show that certain high probability and worst case bounds on the quasistatic (finite past) performance of a routing algorithm imply bounds on the performance of the dynamic version of that algorithm. Our technique is particularly useful in analyzing routing on networks with bounded buffers where complicated dependencies make standard queuing techniques inapplicable.

We present several applications of our approach. In all cases we start from a known static algorithm, and modify it to fit our framework. In particular we give the first dynamic algorithm for routing on a butterfly with bounded buffers. Both the injection rate for which the algorithm is stable, and the expected time a packet spends in the system are optimal up to constant factors. Our approach is also applicable to the recently introduced adversarial input model.


## 1. Introduction

The rigorous analysis of the dynamic performance of routing algorithms is one of the most challenging current goals in the study of communication networks. So far, most theoretical work on this area has focused on static routing: A set of packets is injected into the system at time 0 , and

[^0]the routing algorithm is measured by the time it takes to deliver all the packets to their destinations, assuming that no new packets are injected in the meantime (see Leighton [8] for an extensive survey). In practice however, networks are rarely used in this "batch" mode. Most real-life networks operate in a dynamic mode whereby new packets are continuously injected into the system. Each processor usually controls only the rate at which it injects its own packets and has only a limited knowledge of the global state.

This situation is better modeled by a stochastic paradigm whereby the packets are continuously injected according to some inter-arrival distribution, and the routing algorithm is evaluated according to its long term behavior. In particular, quantities of interest are the maximum arrival rate for which the system is stable (that is, the arrival rate that ensures that the expected number of packets waiting in queues does not grow with time), and the expected time a packet spends in the system in the steady state. The performance of a dynamic algorithm is a function of the inter-arrival distribution. The goal is to develop algorithms that perform close to optimal for any inter-arrival distribution.

Several recent articles have addressed the dynamic routing problem, in the context of packet routing on arrays [ 7 , $10,5,2]$, on the hypercube and the butterfly [13] and general networks [12]. Except for [2], the analyses in these works assumes a Poisson arrival distribution and requires unbounded queues in the routing switches (though some works give a high probability bound on the size of the queue used [7,5]). Unbounded queues allow the application of some tools from queuing theory (see $[3,4]$ ) and help reduce the correlation between events in the system, thus simplifying the analysis at the cost of a less realistic model.

Here we focus on analyzing dynamic packet routing in networks with bounded buffers at the switching nodes, a setting that most accurately models real networks. Our goal is to build on the vast amount of work that has been done for static routing in order to obtain results for the dynamic situation. Rather than produce a new analysis for each routing network and algorithm we develop a general technique that "reduces" the problem of dynamic routing to the better un-
derstood problem of static routing.
In section 2 we prove a general theorem that shows that any communication scheme (a routing algorithm and a network) that satisfies a given set of conditions, defined only with respect to a finite history is stable up to a certain interarrival rate. Furthermore we bound the expected routing time. At first glance these conditions seems very restrictive and hard to satisfy, but in fact, as we show later, many of the previous results on static routing can be easily modified to fit into our framework. The theorem applies to any inter-arrival distribution: the stability results and the expected routing time of a packet inside the network depend only on the expectation of the inter-arrival distribution. The relationship between the inter-arrival distribution and the waiting time in the input queues is more complicated and is formulated in the theorem.
In sections 3, 4, and 5 we present three applications of our general thecrem to packet routing on the butterfly network. We assume that packets arrives according to an arbitrary inter-arrival distribution and have random destinations. In section 6 we present similar results for an alternative input model, the adversarial model [1], whereby probabilistic assumptions are replaced by a deterministic condition on edge congestion.

Section 3 presents the first dynamic packet routing algorithm for a butterfly network with bounded buffers under constant injection rate. Our algorithm is stable for any interarrival distribution with expectation greater than some absolute constant. The expected routing time in an $n$-input butterfly is $O(\log n)$ and in the case of geometric inter-arrival time the expected time a packet spends in the input queue is also $O(\log n)$. Thus, the performance of the algorithm is within constant factors from optimal in all parameters. Our dynamic algorithm is based on the static routing results of Ranade [11] and Maggs and Sitaraman [9].

The above algorithm is not a "pure" queueing protocol (in such a protocol packets always move forward unless progress is impeded by an already-full queue) since similar to the algorithms devised in [11,9] it generates and uses extra messages and mechanisms to coordinate the routing. Maggs and Sitaraman studied the question of a "pure" queuing protocol routing with bounded buffers. They gave an algorithm that routes $n$ packets on an $n \log n$ node bounded buffers butterfly in $O(\log n)$ steps. Based on their technique we develop in section 4 a simple greedy algorithm for dynamic routing. It is stable for any inter-arrival distribution with expectation $\Omega(\log n)$, the routing time is $O(\log n)$, and in the case of a geometric inter-arrival distribution the expected wait in the queues is also $O(\log n)$.

In section 5 we apply our approach to a dynamic version of the simple oblivious routing algorithm on the butterfly described in $[14,8]$. This algorithm routes $n \log n$ packets (all logarithms in this paper are base 2 ) on an $n \log n$ butterfly in
expected $O(\log n)$ steps, and with high probability no buffer has more than $O(\log n)$ packets. Our dynamic version of this algorithm uses a butterfly with buffers of size $O(\log n)$ and is stable for any inter-arrival distribution with expectation greater than some absolute constant. The expected routing time is $O(\log n)$ and the expected time a packet waits in a queue in the case of geometric inter-arrival distribution is also $O(\log n)$. Note that for dynamic routing, which is an infinite process, it does not suffice to have a high probability bound on the size of the buffer memory needed at a given time: we must prove that the algorithm is stable for some fixed buffer size.

In an attempt to avoid probabilistic assumptions on the input, Borodin et al. [1] defined the adversarial input model. Instead of probabilistic assumptions, for any time interval there is an absolute bound on the number of generated packets that must traverse any particular edge. Surprisingly, our general technique can be applied here as well. In section 6 we briefly sketch how the results of sections $3-5$ can be extended to this model.

These examples demonstrate several ways of applying our scheme. The analysis required is similar to the analysis used in the proof of the corresponding static case with several small modifications. Most notably, as often done in practice, we sometimes augment the original static algorithm with a simple "flow control" mechanism, such as acknowledgments. Our general theorem can be applied to other topologies and algorithms provided that an appropriate static case analysis can be constructed. Furthermore, a variant of the general theorem can be applied to the analysis of routing algorithms that sometimes drop packets. Such algorithms are often used in practice but have not been so well studied in the theory literature.

