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Space-Optimal Counting in Population Protocols

[Extended Version]

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Abstract. In this paper, we study the fundamental problem of *counting*, which consists in computing the size of a system. We consider the distributed communication model of *population protocols* of finite state, anonymous and asynchronous mobile devices (*agents*) communicating in pairs (according to a *fairness* condition). This work significantly improves the previous results known for counting in this model, in terms of (exact) space complexity. We present, prove correct and analyze the time complexities of the first space-optimal protocols solving the problem for two classical types of fairness, *global* and *weak*. Both protocols require no initialization of the counted agents.

The protocol designed for global fairness, surprisingly, uses only one bit of memory (two states) per counted agent. The protocol, functioning under weak fairness, requires the necessary $\log P$ bits (P states, per counted agent) to be able to count up to P agents. Interestingly, this protocol exploits the intriguing Gros sequence of natural numbers, which is also used in the solutions to the Chinese Rings and the Hanoi Towers puzzles. The convergence time of the protocol is exponential, but we prove that this is necessary (within a constant factor) for obtaining a space-optimal and *semi-uniform* solution.

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1 Introduction

Counting is a fundamental task in computer science, as illustrated by numerous and important applications of this paradigm in many domains, like network traffic monitoring, database query optimization, or data mining. The context of this work is that of dynamic wireless ad-hoc networks. In this context, many efficient counting protocols have been proposed recently (e.g., [17, 22, 24, 26]).

More precisely, we consider large-scale ad-hoc networks of mobile sensors, in which cheap and tiny devices, with limited communication, memory and computation power, move around and cooperate for achieving some task. Such networks are of an unknown size, fundamentally asynchronous (no common clock), anonymous (no identifiers) and not permanently connected (due to communication limitation). The design of these networks is now focused on complex collections of heterogeneous devices that should be robust, adaptive and self-organizing, serving requests that vary with time. There are many reasons for these devices to fail: extreme external conditions of temperature or pressure, battery exhaustion, failures inherent to their cheap realization, etc. The ability to count them (e.g., for, possibly, replacing some) may be crucial for ensuring that the tasks are performed efficiently. In this work, we propose solutions to this problem, concerning especially the reliability and the size requirements of the memory of the network nodes.

To be able to analyze our solutions, we adopt a formal communication model that suits the considered networks. This is the model of *population protocols* (PP) [3]. In PP, mobile devices, called agents, are anonymous, undistinguishable and asynchronous. Each agent has a finite state, that evolves over the course of interactions. When two agents are sufficiently close one to the other, they interact, and the effect of the interaction is a change of their states. The mobility is modeled in a very general way, by a fairness assumption which is called *global fairness*. In addition to this original fairness of PP, we consider also a classical type of fairness for distributed computing, which we call here *weak*. While global fairness captures the randomization inherent to many real systems, weak fairness only ensures progress of system entities. In general, PP is well adapted to dynamic networks in which the topology changes (like in peer-to-peer networks), or to networks in which nodes move unpredictably (like in mobile sensor networks).

The objective of this paper is to make a step towards a better understanding of the possibilities and limitations of such networks, in studying the feasibility and the complexity of the fundamental task of counting the number of agents. The task of counting anonymous agents in PP has already been studied and several results are known. Basically, we improve these results in terms of exact space complexity. Moreover, the solutions we give are space optimal. Space is a crucial factor, since a low memory is a basic condition in large-scale and unreliable networks.

Current and previous studies on counting in PP consider various parameters of the model that affect efficiency, generality and feasibility of the solutions. We list and explain them below together with the related impossibility results:

- The first parameter is the nature of the *fairness*: global or weak. We consider both cases, as already explained above. See formal definitions in Sec. 2.
- The second parameter is the requirement of *initialization* of agent states. On one hand, efficient protocols for dynamic and unreliable networks should not require initialization. There are at least two reasons for that. First, the agents are cheap and prone to failures. So, it should be expected that some memory or communication errors happen. Second, in dynamic and unreliable environments, it should be possible to execute most of the tasks, and counting too, in a repetitive way. In both cases, re-initializing the network could be a real problem. Moreover, it is generally hard to know when such a re-initialization should be done, as termination detection is generally difficult to obtain in such networks.

On the other hand, if no agent state can be initialized, it is impossible to realize counting in PP, under weak or global fairness. This can be proven by using a classical technique of network partitioning (see Prop. 4 in the appendix).

Thus, to be able to solve the problem and still avoid initialization, all previous works, as well as the current one, assume the initialization of *only one* particular (and thus distinguishable) agent called the *base station* (BS).

- For defining the data structures used by finite-state agents in the solutions, all previous studies assume the existence of a known *upper bound P on the number of (non-BS) agents*. The space complexity of the solution is then expressed as a function of the necessary number of states per agent with respect to P . This is justified in the case of weak fairness, since it has been proved in [8] that P (or more) agents cannot be counted with strictly less than P states per agent by deterministic protocols (considered here as well). However, in case of global fairness, we show that this assumption is not needed, by presenting a protocol using only two states per agent.
- Finally, population protocols may be *symmetric* or *asymmetric*. In symmetric protocols, two agents in an interaction (and thus in the corresponding transition) are indistinguishable if their states are identical. Thus, their states are identical also after the transition. In asymmetric protocols, two agents in an interaction can be always distinguished (e.g., there is always an initiator and a responder in the interaction). Our study considers the more difficult and general case of symmetric protocols. Such protocols can be deployed in networks with either symmetric or asymmetric communications.

Most Related Work. Before presenting the contributions, we summarize the previous results about counting in symmetric PP. For the reasons explained above, all these results assume a distinguishable agent BS and do not require any initialization of non-BS agents. Moreover, BS is considered to be a powerful device, so its resources are in general not concerned by the protocol design.

In [8], the authors present different solutions to counting in PP. In particular, they propose a symmetric protocol using $4P$ states per non-BS agent under weak fairness, and prove the above-mentioned lower bound of P states. The authors of [17] improve the solution in [8] from $4P$ to $2P$ states, under weak fairness, and to $\frac{3}{2}P$ under global fairness. This latter result for global fairness is improved to P in [7].

Note that an asymmetric population protocol can be transformed into a symmetric one using the transformer of [9]. However, this transformer requires global fairness and doubles the number of states per agent. This makes it inadequate for obtaining a space efficient symmetric solution from an asymmetric one (in terms of exact space).

Contributions. For the first time, we present and prove correct two space-optimal symmetric population protocols solving the counting problem. One solves the problem under global fairness, and uses only one bit of memory (two states) per non-BS agent (Protocol 1, Sec. 3). It is shown that one agent state is not enough to solve the problem. The other protocol, designed for weak fairness, uses only the necessary P states per non-BS agent (Protocol 2, Sec. 4). Both protocols do not assume any initialization of the counted agents, but the necessary initialization of BS. The protocol assuming weak fairness is *silent* (i.e., no state changes after convergence). However, we show that no silent space-optimal counting protocol exists in our framework under global fairness.

The protocols are given with their time complexity analysis. The model of population protocols being inherently asynchronous and the definitions of the weak (and global) fairness including no bounds, the time complexity must be computed in less classical terms. With weak fairness, it can be done using *non-null transitions* (the ones that change agent states, i.e., make some progress towards the solution), or in terms of *asynchronous rounds* (the shortest fragments of execution

where each agent interacts with all the others). We analyze the solution under weak fairness with these complexity measures, and found that it is exponential. Together with that, we prove that such convergence time is necessary (within a constant factor) for obtaining a space-optimal semi-uniform solution, where semi-uniform means that no knowledge of N or P are used by a solution (seed definition in the model section).

For the protocol under global fairness, as is generally done, we give a probabilistic time complexity analysis assuming that the communications between agents follow a probabilistic uniform law. Note that, in this case, the analysis in terms of non-null transitions or in terms of rounds would yield an infinite time complexity, due to the nature of global fairness.

Other Related Work. Apart from the works already mentioned in the context of PP, there are many others related to counting in related models. Many, like [22, 26, 13, 24, 23], consider the synchronous model of dynamic graph. In this model, a computation proceeds by synchronous rounds and, for each round, an adversary chooses the links available for sending messages. Similarly to our case, in the cited works, all nodes execute the same code and have no information about the network (in most cases). In addition, all, except [22], assume anonymous nodes having no unique identifiers. However, in contrast with this work, all nodes have to be initialized, and authors are concerned with *asymptotic* complexity in terms of rounds, bits and messages. All, but [13], study counting. [13] studies a related problem of assigning (short) labels to nodes.

The problem of counting *approximately* the number of nodes in a network, using probabilities, is known under the term of *size estimation*. A common approach to network size estimation is to use random walks [28, 15] relying on a token being passed around the network to collect information each time it visits an agent. Another strategy is to use randomly generated numbers [21], and then exploit classical results on order statistics to infer the number of participants [6, 30].

In the context of large scale peer-to-peer and dynamic networks in general, probabilistic and gossiping methods have also been proposed for estimating the size of the network [25, 14, 19, 27, 21].

Another problem related to counting is the *resource controller* problem, introduced in [1] and optimized in [20, 12]. The main difference with our model is that topological changes can be delayed until permission has been granted by the controller.

To summarize, the most significant differences of the works mentioned in this section with the current work is that we consider a totally asynchronous model of finite state anonymous and non-initialized deterministic processes. Moreover, in the considered model, termination detection is difficult and in many cases impossible. This makes sequential composition of protocols challenging.

2 Model and Notations

As a basic model we use the model of *population protocols* of Angluin et al. [5] with some adaption as detailed below. In this model, a system consists of a collection \mathcal{A} of pairwise interacting agents, also called a population. Each agent represents a finite state sensing and communicating mobile device. Among the agents, there may be a distinguishable agent called the *base station* (BS), which can be as powerful as needed, in contrast with the resource-limited non-BS agents. The non-BS agents are also called *mobile*, interchangeably. The size of the population is the number of mobile agents, denoted by N , and is unknown (a priori) to the agents.

A *protocol* in this model (a population protocol) can be modeled as a *finite* transition system whose states are called *configurations*. A *configuration* is a function that associates each agent with its state. Each agent has a state taken from a finite set, the same for all mobile agents (denoted Q), but generally different for BS.

In this transition system, every transition between two configurations is modeled by a *transition* between two agents happening during an interaction. That is, when two agents x , in state p , and y ,

in state q , interact (meet), they execute a transition $(p, q) \rightarrow (p', q')$. As a result, x changes its state from p to p' and y from q to q' . If $p = p'$ and $q = q'$, the corresponding transition is called *null* (such transitions are specified by default), and non-null otherwise.³ The transitions are *deterministic*, if for every pair of states (p, q) , there is exactly one (p', q') such that $(p, q) \rightarrow (p', q')$. We consider only deterministic transitions and thus, only *deterministic protocols*. Transitions and protocols can be *symmetric* or *asymmetric*. Symmetric means that, if $(p, q) \rightarrow (p', q')$ is a possible transition, then $(q, p) \rightarrow (q', p')$ is also a possible transition. In particular, if $(p, p) \rightarrow (p', q')$ is symmetric, $p' = q'$. Asymmetric is the contrary of symmetric.

Let C and C' be configurations. Then, $C \rightarrow C'$ is a transition (between two configurations), if C' can be obtained from C by a single transition of two agents in an interaction. This means that C contains two states p and q and C' is obtained from C by replacing p and q by p' and q' respectively, where $(p, q) \rightarrow (p', q')$ is a transition. If there is a sequence of configurations $C = C_0, C_1, \dots, C_k = C'$, such that $C_i \rightarrow C_{i+1}$ for all $i, 0 \leq i < k$, we say that C' is *reachable* from C , denoted $C \xrightarrow{*} C'$.

An *execution* of a protocol is an infinite sequence of configurations C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots such that C_0 is the starting configuration and for each $i \geq 0$, $C_i \rightarrow C_{i+1}$. In a real distributed execution, interactions could take place simultaneously, but when writing down an execution we can order those simultaneous interactions arbitrarily. An *asynchronous round* (or simply, a round) is defined as a shortest segment in an execution where each agent interacts with every other.

An execution is said *weakly fair*, if every pair of agents in \mathcal{A} interacts infinitely often. An execution is said *globally fair*, if for every two configurations C and C' such that $C \rightarrow C'$, if C occurs infinitely often in the execution, then C' also occurs infinitely often in the execution. This definition together with the finite state space assumption, implies that, if in an execution there is an infinitely often reachable configuration, then it is infinitely often reached [4]. Global fairness can be viewed as simulating randomized systems (without introducing randomization explicitly) [18].

A *problem* is defined by a predicate \mathcal{D} on executions. A population protocol \mathcal{PP} is said to *solve a problem* \mathcal{D} , if and only if every execution of \mathcal{PP} satisfies the conditions defining \mathcal{D} . The problem of *counting* is defined by the following conditions: eventually, in any execution, there is at least one agent (BS, in our case) obtaining a value of N in some variable and this value does not change. Note that the counting predicate is required to be satisfied only eventually (and forever after). When it happens, we say that the protocol has *converged*. The *convergence time* of a protocol in terms of (non-null) transitions, or in terms of asynchronous rounds, is defined by the maximum possible number of (non-null) transitions, or (respectively) rounds, in an execution, till convergence. We consider only *semi-uniform* protocols in the sense that the size of the population N is not used by a protocol and all agents, except BS, are (a priori) indistinguishable and interact according to the same possible transitions [11, 29]. A protocol is called *silent*, if in any execution, eventually, no state of an agent changes [10].

For simplicity, we do not present the rules of our protocols under the form of possible transitions, but under the equivalent form of a pseudo-code.

3 Space-Optimal Counting under Global Fairness

In this section, we present a space-optimal protocol (Protocol 1 below) solving the counting problem under global fairness. The protocol uses only one bit of memory, i.e., only two states per mobile (non-BS) agent. Its convergence time is $\Theta(2^N)$ transitions in average (see below).

³ In practice, when interacting with BS, the computations can be done completely on the side of BS (i.e., the state of BS is not communicated to the mobile agent). The non-BS agent only updates its state with the resulting one. In interactions between two mobile agents, in the protocols described in this paper, the agents only have to be able to compare their states.

It is easy to see that with only one state per mobile agent, counting is impossible. Indeed, in this case, BS cannot distinguish between populations of one or more mobile agents (see the proof of Prop. 5 in the appendix). In addition, a partitioning argument can be used to show why no silent (uniform) counting protocol exists with only two states per agent (see the proof of Prop. 6 in the appendix).

Protocol 1 Description. Each mobile agent x has one bit $mark_x$, which is flipped at each interaction of x with BS. Between any two mobile agents, there are only null transitions. BS maintains a variable $size_total_{BS}$ that eventually and forever holds the size of the population N . In addition, it maintains an array $size_{BS}[2]$ of two elements, where $size_{BS}[0]$ holds an estimation for the number of mobile agents currently marked 0 (i.e., with $mark = 0$), and similarly, $size_{BS}[1]$ estimates the number of agents currently marked 1. Eventually, these estimations become correct forever and $size_total_{BS}$ too, because the latter is computed at each transition as the sum of $size_{BS}[0]$ and $size_{BS}[1]$ (line 6). The protocol itself can be described in a simple way. Whenever an agent marked 0 interacts with BS, BS flips its mark (to 1), decrements the estimation of 0 marked agents, i.e., $size_{BS}[0]$ (if it is not 0), and increases the estimation of 1 marked agents, i.e., $size_{BS}[1]$ (similarly for an agent marked 1).

The idea behind this solution is to try to reach a configuration, using the force of global fairness, where all agents are marked similarly, let us say, by 0 (the proof of Theorem 1 shows that it is possible). From such a configuration, there is always a *possible* segment of execution where each agent x interacts with BS, exactly once. In each such interaction, the mark of x is flipped, to “remember” that it has been “counted”. By the end of such an execution segment, all agents are marked 1 (i.e., as “counted”). Moreover, both estimations of the number of agents marked 1 and 0 in $size_{BS}[1]$ and in $size_{BS}[0]$, respectively, are correct and stay correct from this moment on. Thus, the estimation of the size of the population (in $size_total_{BS}$) becomes also correct. By global fairness, the scenario above appears in any execution of Protocol 1 (Theorem 1).