## 2. The stability criterion

Our model is as follows: we are given a routing algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ acting on a network $\Gamma(n)$ with $n$ inputs and $n$ outputs. Each input receives new packets with a inter-arrival distribution $\mathcal{F}$. We distinguish between usual and unusual distributions. We first describe the situation for usual distributions. By this we mean that the probability that the number of arrivals in any time period significantly exceeds its expectation falls off exponentially. A more precise definition is left until later. In the usual case the packets are placed into an unbounded FIFO queue at the input node. Packets have an output destination chosen independently and uniformly at random. When a packet reaches the top of its queue, we call it active. At some point after becoming active, the packet is removed from its queue and eventually routed to its destination. For convenience we assume that a packet chooses its random destination upon becoming active.

In an arbitrary distribution we modify our routing scheme
as follows. We maintain at each node $v$ two queues, $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$. On arrival, packets are placed in $Q_{1}$; the front packet in $Q_{1}$ leaves it to $Q_{2}$ according to a geometric service time at a rate greater than the arrival rate of $\mathcal{F}$; then $Q_{2}$ feeds the network as above. The precise details are discussed in Theorem 2.1 below.

We are interested in determining under which conditions the queuing system is ergodic (or stable), that is, under which conditions the expected length of the input queues is bounded as $t \rightarrow \infty$. To this purpose we have to study the inter-departure time, which is the interval from when a packet becomes active until it leaves the queue, and the packet next in line (if any) becomes active. Besides stability, we are also interested in the expected time a packet spends in the queue, and the expected time it spends in the network.

Since the inter-arrival times are independent, if the interdeparture times are also independent, then each queue can simply be viewed as a $\mathrm{G} / \mathrm{G} / 1$ system and the stability condition would trivially be that the inter-departure rate exceeds the inter-arrival rate. However the usual situation is that there are complex interactions among packets during routing and thus the inter-departure times are highly dependent and hard to analyze.

The goal of this section is to define a set of relatively simple sufficient conditions such that if the routing algorithm satisfies them, then the system is stable up to a certain interarrival rate and we can bound the expected time a packet spends in the queue and in the network. This is captured in the following

Theorem 2.1 Assume that the randomized routing algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ acting on the network $\Gamma(n)$ is characterized by four parameters $a, b, m$, and $T$, where $a$ and $b$ are positive constants, and $m$ and $T$ are positive integers that might depend on $n$ and satisfy $1 / n^{a}<m / T<1$ and $T<n^{b}$. Assume that the algorithm satisfies the following conditions:

1. Every packet is delivered at most $n^{a}$ steps after becoming active.

## 2. For every time $\tau \geq 0$ there exists an event $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ with the following properties:

(a) $\neg \mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ implies that any packet that at time $\tau$ was among the first $m$ packets in its queue, is delivered before time $\tau+T$.
(b) For any fixed time $\tau$, ${ }^{1}$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau} \mid \mathcal{H}_{\tau-n^{b}}\right) \leq \frac{(m / T)^{7}}{n^{2 a+2 b+3}}
$$

where $\mathcal{H}_{t}$ describes the state of the system at time $t$.

[^1](c) $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ is a function only of $H_{\tau+n^{b}}$. (Thus $\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau+2 n^{b}} \mid\right.$ $\left.\left.\mathcal{E}_{\tau}\right) \leq(m / T)^{7} / n^{2 a+2 b+3}.\right)$

Then if there exists a positive constant $\epsilon$ such that the interarrival distribution $\mathcal{F}$ has an inter-arrival rate smaller than $(1-\epsilon) m / T$, then

1. The system is stable.
2. The expected time elapsed since a packet becomes active until it is delivered is $O(T)$.
3. The time a packet spends in the input queue is bounded by $O(T)+f(T / m)$, where $f$ is a function that depends only on $\mathcal{F}$ and not on the routing process. (For "usual" distributions such as geometric $f(T / m)=O(T / m)$ ).

Proof: Assume first that the inter-arrival time is geometric, that is, at each step, each input receives a new packet with some fixed probability $p<(1-\epsilon) m / T$. (We will show later how to extend the proof to a general inter-arrival distribution).

Fix an input $v$ and let $Q(t)$ denote the length of the queue at node $v$ at time $t$. Let

$$
\pi(t, L)=\operatorname{Pr}(Q(t) \geq L)
$$

We show that the system is stable by proving a uniform bound, independent of $t$, on $\pi(t, L)$. Let

$$
\beta=\frac{\epsilon}{4} \frac{m}{T} \quad \text { and } \quad U=\left(\frac{T}{m}\right)^{3} n^{a+b+1}
$$

(Hence $U>m$.) We will establish the bound using the following two inequalities:

- For $L \geq U$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi(t, L) \leq \pi\left(t-\frac{L}{2},(1+\beta) L\right)+\delta e^{-\gamma L} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For $m \leq L<U$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi(t, L) \leq \pi\left(t-\frac{2 U}{\epsilon p}, U\right)+\frac{2 U}{\epsilon p} \operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau}\right)+e^{-\phi p L} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\gamma=\Omega\left((m / T)^{3} / n^{a+b}\right), \delta=O\left(n^{b}\right)$, and $\phi$ is a positive constant. Since $\pi(t, L)=0$ for $t<L$, these inequalities imply that for $L \geq U$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi(t, L) & \leq \delta e^{-\gamma L}+\delta e^{-(1+\beta) \gamma L}+\delta e^{-(1+\beta)^{2} \gamma L}+\cdots \\
& \leq \delta e^{-\gamma L}\left(1+e^{-\beta \gamma L}+e^{-2 \beta \gamma L}+\cdots\right) \\
& =\frac{\delta e^{-\gamma L}}{1-e^{-\beta \gamma L}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and that for $m \leq L<U$,

$$
\pi(t, L) \leq \frac{\delta e^{-\gamma U}}{1-e^{-\beta \gamma U}}+\frac{2 U}{\epsilon p} \operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau}\right)+e^{-\phi p L} .
$$

Combining the two bounds we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}(Q(t))= & \sum_{L \geq 1} \pi(t, L) \\
\leq & m+\frac{U \delta e^{-\gamma U}}{1-e^{-\beta \gamma U}}+\frac{2 U^{2}}{\epsilon p} \operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau}\right) \\
& \quad+2 e^{-\phi p m}+\frac{2 \delta e^{-\gamma U}}{1-e^{-\beta \gamma U}} \\
= & O(m)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since this holds for any inter-arrival rate bounded by ( $1-$ є) $m / T$, by Little's Theorem the expected time a packet spends in the queue is $O(T)$.