Protocol 1 Space-Optimal Counting under Global Fairness (one bit per agent)

Variables at BS:

$size_{BS}[2]$: array of two non-negative integers, initialized to 0

$size_total_{BS}$: non-negative integer initialized to 0; eventually holds N

Variable at a mobile agent x :

$mark_x$: in $\{0, 1\}$, initialized *arbitrarily*

```

1: when a mobile agent  $x$  interacts with BS do
2:   if  $size[mark_x] > 0$  then
3:      $size[mark_x] \leftarrow size[mark_x] - 1$ 
4:      $mark_x \leftarrow 1 - mark_x$ 
5:      $size[mark_x] \leftarrow size[mark_x] + 1$ 
6:      $size\_total_{BS} \leftarrow size_{BS}[0] + size_{BS}[1]$ 

```

Correctness of Protocol 1. Let us denote by $\#0(C)$, respectively $\#1(C)$, the number of agents marked 0 (i.e., with $mark = 0$), respectively 1, in a configuration C . The proof of Lemma 1 is done by induction on the index of a configuration in an execution.

Lemma 1. *For every configuration C , $size_{BS}[0] \leq \#0(C)$ (resp. $size_{BS}[1] \leq \#1(C)$).*

Proof. First, let us prove the lemma for $size_{BS}[0]$. We prove by induction on the index $k \geq 0$ of a configuration in an execution $(C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k, \dots)$. At the starting configuration C_0 , $k = 0$, the lemma holds because of the initialization of $size_{BS}[0]$ to 0. Let us assume that the lemma holds

for $k = k'$ and prove it for $k = k' + 1$. Then, $size_{BS}[0] \leq \#0(C_{k'})$. From any configuration, and from $C_{k'}$ in particular, the only possible interaction (BS, x) is of two types, either x is marked 0 ($mark_x = 0$), or 1:

- If x is marked 0, during the following transition, its mark is flipped to 1 (line 4) and thus $\#0(C_{k'+1}) = \#0(C_{k'}) - 1$. At line 3, $size_{BS}[0]$ is decremented too (if it is not 0), and this is the only line that changes $size_{BS}[0]$ in this transition (line 5 changes $size_{BS}[1]$). Thus, after this transition, in $C_{k'+1}$, $size_{BS}[0] \leq \#0(C_{k'+1})$.

- If, during an interaction (BS, x) at $C_{k'}$, x is marked 1, during the following transition, its mark is flipped to 0 (line 4) and thus $\#0(C_{k'+1}) = \#0(C_{k'}) + 1$. At line 5, $size_{BS}[0]$ is incremented too, and this is the only line that changes $size_{BS}[0]$ in this transition (line 3 changes $size_{BS}[1]$). Thus, after this transition, in $C_{k'+1}$, $size_{BS}[0] \leq \#0(C_{k'+1})$.

Thus, the lemma holds for $size_{BS}[0]$. As $size_{BS}[1]$ is managed exactly in the same (but symmetric) way as $size_{BS}[0]$, the lemma also holds for $size_{BS}[1]$. \square

As $size_total_{BS}$ is always set to the sum of $size_{BS}[0]$ and $size_{BS}[1]$ (line 6), we have the following corollary.

Corollary 1. *In any configuration, $size_total_{BS} \leq N$.*

Lemma 2 below is easily obtained by observing the pseudo-code.

Lemma 2. *The value of $size_total_{BS}$ never decreases.*

Proof. The value of $size_total_{BS}$ can decrease only by executing line 3, $size[mark_x] \leftarrow size[mark_x] - 1$. Whenever this line is executed in a transition, line 5 is executed in the same transition too. Due to line 4, in line 5, $size[1 - mark_x] \leftarrow size[1 - mark_x] + 1$. Thus, if line 3 is executed in some transition, $size_total_{BS}$ does not change in this transition. In all other cases, it can only increase. \square

Theorem 1. *Under global fairness, (symmetric) Protocol 1 solves the counting problem. Eventually, $size_total_{BS} = N$ and does not change anymore.*

Proof. To prove the theorem, we show below that, from any possible configuration, there is a reachable configuration C^* s.t., in C^* , $size_total_{BS} = N$. Then, by global fairness, such configuration is eventually reached. Finally, by corollary 1 and lemma 2, we have $size_total_{BS} = N$ in all subsequent configurations.

Now we show why C^* is always reachable. Consider a configuration C . In C , let $size_{BS}[0] = x_0$, $size_{BS}[1] = x_1$, where x_0, x_1 are non-negative integers $\leq N$. By lemma 1, there are $0 \leq x'_0, x'_1 \leq N$ s.t. $\#0(C) = x_0 + x'_0$ and $\#1(C) = x_1 + x'_1$. Then, from C , there is the following possible execution (that reaches C^*). First, $x_1 + x'_1$ agents marked 1 interact with BS, each one exactly once. It is easy to verify, by the code of Protocol 1, that at the end of this segment of execution, $size_{BS}[0] = x_0 + x_1 + x'_1$, $size_{BS}[1] = 0$ and $\#0(C) = x_0 + x'_0 + x_1 + x'_1 = N$, $\#1(C) = 0$ (all agents are marked 0). Now, $x_0 + x_1 + x'_1$ agents interact with BS (each one exactly once), what results in $size_{BS}[0] = 0$, $size_{BS}[1] = x_0 + x_1 + x'_1$ and $\#0(C) = x'_0$, $\#1(C) = x_0 + x_1 + x'_1$. Finally, x'_0 agents marked 0 interact with BS, each one exactly once. Now, $size_{BS}[0] = 0$, $size_{BS}[1] = x_0 + x'_0 + x_1 + x'_1 = N$ and $\#0(C) = 0$, $\#1(C) = x_0 + x'_0 + x_1 + x'_1 = N$ (all agents are marked 1). In this configuration, $size_total_{BS} = N$, and thus C^* is reachable from (any configuration) C . \square

Time Complexity Analysis. Global fairness only applies to infinite schedules and expresses a condition on which there are no bounds. In consequence, a complexity study in terms of real time, the number of interactions, or even in terms of rounds or non-null transitions would yield an infinite

complexity. On the other hand, there is a strong relation between global fairness and randomization (of interactions) [18]. This is why, generally in population protocols the time complexity analysis is based on a probabilistic law on the interactions between agents. Since it is anyhow an approximation, and for the sake of simplicity, the uniform law is used. We follow a similar approach and evaluate the convergence time of Protocol 1 in term of the average number of transitions. Below, we sketch the analysis and we give the details in the appendix.

To calculate the convergence time, we use the observation (stated by Lemma 5 appeared and proven in the appendix) that Protocol 1 must first reach a configuration with all mobile agents in the same state, and then a configuration with all the agents in the other state (recall that there are only two mobile agent states).

Thus, consider a population of N agents, and let t_k be the average number of transitions that happen before all agents are in state 0, starting from a configuration with k agents in state 1. Then, $t_0 = 0$ trivially. For $1 \leq k \leq N - 1$, $t_k = 1 + \frac{k}{N}t_{k-1} + \frac{N-k}{N}t_{k+1}$. This is because, at the current step, there are k chances out of N that an agent in state 1 meets BS, leading to a configuration with $k - 1$ agents in state 1; and $N - k$ chances out of N that an agent in state 0 interacts with BS resulting in a configuration with $k + 1$ agents in state 1. Finally, $t_N = 1 + t_{N-1}$.

From that we have $t_N = 2^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k}} = 2^N + o(2^N)$ (see the appendix for details), and the average convergence time of Protocol 1 is $\Theta(2^N)$ transitions.

4 Space-Optimal Counting under Weak Fairness

In this section, we present a silent symmetric space-optimal protocol (Protocol 2 below) solving the counting problem under weak fairness (see Theorem 2 and Corollary 2). Its convergence time is $\Theta(2^N)$ (Corollary 3), and we prove that such a convergence time is necessary, within a constant factor, for obtaining a space-optimal solution. The protocol is correct starting from arbitrary states in mobile agents, but BS. It uses at most P states per agent, which is *necessary* in the current conditions for solving counting in populations with at most P mobile agents ($N \leq P$) [8].

Protocol 2 General Description. In this protocol, BS eventually counts the mobile agents and stores the value in variable n . To realize this, BS successively attempts to guess the number of mobile agents in the population, starting from 1 and ending with N (this guess is stored in n). For each guess $n < P$, BS tries to name (differently) mobile agents in state 0 (zero-state) interacting with BS (lines 3 and 9). That is, BS tries to assign to these agents distinct states from $\{1, \dots, n\}$ (also called here names). State 0 has a special technical role. Whenever two agents with identical names (*homonyms*) interact, they change their state to 0 (line 12). Thus, this state indicates to BS that, either it has created homonyms before, or that homonyms (or, simply, agents in state 0) existed already in the population in the starting configuration.