We now turn to proving the recurrence (1). Since the inequality is trivially true for $t<L$, assume that $t \geq L$. Let $t_{0}=t-\frac{L}{2}$. Let $I$ denote the number of packets arriving at input $v$ between $t_{0}$ and $t$, and let $J$ denote the number of packets leaving the queue at $v$ during this interval. Let $s_{i}$ denote the inter-departure time of the $i$ 'th packet to become active at $v$ after time $t_{0}$, that is, the interval from when this packet reaches the front of queue until it departs. (If there was an active packet at time $t_{0}$ then $s_{1}$ denotes how long it took that packet to depart.) Let

$$
M=(1-\beta) \frac{m}{T} \frac{L}{2}
$$

We claim that if $Q(t) \geq L$, then at least one of the following three events holds:
$\mathcal{F}_{a} \equiv Q\left(t_{0}\right) \geq(1+\beta) L$. (Large initial queue.)
$\mathcal{F}_{b} \equiv I \geq(1+\beta) p L / 2$. (Excessive number of new arrivals.)
$\mathcal{F}_{c} \equiv s_{1}+s_{2}+\cdots+s_{M}>L / 2$. (Slow processing.)
Indeed assume $-, \mathcal{F}_{a}, \neg \mathcal{F}_{b}$, and $\neg \mathcal{F}_{c}$ and consider two cases:
Case 1: $Q\left(t_{0}\right)>L / 2$. This means that at time $t_{0}$ the queue contained more than $M$ packets, and $\neg \mathcal{F}_{c}$ implies that $M$ packets left the queue by time $t=t_{0}+L / 2$. Thus $J \geq M$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(t) & =Q\left(t_{0}\right)+I-J \\
& <(1+\beta) L+(1+\beta) p \frac{L}{2}-(1-\beta) \frac{m}{T} \frac{L}{2} \\
& =L+\left(2 \beta+p+\beta p-\frac{m}{T}+\beta \frac{m}{T}\right) \frac{L}{2} \\
& \leq L+\left(4 \beta+p-\frac{m}{T}\right) \frac{L}{2} \leq L
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2: $Q\left(t_{0}\right) \leq L / 2$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(t) & \leq Q\left(t_{0}\right)+I<\frac{L}{2}+(1+\beta) p \frac{L}{2} \\
& \leq \frac{L}{2}+\left(1+\frac{\epsilon m}{4 T}\right)(1-\epsilon) \frac{m}{T} \frac{L}{2}<L
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, in order to prove the recurrence (1) it suffices to show that for $L \geq U$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{F}_{b}\right) \leq e^{-\gamma L} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{F}_{c} \wedge(Q(t) \geq L)\right) \leq O\left(n^{b}\right) e^{-\gamma L} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (3) follows immediately from standard bounds on the binomial distribution

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{F}_{b}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(I \geq(1+\beta) p \frac{L}{2}\right) \leq e^{-\beta^{2} p L / 6}
$$

To prove equation (4) note that if at any time during $\left[t_{0}, t\right]$ the queue at $v$ contains less than $m$ packets, then $Q(t) \geq L$ only if $I \geq L-m$ and the probability of the latter can be bound as above. So let's assume that for all $\tau \in\left[t_{0}, t\right]$, we have $Q(\tau) \geq m$.

Let now $z$ denote the number of occurrences of $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ during $\left[t_{0}, t\right]$. By the hypothesis of the theorem $s_{1}+s_{2}+\cdots+s_{M} \leq$ $M n^{a}$. We partition the interval $\left[t_{0}, t_{0}+M n^{a}\right]$ into $2 n^{b}$ sets, $\mathcal{T}_{1}, \mathcal{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathcal{T}_{2 n^{b}}$ where $\mathcal{T}_{i}=\left\{t_{0}+i-1+2 k n^{b}: 0 \leq\right.$ $\left.k \leq\left\lfloor\left(M n^{a}-i+1\right) /\left(2 n^{b}\right)\right\rfloor\right\}$. Let $z_{i}$ denote the number of occurrences of $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ for $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_{i}$. Note that if packet $i$ becomes active at time $\tau$ then if $\neg \mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ we have $s_{i}+s_{i+1}+\cdots+s_{i+m} \leq$ $T$; if $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ we can use the bound $s_{i} \leq n^{a}$. Thus we have the following series of implications:

$$
\begin{array}{cc} 
& s_{1}+s_{2}+\cdots+s_{M}>\frac{L}{2} \\
\Rightarrow & (M-z) \frac{T}{m}+n^{a} z>\frac{L}{2} \\
\Rightarrow & n^{a} z>\frac{L}{2}-M \frac{T}{m}=\frac{L}{2}-(1-\beta) \frac{L}{2}=\frac{\beta L}{2} \\
\Rightarrow & z>\frac{\beta L}{2 n^{a}} \\
\Rightarrow & \exists i: z_{i}>\frac{\beta L}{4 n^{a+b}}
\end{array}
$$

It follows from hypothesis 2.b. of the theorem that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(z_{i}>u\right) \\
& \quad \leq\binom{ M /\left(2 n^{b}\right)}{u}\left(\frac{(m / T)^{7}}{n^{2 a+2 b+3}}\right)^{u} \leq\left(\frac{M e}{2 n^{b} u} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{2 a+2 b+3}}\right)^{u}
\end{aligned}
$$

So

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\exists i: z_{i} \geq \frac{\beta L}{4 n^{a+b}}\right) \\
& \quad \leq 2 n^{b}\left(\frac{M e}{2 n^{2 a+3 b+3}} \cdot \frac{4 n^{a+b}}{\beta L}\right)^{\beta L /\left(4 n^{a+b}\right)} \leq 2 n^{b} e^{-\gamma L} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof of recurrence (1) and we turn to recurrence (2). If $t<L /(2 p)$ then
$\operatorname{Pr}(Q(t) \geq L)$

$$
\leq \operatorname{Pr}(L \text { packets arrive in }[0, L /(2 p)]) \leq e^{-\phi L}
$$

for a constant $\phi$. Hence assume that $t>L /(2 p)$. Define as usual $x^{+}$to be $\max (0, x)$. Now let $t_{0}=(t-2 U /(\epsilon p))^{+}$. Define the following three events:

$$
\mathcal{F}_{a} \equiv Q\left(t_{0}\right) \geq U
$$

$\mathcal{F}_{b} \equiv$ The event $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ does not occur for any $\tau \in\left[t_{0}, t\right]$.
$\mathcal{F}_{c} \equiv$ The queue at $v$ received at most $\left(1-\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \frac{m}{T} \theta$ new packets in any interval $[t-\theta, t]$ with $\theta \geq \frac{L}{2 p}$.
We bound $\operatorname{Pr}(Q(t) \geq L)$ via the inequality

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Pr}(Q(t) \geq L) \leq & \operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{F}_{a}\right)+\operatorname{Pr}\left(\neg \mathcal{F}_{b}\right)+\operatorname{Pr}\left(\neg \mathcal{F}_{c}\right) \\
& +\operatorname{Pr}\left(Q(t) \geq L \mid \neg \mathcal{F}_{a}, \mathcal{F}_{b}, \mathcal{F}_{c}\right) \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

By definition

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{F}_{a}\right)=\pi\left(t_{0}, U\right)=\pi(t-2 U /(\epsilon p), U)
$$

Clearly

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\neg \mathcal{F}_{b}\right) \leq \frac{2 U}{\epsilon p} \operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau}\right),
$$

and since $\left(1-\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \frac{m}{T} \theta \geq\left(1+\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) p \theta$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\neg \mathcal{F}_{c}\right) \leq \sum_{\theta \geq \frac{L}{2 p}} e^{-\epsilon^{2} p \theta / 12} \leq \frac{1}{2} e^{-\phi L} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for a constant $\phi$.
Now assume $\neg \mathcal{F}_{a}, \mathcal{F}_{b}$, and $\mathcal{F}_{c}$ and notice that if $\mathcal{F}_{b}$ holds, then as long as the queue is not empty it loses at least $m$ packets in any interval of $T$ steps. If $Q(t) \geq L$ we claim that these assumptions imply that there is a step in the interval $\left[t_{0}, t\right]$ in which the queue is empty; otherwise

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(t) & \leq Q\left(t_{0}\right)+\left(1-\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \frac{m}{T}\left(t-t_{0}\right)-m\left\lfloor\frac{t-t_{0}}{T}\right\rfloor \\
& <Q\left(t_{0}\right)+m-\frac{\epsilon}{2} \frac{m}{T}\left(t-t_{0}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

which is less than $m$ since if $t_{0}=0$ then $Q\left(t_{0}\right)=0$, and otherwise $t-t_{0}=2 U /(\epsilon p)$ and $Q\left(t_{0}\right)<U$.

Thus, under the assumptions $\neg \mathcal{F}_{a}, \mathcal{F}_{b}$, and $\mathcal{F}_{c}$, if there are $L$ packets in the queue at time $t$, then there is an interval [ $\left.t-\theta^{\prime}, t\right]$, such that
(i) the queue was empty at time $t-\theta^{\prime}-1$;
(ii) the queue was not empty in any step in the interval $[t-$ $\left.\theta^{\prime}, t\right]$
(iii) at least $L+m\left\lfloor\frac{\theta^{\prime}}{T}\right\rfloor>L+\frac{m \theta^{\prime}}{T}-m$ new packets arrived at the queue in that interval.

But if $L \geq m$ and $\theta^{\prime}>L /(2 p)$ then (iii) contradicts $\mathcal{F}_{c}$. So we only have to consider the probability that (iii) holds for an interval with $L \leq \theta^{\prime} \leq L /(2 p)$. This is bounded by

$$
\begin{align*}
& \max _{\substack{t^{\prime} \leq m \\
L \leq L /(2 p)}}\left\{\sum_{i \geq L+\frac{m \theta^{\prime}}{T}-m}\binom{\theta^{\prime}}{i} p^{i}(1-p)^{\theta^{\prime}-i}\right\} \\
& \leq \max _{L \leq \theta^{\prime} \leq L /(2 p)} e^{-\epsilon^{2} p \theta^{\prime} / 3} \leq \frac{1}{2} e^{-\phi p L} \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

This completes the proof of equation (2).
Let us now see how to go from a geometric inter-arrival distribution to something more general. We observe that in the proof above the inter-arrival distribution is only required to satisfy (3), (6), and (7). Suppose that the interarrival time is a random variable $X$ with distribution $\mathcal{F}$. Let $p=1 / \mathrm{E}(X)<1$. We say that $\mathcal{F}$ is usual if there exist constants $A_{0}$ and $A_{1}$ such that in any interval of length $t$, the number $N$ of arrivals satisfies

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(N \geq(1+\epsilon) p t) \leq A_{0} e^{-A_{1} \epsilon^{2} p t}
$$

for any $0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1$. Clearly if $\mathcal{F}$ is usual, then our proof will go essentially unchanged provided that $p<(1-\epsilon) \frac{m}{T}$.

Assume finally that the arrival of packets to the queue is governed by some arbitrary inter-arrival distribution $\mathcal{F}$. Let $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ be the two queues in front of a generic node $v$, as described at the beginning of this section. We move packets from the front of $Q_{1}$ to the end of $Q_{2}$ with probability $p=$ $(1-\epsilon) \frac{m}{T}$. Our analysis has shown that $Q_{2}$ is stable, and that the expected wait in $Q_{2}$ is $O(T)$. The queue $Q_{1}$ is a $\mathrm{G} / \mathrm{M} / 1$ queue. Thus, if the expected inter-arrival time to $Q_{1}$ is smaller than $p$, then the queue is stable and the expected waiting time in $Q_{1}$ is determined (see [6] for details) by the distribution $\mathcal{F}$, as follows: Let $x$ be the non-trivial (that is, $x \neq 1$ ) root of the equation (the Laplace transform)

$$
x=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-p t(1-x)} d \mathcal{F}(t)
$$

The expected wait in the queue is then $x /(p(1-x))$.
We finally consider the fact that the average time elapsed from the moment a packet becomes active until it is delivered is $O(T)$. This can be verified by considering a long interval and dividing it into subsets of times; within a given subset of times, occurrences of $\mathcal{E}_{t}$ can be dealt with as in the proof of equation (4).

In the next three sections we deal with applications of Theorem 2.1 to the case where the underlying topology is a butterfly with $L=\log n$ levels (rows) of $n$ nodes (switches), buffers only on edges and unbounded queues at input vertices. We show stability for several protocols under suitable assumptions about input rate and internal buffer size. We will explicitly consider geometric inter-arrival distributions. The general case is implicitly dealt with as in the proof of the main theorem.

## 3. Dynamic routing on a butterfly with bounded buffers under constant injection rate

For this section we assume that the buffer size $q$ is a sufficiently large constant. We first fix $m=\Theta(\log n)$ and we will subsequently describe a protocol and define $\mathcal{E}, T, a$, and $b$ to satisfy the conditions of Theorem 2.1.

Our approach is based on the second algorithm of Maggs and Sitaraman [9] and in places we follow their description very closely. This algorithm uses tokens whose main role is to define a wave number for each packet. We will assume that tokens occupy the same amount of space as a packet. Imagine that behind each input node queue there is an infinite sequence of tokens, packets and blanks. The odd positions are always taken by tokens and the even positions contain packets or blanks, where the packets occur randomly with probability $p$. The tokens are labeled $1,2, \ldots$. The label of a token is referred to as its wave number. As opposed to [9] we actually use these labels within the algorithm, not only in its analysis.

At each time step we examine the front of the sequence. If it is blank then we simply delete this blank and go to the next time step. If there is a token or packet then we delete it from the sequence and place it in the back of the input queue. The front element (which could be a packet or a token) of the queue tries to enter the network only if it is eligible (we define this subsequently). An eligible packet enters the system if the buffer on the edge that it intends to use is, or becomes not full during the current time step. Upon entrance into the network a token splits into two tokens, one for each outgoing edge. Thus both buffers need to have space before an eligible token can enter.