Thus, zero-state mobile agents are named by BS. The names are given one by one following some finite sequence U^* of names (line 9). For simplicity, in the presented protocol, this sequence is computed in advance and depends on P . However, for an optimized version, the required prefix of U^* , U_N , can be computed on the fly, during an execution (see Remark 1). Sequence U^* guarantees that, if there are $N < P$ agents, whatever their starting states are, the naming succeeds. If no naming succeeds, BS concludes that there are more than $P - 1$ agents, that is $N = P$. Thus, the protocol actually realizes a (consecutive minimal) naming for any $N < P$ in order to realize finally a counting for any $N \leq P$.

Another important property of U^* is that, for every guess n , if all the terms of U^* , from the first to some l_n^{th} term, have been used by BS to name interacting agents, then BS can conclude that the guess of n is wrong. It is safe then to switch to the next guess $n + 1$ (line 8). In the sequel, we

denote the prefix of U^* of length l_n by U_n ($l_n = |U_n|$). Any term of U_n is in $\{1, \dots, n\}$. Thus, if BS meets an agent in a state $> n$, it can conclude that it has never seen this agent before. Hence, it can safely deduce that $N > n$, and switch to the next guess $n + 1$ (lines 5 - 8).

As long as there are agents in state 0 or in a state $> n$, and $n < P$ (line 2), the base station continues renaming and counting, because all these agents will eventually interact with BS (by weak fairness). If there are homonyms, eventually they meet too and switch to state 0 (again, by fairness).

Protocol 2 Space-Optimal Counting under Weak Fairness (P states per agent)

Variables at BS:

n : non-negative integer initialized to 0 // guess of the population size; eventually holds N
 k : non-negative integer initialized to 0 // pointer to the k^{th} element of U^*

Shortcuts at BS:

U^* : constant sequence of elements in $[1, \dots, P - 1]$ computed in advance
by the recursion $U_1 \equiv 1, U^* \equiv U_{P-1} \equiv U_{P-2}, P - 1, U_{P-2}$
 $U^*(k)$: returns the k^{th} element of U^*
 $l_n = 2^n - 1$ ($\equiv |U_n|$)

Variable at a mobile agent x :

$name_x$: non-negative integer in $[0, \dots, P - 1]$, initialized *arbitrarily*

```

1: when a mobile agent  $x$  interacts with BS do
2:   if  $n < P \wedge (name_x = 0 \vee name_x > n)$  then
3:     if  $name_x = 0$  then
4:        $k \leftarrow k + 1$  // advance  $k$  to point to the next element of  $U^*$ 
5:     else if  $name_x > n$  then
6:        $k \leftarrow l_n + 1$  // because agent  $x$  with a name  $> n$  could not be seen before by BS,
// the population must be larger than  $n$ , so  $k$  is advanced accordingly
7:     if  $k > l_n$  then
8:        $n \leftarrow n + 1$  // pointer  $k$  indicates that the population is larger
9:        $name_x \leftarrow U^*(k)$  // set the name of  $x$  to the the  $k^{th}$  element of  $U^*$ 
10: when two mobile agents  $x$  and  $y$  interact do
11:   if  $name_x = name_y$  then
12:      $name_x \leftarrow name_y \leftarrow 0$  // set homonym states to 0

```

4.1 Naming Sequence U^* - the Gros Sequence

As a matter of fact, sequence U^* is not unique. We choose and define one of the possible such sequences. We also prove the properties claimed about it above.

To define the sequence U^* , we consider the infinite sequence U_∞ , whose left prefix U_n is defined recursively by $U_n \equiv U_{n-1}, n, U_{n-1}$, where $U_1 \equiv 1$.

Sequence U^* is obtained for $n = P - 1$, i.e., $U^* \equiv U_{P-1} \equiv U_{P-2}, P - 1, U_{P-2}$.

For example, the prefix U_4 of U_∞ is: 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 2, 1, 4, 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 2, 1.

Let $l_n \equiv |U_n|$. By construction of sequence U_∞ , $l_1 = 1$, and $l_{n+1} = 2l_n + 1$, which gives $l_n = 2^n - 1$. Then, using the recursive definition of U_∞ we obtain that $\forall n, U_\infty(2^n) = n + 1$ and $\forall n, \forall 1 \leq k < 2^n, U_\infty(2^n + k) = U_\infty(k)$.

Remark 1. Based on this alternative description, U_∞ , and U^* in particular, can be defined iteratively. The k^{th} term of U_∞ is one plus the index of the least significant non-zero bit in the binary decomposition of k . Thus, BS does not need to store the whole sequence of names in advance. It

can compute the next state to assign to a mobile agent based on a single integer variable. Such computation of the sequence does not depend on P , but on the number of the sequence terms which will be actually used. For this sequence, the number of terms used to name n agents is at most $l_n = 2^n - 1$. In consequence, the number of interactions (before convergence) between BS and an agent in state 0 or $> n$ is at most l_N .

Remark 2. It appears that U_∞ is known in the literature under the name of Gros sequence. This sequence can be found all over mathematics. It has remarkable properties with respect to the binary numeration, generating a Gray code. It encodes an Hamiltonian cycle on the edges of a n -dimensional cube. It is also the “greediest” square-free sequence (if one builds the sequence in choosing at each step the smallest integer that does not produce a square). Finally, the Gros sequence solves the Chinese Rings puzzle and, surprisingly, solved the Tower of Hanoi puzzle long before the latter was at all invented. For details refer to [16, 2].

One of the intuitions behind the use of the Gros sequence for counting is related to the Hamiltonian cycle property on a cube. Consider a multi-dimensional cube whose vertices are labeled by the multi-sets of n names and edges connect vertices that differ by exactly one name. Whatever the initial names are (the agents can be arbitrarily initialized), the Gros sequence leads, by traveling along the Hamiltonian cycle it encodes, to the vertex where all names are distinct. In the corresponding configuration the counting can be performed.

Now we give a more precise, but also more technical, explanation why, by using this particular sequence U^* , BS correctly counts $N (\leq P)$ agents. Consider the prefix $U_n = U_{n-1}, n, U_{n-1}$ of U^* . By assigning successively the numbers given by U_n , and in particular by the prefix U_{n-1} , BS can assign *distinct* names from $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$ to *all* agents, only if $N \leq n-1$. If it is not the case ($N > n-1$), BS eventually detects it whenever it meets an agent x , either in state $> n-1$, or in state 0 *after* the last name in U_{n-1} has been assigned (i.e., homonyms still exist). Then, BS guesses that $N = n$, and continues naming with the sub-sequence (n, U_{n-1}) . That is, it assigns state n to agent x which becomes unique, if effectively $N = n$. If this is the case, BS should successfully rename the remaining $n-1$ agents with $n-1$ states from $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$, following, once again, the naming sequence defined by U_{n-1} . From now on, the procedure repeats for the sequence $U_{n+1} = U_n, n+1, U_n$. If the guess of $N = n$ was wrong, BS eventually detects it (at least, by the end of the prefix U_n), and switches to guess $n+1$. That is, it will continue naming according to $(n+1, U_n)$. This continues until the guess of BS is correct, or till all attempts have failed, meaning that $N = P$.

Remark 3. We would like to better put into perspective the strategy of Protocol 2 to resolve the name conflicts. At the same time, we compare this strategy to the one of the counting protocol in [17], using $2P$ states (in the same conditions). First, intuitively, as BS cannot detect homonyms, this has to be the responsibility of the mobile agents. In both considered protocols, mobile agents inform BS about the detected homonyms. In Protocol 2, they do it using a special state 0. In [17], it is done using a special state D_i ($i \in \{1 \dots P\}$), which also indicates to BS the specific state S_i of these detected homonyms. This information helps BS to effectively assign new names and advance towards the solution. On the contrary, in Protocol 2, there is no available state space in mobile agents to provide any additional useful information to BS about the specific states of the detected homonyms. Thus, BS cannot name the agents efficiently and has to use a kind of exhaustive renaming, using the recursive Gros sequence. These intuitions have a formal basis proven in Sec. 4.3.

4.2 Correctness of Protocol 2

In the proofs below, we consider a set E of non-zero-states associated to a configuration C s.t., for every $s \in E$, the number of mobile agents in state s in C is odd. This allows to focus only on the transitions involving BS, and not on transitions between homonyms, which will happen eventually and do not change the parity of the number of agents in any state. Moreover, for any $E, E' \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$, we denote by $E \Delta E' \equiv E \cup E' - E \cap E'$ their symmetric difference. In particular, $E \Delta \{e\}$ ($e \in \{1, \dots, n\}$) is $E \cup \{e\}$ if $e \notin E$, and $E - \{e\}$ if $e \in E$.

In Lemma 3 below, we prove that when the sequence U^* is used by the protocol, it guarantees that, if $N < P$, E evolves until $E = \{1, \dots, N\}$, where all mobile agents have distinct names. Then, using Lemma 3 we obtain the main Theorem 2.

Lemma 3. *Let $E_0 \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $E_{k+1} = E_k \Delta \{U_\infty(k+1)\}$. There exists some $1 \leq j \leq 2^n - 1$ such that $E_j = \{1, \dots, n\}$.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{H}_n ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) be the induction hypothesis “for any subset $E_0 \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$ and such that $E_{k+1} = E_k \Delta \{U_\infty(k+1)\}$, there is $E_j = \{1, \dots, n\}$ for some $1 \leq j \leq 2^n - 1$ ”.

Let us prove the basis for $n = 1$, i.e., for \mathcal{H}_1 . As $U_\infty(1) = 1$, if $E_0 = \emptyset$, then $E_1 = \{1\}$ and $j = 1$. If $E_0 = \{1\}$, $j = 0$. Thus \mathcal{H}_1 is true.

Assume that, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, \mathcal{H}_n is true, and consider $E_0 \subset \{1, \dots, n+1\}$.

First, consider the case where $n+1 \in E_0$. Set $E'_0 = E_0 - \{n+1\}$ and $E'_{k+1} = E'_k \Delta \{U_\infty(k+1)\}$. For all $k \leq 2^n - 1$, $E_k = E'_k \cup \{n+1\}$. According to \mathcal{H}_n , there exists j such that $E'_j = \{1, \dots, n\}$. Then, $E_j = E'_j \cup \{n+1\} = \{1, \dots, n+1\}$.

Now consider $n+1 \notin E_0$. For all $k \leq 2^n - 1$, $U_\infty(k) \leq n$, and $n+1 \notin E_k$. Then, as $U_\infty(2^n) = n+1$, $E_{2^n} = E_{2^n-1} \cup \{n+1\}$. Set $E'_0 = E_{2^n-1}$ and $E'_{k+1} = E'_k \Delta \{U_\infty(k+1)\}$. For all $k \leq 2^n - 1$, $E_{2^n+k} = E'_k \cup \{n+1\}$. According to \mathcal{H}_n , there exists j such that $E'_j = \{1, \dots, n\}$. Then, $E_{2^n+j} = \{1, \dots, n+1\}$. By induction, the lemma is true. \square

Theorem 2. *Protocol 2 solves the counting problem, under weak fairness, for up to P mobile agents, each with P states. Moreover, the protocol names up to $P - 1$ mobile agents with distinct names (for any $N < P$, the names are in $\{1, \dots, N\}$).*

Proof. Consider an execution (C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots) of the protocol. For every $i \geq 0$, let E_i denote the set of states s.t., for every $s \in E_i$, the number of mobile agents in state s in C_i is odd. If $E_i = \{1, \dots, N\}$, then all the agents have distinct states. Let n_i and k_i denote (respectively) the values of the variables n and k of BS in a configuration C_i .

Lemma 3 implies that, for any $N < P$, if $E_0 \subset \{1, \dots, N\}$ and $E_{k+1} = E_k \Delta \{U^*(k+1)\}$, there exists some $1 \leq j \leq 2^N - 1$ ($l_N = 2^N - 1$) such that $E_j = \{1, \dots, N\}$ ($|U^*| = 2^P - 1$).

If $n_i < N$, agents cannot all have distinct non-zero-states in $\{1, \dots, n_i\}$. Consider a configuration where $n_i < N$. There are two cases (i) and (ii) concerning possible transitions with BS. In case (i), there are agents in state 0, or/and there are different agents in the same state (homonyms), that will eventually interact and change their states to 0 (line 12). In both sub-cases, a mobile agent in state 0 eventually meets BS; and in the corresponding transition, in line 4, k increases. Once $k_j > l_{n_j}$ ($j > i$), n_j is incremented (lines 7 - 8). In case (ii), there exists a mobile agent x with $name_x > n_i$, what causes n to increase too. Thus, eventually, $n_j = N$. We show now that the protocol converges to $n = N$ and not a larger value.

- First, assume that the case (ii) does not occur. Consider the first configuration (C_i) with $n_i = N$, and suppose $N < P$. Starting from this configuration, BS assigns states to agents following U_N . $E_i \in 2^{\{1, \dots, N\}}$, $k_i > l_{N-1}$ (lines 7 - 8), and only the following transitions between C_i and C_{i+1} are possible:

1. a transition between homonyms (lines 11 - 12), which results in $E_{i+1} = E_i$;
2. a transition between BS and an agent in state 0 (lines 3, 4 and 9), which results in $E_{i+1} = E_i \Delta \{U^*(k_i)\}$.

The number of non-zero homonyms in a given configuration is finite, and transitions of type 1 decrease this number, so that an infinite sequence of transitions of this type is impossible. Thus, while $E_i \neq \{1, \dots, N\}$ (meaning that there are homonyms or agents in state 0), transitions of type 2 happen. These transitions also increment k_i . Let i_1, i_2, \dots denote the indexes of transitions of type 2: $E_{i_{j+1}} = E_{i_j} \Delta \{U^*(k_j)\}$. Lemma 3 implies that there is some j such that $E_{i_j} = \{1, \dots, N\}$. At this point, all agents are in distinct states, and the protocol has converged with $n = N$, because n increases only if the naming with n states has failed, i.e., when $k > l_n$, (lines 7 - 8) and this impossible in the considered case.

- In case (ii), BS interacts with an agent x with $name_x > n_i$. Agent x has not been assigned before, since otherwise, it would have been given a state $\leq n_i$. The naming with $n_i - 1$ agents would have failed already, while this agent had no interaction. Thus, the execution up to step i is undistinguishable from an execution with at least n_i agents, but with the agent currently meeting BS, there are at least $n_i + 1$ agents. Thus, $N \geq n_i + 1$. In any case, $n_i \leq N$. □

Corollary 2. *Protocol 2 is silent.*

Proof. By Theorem 2, for any $N < P$, the protocol finally names all mobile agents with distinct names in $\{1, \dots, N\}$, and thus the condition at line 2 stops being satisfied. Hence, in this case, eventually, no agent changes its state. In the remaining case of $N = P$, the condition at line 2 stops being satisfied when n reaches and stays equal to N (what happens, by Theorem 2). After that, no agent can change its state. □

Corollary 3. *The convergence time of Protocol 2 is $\Theta(2^N)$ effective transitions and $O(2^N)$ rounds.*

Proof. Following the study of sequence U_∞ and remark 1, the number of terms in U^* used by Protocol 2 to name n agents is $l_n = 2^n - 1$. In consequence, the number of (effective) interactions before convergence, between BS and an agent in state 0 or $> n$, is at most 2^N . Other possible effective transitions are between homonyms. Each agent in such a transition changes its state to 0, and its next effective transition necessarily involves BS. Thus, there cannot be more than 2^N effective transitions between homonyms. Hence, the first part of the corollary follows.

Now, notice that, in any (asynchronous) round, at least one effective transition happens (otherwise the protocol has converged). Thus, there are at most 2^N rounds to accommodate $\Theta(2^N)$ effective transitions. This implies the second part of the corollary. □

We prove below that this complexity is necessary for the optimal memory space. Intuitively, starting from an arbitrary configuration with P mobile agents, and with only P available states, no protocol at BS can detect the lacking names (states) in the population, during a worst case execution. That is why, in this case, BS cannot advance in naming (required for counting) faster than by following a sequence of at least $O(2^P)$ names. This length is necessary, because there exist $O(2^P)$ different starting configurations and from *any* such configuration, a sequence of at least $O(2^P)$ names is required (in the worst case), for BS to obtain a configuration with distinctly named mobile agents, and count them.

4.3 Protocol 2 is Time-Optimal among all Space-Optimal Semi-Uniform ones

To obtain this result, we prove a time lower bound for space-optimal semi-uniform counting, under weak fairness. To obtain this lower bound we first prove properties that have to be satisfied by any

space optimal symmetric counting protocol functioning under weak fairness. These properties are important by themselves, as they can be useful in future studies of counting under weak fairness in PP. For instance, Prop. 1, states that a counting protocol has to distinctly name all the agents in any population of size $N < P$. Recall that P is the unknown upper bound on the size N of the population.