The wave number $w(\Pi)$ of packet $\Pi$ is the wave number of the token that immediately precedes it in entering the network. The rank of a packet is a pair $(w, c)$ where $w$ is the wave number and $c$ is the column number of its input. The rank of a token is given by its wave number. Ranks are ordered lexicographically. An important invariant of the algorithm is that packets go through a switch in increasing order of rank.

A switch labeled $\left(l, c=c_{0}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{L-1}\right)$ where $l$ is the level and $L=\log n$, has a 0 -edge entering it from switch $\left(l-1, c-c_{l} 2^{l-1}\right.$ ) and a 1-edge entering it from switch ( $l-$ $1, c-\left(c_{l}-1\right) 2^{i}$ ). The buffer of the $i$-edge is called the $i$ buffer.

The behavior of each switch is governed by a simple set of rules. By forwarding a packet or token we mean sending it to the appropriate queue in the next level. If that queue is full, the switch tries again in consecutive time steps until it succeeds. A switch can either be in 0 -mode or 1 -mode and is initialized to be in 0 -mode. In $i$-mode, a switch forwards packets in the $i$-queue until a token is at the head of the $i$ -
queue. At that time, if $i=0$ then the switch simply changes to 1 -mode; otherwise, if $i=1$ then there will be tokens at the front of both queues and the switch waits until it can forward both tokens, each to one of its outgoing edges. (These tokens have the same wave number). It then switches back to 0 mode.

It will be important in the subsequent analysis to ensure that if $\Pi$ and $\Pi^{\prime}$ are packets or tokens residing simultaneously in the network then $\left|w(\Pi)-w\left(\Pi^{\prime}\right)\right| \leq A \log n$ for some constant $A>0$. This is achieved as follows: At every time step, every output node generates two chips. The $2 n$ chips generated at time $t$ will be referred to as generation $t$. Each generation travels back through the network one level at a time. The chips make their journey so that each chip occupies a different edge at each step. By the time a chip of generation $t$ has reached a switch $s$, it has iteratively computed the lowest wave number of any packet/token which left the network at time $t$ from an output node reachable from $s$. Thus when generation $t$ reaches the input nodes, each input node knows the lowest wave number $w^{*}(t)$ of any packet/token that left the network at time $t$. This happens at time $t+\log n$. Note that if $\Pi$ is a packet/token which is in the network at time $t$ or later then $w(\Pi) \geq w^{*}(t)$ since packets go through network switches in increasing order of rank.

At time $\tau$ a packet/token $\Pi$ will be eligible to enter the network, only if $w(\Pi) \leq w^{*}(\tau-\log n)+A \log n$. It follows that if $\Pi$ is any packet/token already in the network at time $\tau$, or eligible at time $\tau$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
w^{*}(\tau-\log n) \leq w(\Pi) \leq w^{*}(\tau-\log n)+A \log n \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We focus now on one of the first $m$ packets of a queue at time $\tau$. Denote it $\Pi$. Assume for the time being that II is eligible at time $\tau$. Maggs and Sitaraman define a delay sequence of packets and tokens in a familiar way - an $(r, f)$ delay sequence consists of (i) a path $P$ from an output node to an input node, (ii) a sequence $s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{r}$ of not necessarily distinct buffers, (iii) a sequence $\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots, \Pi_{r}$ of distinct packets and tokens and (iv) a non-increasing sequence $w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{r}$ of wave numbers. The wave numbers of the tokens are shown to decrease strictly as one moves along the delay path, in fact they decrease by one from one token to the next. The length $\lambda=\lambda(P)$ is equal to $2 f-\log n$ where $f$ is the number of forward edges of the path (which are traced backwards by $P$ ). It is assumed that $\Pi_{i}$ goes through switch $s_{i}$ and has wave number $w_{i}$. Maggs and Sitaraman show (Lemma 4.1) that if packet $\Pi$ takes $\log n+d$ time to exit from the network, then there is a $(d+(q-2) f, f)$ delay sequence, with $\Pi_{1}=\Pi$, for some $f \geq 0$.

We then have to argue that the delay sequence does not contain many tokens. Let $k$ denote the number of tokens in
our delay sequence. We see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
k \leq A \log n, \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

since the wave numbers of tokens decrease by one along the delay path, equation (8) holds, and any packet/token on the delay path must be in the network at some time after $\tau$, and thus has wave number $\geq w^{*}(\tau-\log n)$.

If we assume (and we will subsequently remove this assumption)

A: The destinations of packets under consideration are random
then the expected number of delay sequences for $\Pi$ can be bounded as follows.

Let $\mathcal{P}$ denote the set of possible delay paths. Choose $P \in$ $\mathcal{P}$. Let $\lambda$ be the length of $P$. Choose a delay $d \geq K \log n$ where $K$ is a large constant. (We assume $q \gg K \gg A$.) Choose $f \geq 0$. Let $r=d+(q-2) f$. We have to count the number of $(r, f)$ delay sequences with delay path $P$. Choose non-negative integers $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}$ so that $a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+$ $a_{k} \leq r-k$ and along our path there are tokens at positions $a_{1}+1, a_{1}+a_{2}+2, \ldots, a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{k}+k$ (replacing a packet by a token increases the upper bound). There are less than $\binom{r}{k}$ choices for the $a_{i}$ 's.

Let $J=[r] \backslash\left\{a_{1}+1, a_{1}+a_{2}+2, \ldots, a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+\right.$ $\left.a_{k}+k\right\}$. Now choose an edge buffer $s_{j}$ for each $j \in J$. Observe that having chosen $P$ our choices are now restricted. However for each edge in $P$ we can choose the multiplicity of its buffer in the delay sequence. This can be done in at most $\binom{r+\lambda-1}{\lambda-1}$ ways.

Let $d_{j}$ be the depth of the edge with buffer $s_{j}$. There are $2^{d_{j}}$ inputs which could send a packet along this edge. The probability that there is such a packet with a particular wave number (fixed by the preceding token) is at most $2^{d_{j}}\left(p 2^{-d_{j}-1}\right) \leq 1 / 2$.

Thus the expected number of delay sequences is at most

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{d>K \log n} \sum_{f} \sum_{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}} \sum_{s_{j}: j \in J}(1 / 2)^{r-k} \\
& \quad \leq \sum_{d \geq K \log n} \sum_{f} 4^{\lambda}\binom{r}{k}\binom{r+\lambda-1}{\lambda-1} 2^{k-r}=O\left(n^{-B}\right) \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

for any constant $B$. (Details omitted.)
Let us now deal with Assumption A. One cannot assert that the destinations of packets in the network at time $\tau$ are random. There is a tendency for "bad" configurations to "linger". However, one can assert this for the destinations of packets with wave numbers in $[w, w+k-1]$ are random for any fixed $w$. What we have actually proved is that there is unlikely to be a delay sequence made up from random packets with wave numbers in $[w, w+k-1]$ where $w=w_{r}$. We know however that

$$
w^{*}(\tau) \leq w_{r} \leq w^{*}(\tau)+A \log n
$$

and thus we can assume conservatively that if $\tau_{0}=\tau-$ $2 A n S \log n$ and $w_{0}=w^{*}\left(\tau_{0}\right)$ then

$$
w_{0}+2 A \log n \leq w_{r} \leq w_{0}+A(2 n S+1) \log n
$$

Here $S$ is a polynomial upper bound (proved below in Lemma 3.1) on the time taken for an active packet or token to get through the network. We use the facts:
(a) $w^{*}(t-1) \leq w^{*}(t) \leq w^{*}(t-1)+1$.
(b) $w^{*}(t+n S) \geq w^{*}(t)+1$.

Of course $w_{0}$ itself is a random variable. But on the other hand, given $w_{0}$, the conditional distribution of the destinations in wave $w$ for $w>w_{0}+A \log n$ are random because no packet in this wave could have been in the network at time $\tau_{0}$. Let us therefore define
$\mathcal{E}_{\tau} \equiv$ There exists $w \in\left[w_{0}+2 A \log n, w_{0}+A(2 n S+\right.$

1) $\log n+K \log n]$ and a delay sequence of length exceeding $K \log n$ made from packets in waves $[w, w+$ $A \log n]$.

The probability of $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ is $O\left(S n \log n / n^{B}\right)$ and can be made suitably small. If $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ does not occur then all of the eligible packets among the first $m$ in each queue at time $\tau$ will be serviced in time $K \log n$.

We have therefore dealt with eligible packets at time $\tau$. Some of the first $m$ packets in the queue can be ineligible. If $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ does not occur then they will be serviced in a further $K \log n$ time because they will be eligible at time $\tau+K \log n$ (all eligible packets in the network at time $\tau$ will be out) and the extra $K \log n$ in the definition of $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ means no delay paths for them either. We thus take $T=2 K \log n$.

We now have to give an estimate for $S$.

## Lemma 3.1

$$
S \leq 4 A n \log ^{2} n
$$

Proof: If we trace an input-output path then the tokens we meet have wave numbers which decrease by one each time. This is a basic property of the scheduling protocol. At each time step at least one packet or token of lowest wave number moves. Thus if $X$ denotes the set of lowest wave tokens or packets at time $t$, then $X$ will be through the network at time $t+2 n \log n$. The network can have no more than $A \log n$ distinct eligible wave numbers at any time and so we get an upper bound of $2 A n \log ^{2} n$ for eligible packets. An ineligible packet might then have to wait this long to become eligible.

From our definition of $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ we see that it depends only on the destinations of packets that have wave numbers in the range $\left[w_{0}+2 A \log n, w_{0}+A(2 n S+1) \log n+K \log n\right]$. Every packet that has already made a choice of its destination by time $t_{0}-S$ is out of the system by time $t_{0}$ and thus has
wave number $\leq w^{*}\left(t_{0}\right)+A \log n$. On the other hand, packets that enter the network after time $t_{0}+n S(A(2 n S+1)+$ $K) \log n$ has wave number $\geq w_{0}+(A(2 n S+1)+K) \log n$. Hence $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ depends only on the destination of packets enter the network at times in the range $[\tau-2 A n S \log n-S, \tau+$ $(A(2 n S-1)+K) n S \log n]$. We can thus take $b=7$ in the main theorem. To define $a$ suppose a packet $\Pi$ becomes active at time $\tau$. Then all packets currently in the network will have left it by the time $\tau+S$. If $\Pi$ has not left the queue by this time then $\Pi$ will certainly be eligible and can now enter. Thus we can take $a=2$. Thus, all the conditions of Theorem 2.1 are satisfied, and we prove:

Theorem 3.1 There is a constant $C$, such that the above algorithm is stable for any inter-arrival distribution with expectation at least $C$. The expected time a packet spends in the network is $O(\log n)$, and in the case of geometric interarrival time the expected time a packet spends in the system is $O(\log n)$.

After running the algorithm for a long time, wave numbers could be come very large. To avoid the storage of very large numbers, wave numbers can be stored $\bmod 2 A \log n$ and eligibility defined to take account of this in the obvious way.

## 4. Greedy dynamic routing with bounded buffers and injection rate $O(1 / \log n)$

We present in this section a simple greedy algorithm ("pure queueing protocol") that can sustain an inter-arrival distribution with expectation $\Omega(\log n)$ using buffers of size $q=O(1)$ in the routing switches. The algorithm and analysis is based on the static result of Maggs and Sitaraman [9].

We first describe the behavior of switches in the network:

- Packets are selected from buffers in FIFO order.
- A switch $V$ alternates between the two switches $W, W^{\prime}$ feeding it. If at time $t-1$ switch $V$ received a packet from switch $W$, at time $t$ it first checks switch $W^{\prime}$. If the buffer of $W$ is non-empty $W^{\prime}$ send a packet to $V$, otherwise $V$ returns to switch $W$.

The dynamic algorithm uses a token based flow control mechanism. Each input has $m=O(1)$ tokens. A token can be in one of three modes: active, used or suspended. Initially all tokens are in active mode. To inject a packet into the network the input needs an active token. A packet is sent with a token and the mode of the token switches to used mode. When a packet is delivered the token (acknowledgment) is returned to the input node. Let $t_{s}$ be the last time a given token was sent with a packet, let $t_{r}$ be the last time it returns to the input node. If $t_{r}-t_{s} \leq 2 K \log n$ then the token becomes active again at time $t_{s}+2 K \log n$. If
$t_{r}-t_{s}>2 K \log n$ then the token mode is switched to suspended mode for $2 m n S=4 m q n^{2}$ steps, then it is switched back to active mode ( $K$ is a constant fixed in the proof). This flow mechanism guarantees that an input cannot inject more than $m$ packets in each interval of $2 K \log n$ steps, and that the input does not inject new packets when the network is congested.

We use a separate network $\Gamma^{\prime}(n)$ to route tokens back to their sources and the analysis of this routing mirrors that for $\Gamma(n)$.

Lemma 4.1 Under this protocol, no packet takes more than $S=2 q n$ steps to complete its service, once it has obtained an active token.

Proof: We first prove by induction on $i$ that if a buffer $B$ at level $i$ is non-empty (level 0 is the output level) then after at most $2^{i}$ steps the front of the queue moves onto the next level. This is clear for $i=0$ and our protocol ensures that after at most $2 \times 2^{i-1}$ steps the switch will be able to move the front of $B$. Let $\mu$ be some packet waiting in $B$. FIFO selection then ensures that a packet spends at most $q 2^{i}$ time at steps at level $i$.