Next, from Prop. 1 and Lemma 4, it easily follows that any symmetric counting protocol under weak fairness has to use at least P different states that are assigned to mobile agents (to be able to count any population of at most P agents). This gives a somewhat simpler proof than the original one in [8].

The next important property, given in Prop. 3, is that any space optimal symmetric counting protocol under weak fairness has a unique “sink” state m s.t., for every possible state $s \in Q$ of a mobile agent, there is a transition sequence $(s, s) \xrightarrow{*} (m, m)$, with $(m, m) \rightarrow (m, m)$ and m cannot be one of the distinct names given by the protocol in case $N < P$.

Using the above-mentioned properties, we prove the lower bound given in Theorem 4. It shows that, under weak fairness, counting undistinguishable, state-optimal and non-initialized agents in symmetric PP is a costly task in terms of convergence time (expressed by the number of non-null transitions). We emphasize that the result concerns semi-uniform protocols (as is Protocol 2), in the sense that the actual values of the size of the population N , or the upper bound P on N , are not used by a protocol and all agents, except BST, are (a priori) indistinguishable and interact according to the same transition rules.

Proposition 1. *Let Count be a (silent or not) counting protocol correct under weak fairness (for any $N \leq P$). For any weakly fair execution $e = C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots, C_j, \dots$ of Count on a population \mathcal{A} of size $n < P$, there is an integer k such that, for any $j \geq k$, no two mobile agents are in the same state in C_j .*

Proof. Let us assume, by contradiction, that in e , there are infinitely many configurations with two agents in the same state. Since the state space is finite and the number of agents too, two specific agents x_2 and x_3 from \mathcal{A} are necessarily simultaneously in some state $s \in Q$ in infinitely many configurations. Let $C_{j_1}, C_{j_2}, C_{j_3}, \dots$ be these configurations such that $e = e_1, C_{j_1}, e_2, C_{j_2}, e_3, C_{j_3}, \dots$. W.l.o.g., we choose these configurations such that, in every execution segment e_i , every agent in \mathcal{A} interacts with every other (this is possible with weak fairness).

Now consider a population $\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A} \cup \{x_1\}$ of size $n + 1$. To prove the proposition, we will construct a weakly fair execution e' of *Count* in population \mathcal{A}' where no agent can distinguish e' from e , and where consequently *Count* wrongly counts only n agents instead of the existing $n + 1$.

We construct e' based on e . First, we assume that in e' , x_1 is in state s in the starting configuration, and $e' = e'_1, C'_{j_1}, e'_2, C'_{j_2}, e'_3, C'_{j_3}, \dots$ such that each segment e'_i follows the same transition sequence as in e_i , but where the agents x_2 or x_3 participating in the corresponding interactions can be replaced by x_1 in the appropriate state, as we explain below. We ensure also that in every C'_{j_i} , each of the three agents x_1, x_2, x_3 is in state s .

More precisely, in segment $e'_{3r+1}, C'_{j_{3r+1}}$ ($r \geq 0$), agent x_1 does not interact with the rest of the agents, and all the others interact exactly as in $e_{3r+1}, C_{j_{3r+1}}$ (each agent x_i is in state s in $C'_{j_{3r+1}}$). In $e'_{3r+2}, C'_{j_{3r+2}}$, agent x_2 does not interact with the rest of the agents, and x_1 replaces x_2 in all the interactions where x_2 interacts in $e_{3r+2}, C_{j_{3r+2}}$, and all the others interact as in e_{3r+2} (but with x_1 instead of x_2 in the corresponding interactions). Each agent x_i is in state s in $C'_{j_{3r+2}}$. In $e'_{3r+3}, C'_{j_{3r+3}}$, agent x_3 does not interact with the rest of the agents, and x_1 replaces x_3 in all the interactions where x_3 interacts in $e_{3r+3}, C_{j_{3r+3}}$, and all the others interact as in e_{3r+3} (but with x_1 instead of x_3 in the corresponding interactions). Each agent x_i is in state s in $C'_{j_{3r+3}}$.

We emphasize again that e' is possible, because in every C'_{j_i} , each of the three agents x_1, x_2, x_3 is in state s , so any of them can replace any other in the transition sequence of the next segment e_{i+1} . Moreover, e' is weakly fair, because each agent x_i interacts with all the other agents in the appropriate e'_i segments (and by the assumption on e_i), and other agents too, due to the weak fairness of e . Finally, in e' , every agent from \mathcal{A} (including BST), executes exactly the same sequence of transition rules as it does in e , so no agent can distinguish the fact that the population is actually \mathcal{A}' with $n + 1$ agents, and $Count$ counts only n agents as it does in e . This is a contradiction to the assumption that $Count$ is a correct counting protocol. \square

The proof of Lemma 4 uses similar techniques as the proof of Prop. 1 and appears in the appendix.

Lemma 4. *Let $Count$ be a symmetric (silent or not) counting protocol correct under weak fairness (for any $N \leq P$). Consider any weakly fair execution $e = C_1, C_2, C_3 \dots, C_j, \dots$ of $Count$ on a population \mathcal{A} of size $n < P$. There is an integer k such that, for any $j \geq k$, no mobile agent is in a state $m \in Q$ such that there is a possible sequence of transitions of $Count$ $(m, m) \xrightarrow{*} (m, m)$.*

The following two propositions follow from Proposition 1 and Lemma 4. A proof of Prop. 2 uses similar techniques as the proof of Prop. 3 and appears in the appendix.

Proposition 2. *Any symmetric counting protocol $Count$ correct for any $N \leq P$ (undistinguishable and non-initialized) mobile agents, under weak fairness, has to use at least P states per mobile agent.*

Proposition 3. *Consider any symmetric (silent or not) counting protocol $Count$ correct under weak fairness (for any $N \leq P$), and using at most P states per mobile agent. For every state $s \in Q$, there is a transition sequence $(s, s) \xrightarrow{*} (m, m)$, s.t. m is unique and does not appear infinitely often in executions with $N < P$. Moreover, $(m, m) \rightarrow (m, m)$.*

Proof. As $Count$ is symmetric, any two agents, both in some state $s \in Q$, in an interaction, have to execute a symmetric transition of the form $(s, s) \rightarrow (s_1, s_1)$. Thus there is a possible sequence of transitions $(s, s) \rightarrow (s_1, s_1) \rightarrow (s_2, s_2) \rightarrow (s_3, s_3) \dots$. As mobile agents are finite state, for some $j > i \geq 1$, $s_i = s_j$, i.e. $(s_i, s_i) \xrightarrow{*} (s_i, s_i)$. By Lem. 4, $s_i = m$ s.t. m does not appear infinitely often in executions with $N < P$. As there are at least $P - 1$ states appearing infinitely often in an execution with $N = P - 1$ (by Prop. 1), there is at most one such possible state m in a P state protocol. Thus, the first part of the lemma holds.

Finally, by contradiction, if $(m, m) \rightarrow (s, s)$ s.t. $s \neq m$, then the previous part of the proof implies $(s, s) \xrightarrow{*} (s, s)$. When $N = P - 1$, and as $Count$ uses only P states, and m never appears infinitely often in an execution, s does appear infinitely often in configurations of an execution (by Prop. 1). This is a contradiction to Lem. 4. Thus, $(m, m) \rightarrow (m, m)$. \square

The results above show in particular that, for any considered space-optimal counting protocol, if mobile agents are not named yet, agents in state m will continue to appear (for any P and $N \leq P$). Moreover, we recall that we consider counting with non-initialized mobile agents. In this case, to overcome the known impossibility [8], we assume one initialized and distinguishable agent BST that eventually counts the other N (mobile) agents. Note that having a distinguishable agent is necessary. To see this, consider a starting configuration where all agents start at the same state and equal to the state of the only initialized agent. If the size of the population is even, by Proposition 3, there is a weakly fair execution reaching and staying in the configuration where all agents are in state m , and by Proposition 1, no counting can be realized.

To prove the lower bound (Theorem 4), in addition to the results above, we use the following definitions and an observation about semi-uniform protocols.

Definition 1.