The proof in [9] is based on a delay tree argument. In our setting this is defined as follows: Fix a packet $\Pi$ which is one of the first $m$ packets of an input queue at time $\tau$. Let $M(\Pi)$ be the set of packets that were in the network during any step $t$ in which $\Pi$ was in the network. A node $v$ is full with respect to $\Pi$ if at least $q$ packets in $M(\Pi)$ traversed $v$. The spine $S P(\Pi)$ of $\Pi$ 's delay tree $T(\Pi)$ is the path in the network from its input node to its output node. Let $F(\mathrm{II})$ be the set of full nodes with respect to $\Pi$ in the network. $T$ (II) consists of $S P(\Pi)$ plus any node reachable from it by a path consisting entirely of nodes in $F(\Pi)$. The number of packets on the delay tree $T(\Pi)$, denote by $h(\Pi)$, is the sum over all the nodes of the tree, of the number of packets in $M(\Pi)$ visiting each of the nodes. (Note that packets can be counted several times in this count).

By Theorem 2.1 in [9] the time a packet $\Pi$ spends in the network is bounded by $\log n+h(\Pi)$.

Let $T=3 K \log n$, and define the event:
$\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ : There exists an input-output path $P$ such that considering all the packets that are in the network at time $\tau$, and the packets entering the network during the interval $[\tau, \tau+T=$ $\tau+3 K \log n]$,

$$
h(P) \geq(K-1) \log n
$$

(For each path $P$ we imagine a packet $\Pi$ that took that path and was in the network during the whole interval $[\tau, \tau+T]$. We compute the maximum of $h(\Pi)$ over all $P$.)

Clearly $\neg \mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ implies that any packet that was among the first $m$ packets in its queue at time $\tau$ was delivered before time $\tau+T$, since a packet waits no more than $2 K \log n$ till
it has an active token, and its routing takes no more than $K \log n$ steps.

We say that a packet is old at time $t$ if it was injected into the network before time $t-K \log n$. The network is in a good state at time $t$ if there are no old packets in the network and no token is in suspended mode. Otherwise the network is in a bad state. We define the event
$\mathcal{G}_{\tau}$ : The network is in a good state at time $\tau$.
Lemma 4.2 For any $c>0$ there exists $K=K(c)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau} \mid \mathcal{G}_{\tau}\right) \leq n^{-c}
$$

Proof: The flow control mechanism ensures that no input can inject more than $2 m=O(1)$ packets during the interval $[\tau-2 K \log n, \tau+3 K \log n]$. Thus, we are left with the problem of estimating the probability of having a delay tree $T(\Pi)$ with $h(\Pi) \geq(K-1) T$ when each input injects $\leq 2 m$ packets with random destinations into the network. The calculations here are similar to those in [9] Theorem 2.5. The main difference is that we have $2 m=O(1)$ packets per node instead of 1 .

It remains to bound the probability that the network is in a bad state at time $\tau$.

## Corollary 4.1

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{G}_{\tau} \mid \mathcal{G}_{\tau-K \log n}\right) \geq 1-n^{-c}
$$

Proof: If $\mathcal{G}_{\tau-K} \log n$ occurs then $\neg \mathcal{E}_{\tau-K \log n}$ occurs with the required probability. Consequently, any packet in the network at time $\tau-K \log n$ will have exited by time $\tau$. This implies the occurrence of $\mathcal{G}_{\tau}$.

Let $t_{0}=\tau-2 m n S$. We consider two cases:
Case 1: The network is in a good state at times $t_{0}, t_{0}+$ $1, \ldots, t_{0}+K \log n$. By Lemma 4.2 and Corollary 4.1 the probability that the network is in a bad state at any time $\tau^{\prime} \in$ $\left[t_{0}, \tau\right]$ is bounded by $2 m n S n^{-c}$.

Case 2: The network is in a bad state at time $t, t_{0} \leq$ $t \leq t_{0}+K \log n$. As long as there are old packets in the network at least one token switches to suspended mode in each interval of $S$ steps. Thus, at some step no later than time $t_{0}+n S+K \log n$ the network gets into a good state. Once in this state, the probability that any packet becomes old before time $\tau$ is bounded again by $2 m n S n^{-c}$. Applying Lemma 4.2, we see that regardless of the state of the network at time $\tau-2 m n S$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau}\right)=O\left(m S n^{1-c}\right)
$$

Theorem 4.1 There is a constant $C$, such that the above algorithm is stable for any injection rate with expected interarrival time greater than $C \log n$. The expected time a packet spends in the network is $O(\log n)$. In the case of geometric inter-arrival time the expected time a packet spends in the system is $O(\log n)$.

## 5. Greedy dynamic routing with buffers of size $O(\log n)$ and constant injection rate

The algorithm in the previous section sustains an injection rate which is only up to $O(1 / \log n)$ of the network capacity. We now present a greedy algorithm that is stable for any inter-arrival distribution with expectation bounded by some constant $C$, thus a constant fraction of the network capacity. This algorithm, however, requires buffers of size $q=O(\log n)$.

The algorithm and analysis is based on the static result in [8] Section 3.4.4. When a packet is injected to the network it receives a random priority number $r$ chosen uniformly at random from the interval $[1, \ldots, 8 e K \log n]$ ( $K$ is a constant fixed in the proof). We say that a packet in the network is old at time $t$ if it was injected before time $t-2 K \log n$, otherwise the packet is new. Packet are selected from the buffers according to the following rule: old packets have higher priority than new packets and they are selected in FIFO order. New packets are selected according to their random priority numbers.

The algorithm uses the same token based flow control mechanism as the one described in the previous section.

Lemma 5.1 Under this protocol, no packet takes more than $S=2 q n+2 K \log n$ steps to complete its service, once it has obtained an active token.

Proof: A packet becomes old $2 K \log n$ steps after it is injected to the network. Once a packet is old an argument similar to that given in the proof of lemma 4.1 ensures that the packet is delivered in the next $2 q n$ steps.
$T=3 K \log n$ and $\mathcal{G}_{\tau}$ has the same meaning as in the previous section. We define the event:
$\mathcal{E}_{\tau}^{1}$ : There is a delay sequence of length $K \log n$ at some time in the interval $[\tau, \tau+T]$.

We then let $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}=\mathcal{E}_{\tau}^{1} \cup \neg \mathcal{G}_{\tau}$.
Assume first that the buffers are unbounded. Then (see e.g. the proof of Theorem 3.26 of in [8]) the event $\neg \mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ implies that a packet that received an active token in the interval $[\tau, \tau+2 K \log n]$ is delivered within $K \log n$ steps, i.e. before time $\tau+T$. As there are no suspended tokens at time $\tau$ each token becomes active at least once in the interval $[\tau, \tau+2 K \log n]$, thus the first $m$ packets in each queue at time $\tau$ are delivered by time $\tau+T$. However, if no packet was delayed more than $K \log n$ steps, then no buffer had more than $K \log n$ packets at any step in that interval and we get the same performance as if each buffer had size $q=K \log n$. Thus, $\neg \mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ implies that the first $m$ packets in each queue at time $\tau$ are delivered up to time $\tau+T$.

Lemma 5.2

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau}^{1} \mid \mathcal{G}_{\tau}\right) \leq n^{-c} .
$$

Proof: The flow control mechanism guarantees that no more than $2 m$ packets are injected from each input in the interval $[\tau-2 K \log n, \tau+3 K \log n]$. The conditional probability is determined by the random destinations and priorities of these $\leq 2 m$ packets. Thus we can argue as in Theorem 3.26 of [8].

We can then follow the argument of the previous section, word for word and prove that regardless of the state of the network at time $\tau-2 m n S$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\tau}\right)=O\left(m S n^{1-c}\right)
$$

## 6. Adversarial model

In order to avoid probabilistic assumptions on the input, Borodin et al. [1] defined the adversarial input model. Instead of probabilistic assumptions, restrictions are placed on the amount of required traffic through each edge. More precisely, for an edge $e$ of the network and a time interval $I$ we let $\theta(e, I)$ denote the number of messages arriving during interval $I$ whose input-output path contains $e$. An adversary has injection rave $\alpha$ if for all $e$ and $I$ :

$$
\theta(e, I) \leq \alpha|I|
$$

where $|I|$ is the length of $I$.
Surprisingly, the main results of this paper can be extended to this model. We will indicate, in the limited space available, how to extend the result of Section 3 to the adversarial model. We assume that (11) holds for some (sufficiently small) $\alpha>0$.

When a packet arrives it adds a random offset between 1 and $c \log n$ to its wave number. We route packets in the way previously described. The only issue is the likelihood of a long delay sequence. As described previously, we have a set of buffers $s_{j}, j \in J$ and a set of wave numbers $W=$ $[w, w+A \log n]$. For each buffer we have a wave number $w_{j} \in W$, where $w_{j+1} \leq w_{j}$ and there is a set $P_{j}$ of packets which want to use this edge. Let $\mathcal{F}_{j}$ be the event: there exists a choice $\Pi_{j} \in P_{j}$ such that
(i) $\Pi_{j}$ has wave number $w_{j}$ and
(ii) $\Pi_{j} \notin\left\{\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots, \Pi_{j-1}\right\}$.

Our assumptions about input rate imply that $\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{F}_{j}\right) \leq \beta=$ $\alpha(c+A) / c<1$. More importantly, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathcal{F}_{j} \mid \mathcal{F}_{1}, \mathcal{F}_{2}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{j-1}\right) \leq \beta \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Condition on the occurrence of $\mathcal{F}_{1}, \mathcal{F}_{2}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{j-1}$ and let $P_{j}^{\prime}=P_{j} \backslash\left\{\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots, \Pi_{j-1}\right\}$ be the current set of choices for $\Pi_{j}$. The choice of wave number offset by packets is done independently and so the probability of $\mathcal{F}_{j}$ does not increase. Inequality (12) is enough to prove the unlikelihood of long delay sequences. The event $\mathcal{E}_{\tau}$ can be defined in the same way as before. Thus we prove the following theorem:

Theorem 6.1 There is a constant $\alpha>0$, such that for any adversary with injection rate $\alpha$ the system is stable, and the expected time a packet spends in the system is $O(\log n)$.

Similar modifications can be carried out for the other two models. Details are left to the final paper.

## References

[1] A. Borodin, J. Kleinberg, P. Raghavan, M. Sudan and D. P. Williamson Adversarial queuing theory. Proceedings of the 28th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing, pp. 376-385, 1996.
[2] A. Z. Broder and E. Upfal. Dynamic Deflection Routing in Arrays. Proceedings of the 28th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing, pp. 348-355, 1996.
[3] M. Harcol-Balter and P. Black. Queuing analysis of oblivious packet routing networks. Procs. of the 5th Annual ACMSIAM Symp. on Discrete Algorithms. Pages 583-592, 1994.
[4] M. Harcol-Balter and D. Wolf. Bounding delays in packetrouting networks. Procs. of the 27 th Annual ACM Symp. on Theory of Computing, 1995, pp. 248-257.
[5] N. Kahale and T. Leighton. Greedy dynamic routing on arrays. Procs. of the 6th Annual ACM-SIAM Symp. on Discrete Algorithms. Pages 558-566, 1995.
[6] L. Kleinrock. Queuing Systems Volume I: Theory, John Wiley, New York, NY, 1975.
[7] T. Leighton. Average case analysis of greedy routing algorithms on arrays. Procs. of the Second Annual ACM Symp. on Parallel Algorithms and Architectures. Pages 2-10, 1990.
[8] F. T. Leighton. Introduction to Parallel Algorithms and Architectures. Morgan-Kaufmann, San Mateo, CA 1992.
[9] B. M. Maggs and R. K. Sitaraman. Simple algorithms for routing on butterfly networks with bounded queues. Proc. of the 24th Annual ACM Symp. on Theory of Computing. Pages 150-161, 1992.
[10] M. Mitzenmacher. Bounds on the greedy algorithms for array networks. Procs. of the 6th Annual ACM Symp. on Parallel Algorithms and Architectures. Pages 346-353, 1994.
[11] A. G. Ranade. How to emulate shared memory. Procs. of the 28th Annual Symp. on Foundations of Computer Science, pages 185-194, October 1987.
[12] C. Scheideler and B. Voecking Universal continuous routing strategies. Procs. of the 8th Annual ACM Symp. on Parallel Algorithms and Architectures. 1996.
[13] G. D. Stamoulis and J. N. Tsitsiklis. The efficiency of greedy routing in hypercubes and butterflies. Procs. of the 6th Annual ACM Symp. on Parallel Algorithms and Architectures. Pages 346-353, 1994.
[14] E. Upfal. Efficient schemes for parallel communication. Journal of the ACM, 31 (1984):507-517.


[^0]:    *Digital Systems Research Center, 130 Lytton Avenue, Palo Alto, CA 94301, USA. E-mail: broder@pa.dec.com
    ${ }^{\dagger}$ Department of Mathematics Carnegie Mellon University. Research supported in part by NSF Grant CCR-9925008. E-mail: af1p@andrew.cmu. edu
    ${ }^{\text {IBM }}$ Almaden Research Center, San Jose, CA 95120, USA, and Department of Applied Mathematics, The Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, Israel. Work at the Weizmann Institute supported in part by the Norman D. Cohen Professorial Chair of Computer Science, a MINERVA grant, and a grant from the Israeli Academy of Science. E-mail: eli@wisdom.weizmann.ac.il

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This requirement is much stronger than necessary in the proof and was chosen for convenience.