- We call homonyms, or homonymous agents, mobile agents in the population having the same state, but different from m .
- We say that two (or more) homonyms (in state s) are reduced (to m) whenever a sequence of transitions $(s, s) \xrightarrow{*} (m, m)$ is applied to them.
- We say that a mobile agent is named if it has a state different from m (a name). A group of agents is named if each of them is named with a distinct name. Similarly, a configuration of agents is named, if all the agents in this configuration are named.
- A reduced (from homonyms) configuration is a configuration without any homonym. By abuse of terminology, we sometimes consider a reduced configuration as a set of names (excluding m -state), instead of a vector of states of all agents.
- For any two sets $E, E' \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$, we denote by $E \Delta E' \equiv E \cup E' - E \cap E'$ their symmetric difference. In particular, $E \Delta \{e\}$ ($e \in \{1, \dots, n\}$) is $E \cup \{e\}$ if $e \notin E$, and $E - \{e\}$ if $e \in E$.
- A stationary point (or state) of BST is a state s_{BST} of BST such that $(s_{BST}, m) \rightarrow (s'_{BST}, m)$ and s'_{BST} is also stationary.
Note that this transition sequence can be broken, i.e., BST can change its state to a non-stationary one, after an interaction with an agent in a state $s \neq m$.

Observation 3 Consider a semi-uniform protocol *Count* and any execution prefix e for some upper bound P . Assume that, in e , only agents from a subset $S \subset \mathcal{A}$ (including BST) interact. Let $|S| < P' < P$. Then, the (standard) projection $e|_S$ of e on the agents of S is an execution prefix of *Count* for a bound P' .

Similarly, if e is an execution prefix of *Count* for $n' \leq P'$, it is also an execution prefix of *Count* for n s.t. $n' \leq n \leq P$ and $P' \leq P$, if we extend the configurations of e with $n - n'$ agents (missing in e and performing no interactions in the extended prefix).

To obtain the result of Theorem 4, we focus on the set of the longest execution prefixes where BST meets and names agents in state m (according to a fixed “naming sequence”). In such prefixes, we study the possibility of the occurrence of a stationary point (Def. 1). We show that, for a semi-uniform counting protocol (i.e., when n and P are unknown), for any $n < P$, such a point does not exist before BST has named the n agents. By observing that the number of starting unnamed configurations is $2^n - 1$, for $n = P - 1$, we conclude that the “naming sequence” at BST, and thus the length of the execution prefix, is $\Omega(2^n)$. This is for being able to name $n = P - 1$ agents starting from any unnamed configuration. Intuitively, as P is unknown, when only a subset of a population of $x < n$ agents interacted with BST, BST should behave like $P = x$ is possible, even if it is larger (see Obs. 3). Thus, the theorem follows for any n and P .

Theorem 4. Let *Count* be a symmetric (silent or not) semi-uniform counting protocol correct under weak fairness (for any $N \leq P$) and using P states per mobile agent. The convergence time of *Count* is at least $2^N - 1$ non-null transitions.

Proof. For any execution of *Count*, let us consider only the non-null transitions involving BST. Let T be the consecutive sequence of such transitions involving a mobile agent in state m (i.e., non-null transitions between BST and an agent in state m), starting from BST’s initial state s_{BST}^0 ($|T| \geq 0$), i.e., $T = (s_{BST}^0, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^1, s_1), (s_{BST}^1, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^2, s_2), (s_{BST}^2, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^3, s_3) \dots$. Denote by T_i the prefix of T containing the transition $i \geq 1, (s_{BST}^{i-1}, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^i, s_i)$. We will build an execution of *Count* where the length of T (and thus the convergence time of *Count*) is at least $2^n - 1$.

Consider a population of $2n$ mobile agents composed of two disjoint groups, G_1 and G_2 , each of size n . Consider a possible execution prefix e' where only the agents of G_1 communicate between them and BST. Moreover, in this prefix, BST interacts only with m -state agents till they are not distinctly named. If the agents in G_1 are not distinctly named, by Proposition 3, in G_1 , there is always either at least one agent in state m , or some homonyms that can be reduced to m . So, for e' , assume that, if the mobile agents in G_1 are not distinctly named, and there is no agent in state m , a reduction of some homonyms in G_1 is done. Then, an agent in state m interacts with BST.

In the following we first prove that, for any starting unnamed configuration, if in e' the naming of the agents of G_1 is not yet obtained, no stationary point is possible (see definition Def. 1), i.e., for any $i > 0$ there is $j \geq i$ in T s.t. $(s_{BST}^{j-1}, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^j, s_j)$ and $s_j \neq m$.

Assume by contradiction that there is $i > 0$ for which the property is not satisfied, i.e., starting a transition i in T , or a state s_{BST}^{i-1} of BST, m -state agent interacting with BST stays in state m . By the assumption that the naming is not yet obtained, when BST is in state s_{BST}^{i-1} , after the resolution of the homonyms, there are $x < n$ named agents in G_1 .

Now, assume that in G_2 there are x agents named exactly the same as the x agents in G_1 in the configuration corresponding to this stationary point (and after the resolution of homonyms), and all the other agents in G_2 are in m -state. Make the agents of G_1 and G_2 interact until the reduced (from homonyms) configuration is obtained. This configuration contains only mobile agents in state m and no one can change its state forever (by Prop. 3). Thus, in state s_{BST}^{i-1} , BST has to estimate the correct size of the population, i.e., $2n$.

Consider now an execution prefix e'' , similar to e' , but where $|G_2| = x < n$, and these are the same x named agents that are in G_2 , in e' . As the missing $n - x$ agents in e'' (comparing to e') are not involved in any transition of e' , no agent (including BST) in e'' or in e' , can distinguish between the two executions. Similarly to e' , in e'' , in state s_{BST}^{i-1} , BST has to estimate the correct size of the population, i.e., $n + x < 2n$. This is a contradiction. Thus, for a population of size $2n$, in any e' , i.e., when only n agents of G_1 communicate between them and BST, and before the naming of agents in G_1 is obtained, no stationary point is possible.

By Observation 3, the same execution prefix e' projected on n agents of G_1 ($e'|_n$) is also an execution prefix of *Count* for a population of size $n = P' - 1$ (P' being the actual upper bound on the size of the population and on the number of states per mobile agent). Thus, also in $e'|_n$ there is no stationary point. Let $e \equiv e'|_n$. Consider a prefix T_i of transitions in T , applied in e :

$T_i = (s_{BST}^0, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^1, s_1), (s_{BST}^1, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^2, s_2), \dots, (s_{BST}^{i-1}, m) \rightarrow (s_{BST}^i, s_i)$. Consider a starting reduced and unnamed configuration C_i over $n = P' - 1$ agents. By Proposition 1, *Count* has to name $n = P' - 1$ mobile agents. For this specific case of $n = P' - 1$, there is *exactly one* possible configuration (ignoring the state of BST and the permuted configurations) where all n mobile agents are named. Thus and as $A \triangle B = A' \triangle B$ iff $A = A'$, for a *given* T_i , there is *exactly one* reduced configuration C_i such that $C_i \triangle \{s_1\} \triangle \{s_2\} \triangle \{s_3\} \dots \triangle \{s_i\} = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{P'-1}\}$ where $\forall 1 \leq i, j \leq P' - 1, a_i \neq a_j \neq m$, i.e., after execution of T_i starting from C_i , all the $P' - 1$ agents are distinctly named. As there are $2^{P'-1} - 1$ different reduced and unnamed (starting) configurations (ignoring the state of BST and the permuted configurations) of $P' - 1$ mobile agents, the length of T is at least $2^{P'-1} - 1 = 2^n - 1$.

By Observation 3, e is also an execution prefix for any $P > P'$, for the same population size n . Thus the theorem holds for any n and P .

□

5 Conclusion and Perspectives

In this paper, we presented two population protocols for counting, under two classical fairness assumptions. Under global fairness, we gave a protocol with only two states per agent and, under weak fairness, a protocol with P states (P being an upper bound on the size of the system). In terms of exact space complexity, both protocols are optimal in space and considerably improve the best solutions known up to now, presenting a totally different angle of attack.⁴

Using a memory of only one bit has certainly practical advantages in applications for large-scale networks connecting very simple artifacts. Moreover, the assumption of global fairness, necessary for the correctness of the corresponding protocol, can be realized approximatively in practice. As described in [5], this is because in practice, a variety of parameters and events (like power-supply, local clock frequency or movement of nodes) affect the scheduling of a system in a random way, making the assumption of global fairness realistic. The average time complexity of the 1-bit protocol, assuming a fairness with probabilistic interactions (otherwise, the nature of global fairness yields an infinite convergence time), is exponential, and we are currently investigating if this is tight, for such a minimum memory requirement.

The second protocol, under weak fairness, solves the challenge of counting up to P with exactly P states per agent. Nevertheless, due to the nature of the Gros sequence, its time complexity, in terms of non-null transitions or in terms of (asynchronous) rounds, is exponential. This is because, in the worst case, the number of non-null transitions (or rounds) till convergence depends on the number of times BS renames a mobile agent. This is $2^{P-1} - 1$ times, due to the length of the used Gros sequence. We have shown that this complexity is necessary. It can be seen as the price for using the minimum possible number of states.

A complete study of the trade off between space and time complexities for counting algorithms in population protocols could be a valuable sequel to the present work. Considering existing counting protocols designed for weak fairness, we can identify the following tendency. With $\log P$ bits of memory per mobile agent, the space-optimal protocol that we present in this paper has an exponential complexity. An additional bit of memory allows to design protocols like in [17] with a logarithmic round complexity, while another additional bit allows to solve this problem in a constant number of rounds [8]. It will be interesting to study whether such drastic trade-offs are necessary.

For global fairness, much less studies about counting protocols and especially about their complexity analysis exist. This is certainly an additional interesting research direction.

Finally, another possible perspective concerns the space complexity of BS. One may imagine a system, where all agents including the distinguishable BS are resource-limited, motivating the study of the necessary space requirements for BS.

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⁴ One may notice that the proposed protocols look more like centralized protocols than distributed ones. This comes from the nature of the problem and from the strong memory constraints. First, as without BS the problem is impossible, any solution has to use some sort of centralization; otherwise BS would not be necessary. Second, reducing the memory to the minimum, strongly limits the useful information that mobile agents can exchange to progress towards the solution.

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Appendix

Preliminary (Impossibility) Results

In this section we present some simple impossibility results related to the counting problem in population protocols. The proofs use the classical partitioning argument.

The following similar result was already presented in [8] for weak fairness. We show that it holds for global fairness as well.

Proposition 4. *If no agent state can be initialized, it is impossible to realize counting in population protocol model, under weak or global fairness.*

Proof. Assume, by contradiction, that such a protocol B exists and take a population of $2n$ agents. Both fairness conditions allow the population to be disconnected (partitioned) for any unbounded, but finite period. Thus, partition $2n$ agents into two sub-populations, each of n agents, till B converges in every sub-population and counts to n . Then, make the two sub-populations interact, till B converges and counts to $2n$. Repeat the whole scenario infinitely many times (possible under both fairness conditions) to obtain the contradiction. \square

Thus, to be able to solve the counting problem and still avoid the initialization, all previous works, as well as the current one, assume the initialization of only one particular (and thus distinguishable) agent called the base station (BS).

Proposition 5. *There is no population protocol realizing counting with only one state per non-BS agent.*

Proof. Assume, by contradiction, that such a protocol exists. Consider a population of $n + 1$ mobile agents. Take an execution in which one agent x does not interact with the other n agents and BS, for a long enough period, such that BS eventually counts correctly the n mobile agents it interacts with. Then, when x starts interacting with the population, trivially, no interaction can change its state and BS cannot distinguish this agent from any other. Thus, it won't be possible to count all the $n + 1$ agents. \square

Proposition 6. *No silent (uniform) counting population protocol exists with only two states available in every non-BS agent.*

Proof. Assume, by contradiction, that such a silent protocol exists. Consider a population of $n + 1$ mobile agents. Take an execution in which an agent x does not interact with others for a long period such that, by the end of this period, the counting for the other n agents is accomplished and no agent state changes (whenever x still does not interact) due to the silence of the assumed solution. Assume also that, in this latter configuration, the state of x is similar to the state of two other mobile agents x_1 and x_2 ($N > 2$). When x reconnects, no interaction involving x can be distinguished from an interaction with x_1 or x_2 . Hence, it won't be possible to count all the $n + 1$ agents. \square

This proof can be easily generalized to show that there is no silent counting protocol with less than $N - 1$ agent states. Note that, under weak fairness, a similar claim is correct and tight for less than N agent states (i.e., no silent counting protocol exists with less than N agent states). This is simply because no counting solution exists with less than N states under weak fairness [8], and a silent solution exists with at least N states (Protocol 2).

Time Complexity Analysis of Protocol 1 - Details

Lemma 5. *In the first configuration C^1 after the convergence of Protocol 1, i.e., the first time when $size_total = N$ (and does not change after), all agents have the same mark $m \in \{0, 1\}$. Moreover, there is a configuration C^0 s.t. $C^0 \xrightarrow{*} C^1$, and all agents in C^0 are in state $1 - m$.*

Proof. Thus, the counting is achieved in C^1 . This happens following an interaction of BS with an agent, let us say w.l.o.g., in state 0. By definition, $size_total = size[0] + size[1] = N$, and since $size_total$ increases in this interaction, we had and we still have $size[0] = 0$ (otherwise, $size_total$ cannot increase). Then, after this transition, $size[1]$ becomes N .

We show now that at the last transition with $size[1] = 0$, before C^1 has been reached (at least the first step is such), all agents were in state 0 (this will prove the existence of C^0). Denote by r the number of 1-0 transitions (transitions changing a state of a mobile agent from 1 to 0). Then, the number of 0-1 transitions is $N+r$, since 1-0 transitions increment $size_total$, and 0-1 ones decrement it ($size[1]$ never goes to 0, by assumption). Thus, BS meets $N+r$ agents in state 0 that turn to 1, and r in state 1 that turn to 0. This creates N new agents in state 1 thus, at the step when $size[1] = 0$, all agents were in state 0. \square

Thus, consider a population of N agents, and let u_k be the average number of transitions that happen before all agents are in state 0, starting from a configuration with k agents in state 1.

We have the following relations:

- $u_0 = 0$ by definition;
- for $1 \leq k \leq N-1$, $u_k = 1 + \frac{k}{N}u_{k-1} + \frac{N-k}{N}u_{k+1}$: at the current step, there is k chances in N that an agent with mark 1 meets the base station, leading to a configuration with $k-1$ agents with mark 1, and $N-k$ chances in N that an agent marked 0 interacts with BS resulting in a configuration with $k+1$ agents marked 1;
- $u_N = 1 + u_{N-1}$.

For $0 \leq k \leq N-1$, set $v_k = u_{k+1} - u_k$. We have:

- $v_{N-1} = 1$
- $\forall 1 \leq k \leq N-1, v_{k-1} = u_k - u_{k-1} = u_k - \frac{N}{k}(u_k - 1 - \frac{N-k}{N}u_{k+1}) = \frac{k-N}{k}u_k + \frac{N}{k} + \frac{N-k}{k}u_{k+1} = \frac{N-k}{k}v_k + \frac{N}{k}$

Thus, for $0 \leq k \leq N-1$

$$\begin{aligned} v_{N-k} &= \prod_{i=N-k+1}^{N-1} \frac{N-i}{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i}^k \frac{j}{N-j} \frac{N}{i} = \frac{(N-k)!(k-1)!}{(N-1)!} + N \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{(k-1)!(N-k)!}{i!(N-i)!} = \\ &= N \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{(k-1)!(N-k)!}{i!(N-i)!} \end{aligned}$$

$$v_{N-k} = \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k-1}} + N \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{(k-1)!(N-k)!}{N!} \frac{N!}{i!(N-i)!} = \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k-1}} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{\binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k-1}} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k-1}}$$

From that, we get:

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} v_k = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

First, consider the case when N is even:

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \sum_{k=N/2}^{N-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \sum_{k=N/2}^{N-1} \frac{2^N - \sum_{i=k+1}^N \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

since $\sum_{i=0}^N \binom{N}{i} = 2^N$

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \sum_{k=N/2}^{N-1} \frac{2^N - \sum_{i=0}^{N-k-1} \binom{N}{N-i}}{\binom{N-1}{N-k-1}}$$

by setting $i' = N - i$

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \sum_{k=N/2}^{N-1} \frac{2^N - \sum_{i=0}^{N-k-1} \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{N-k-1}}$$

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{2^N - \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

by setting $k' = N - k - 1$

$$u_N = 2^N \times \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

$$u_N = 2^{N-1} \times \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

The case when N is odd is similar:

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{(N-3)/2} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{(N-1)/2} \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{(N-1)/2}} + \sum_{k=(N+1)/2}^{N-1} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

And, similarly

$$u_N = \sum_{k=0}^{(N-3)/2} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \sum_{k=0}^{(N-3)/2} \frac{2^N - \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{(N-1)/2} \binom{N}{i}}{\binom{N-1}{(N-1)/2}}$$

by setting $k' = N - k - 1$

$$u_N = 2^N \times \sum_{k=0}^{(N-3)/2} \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k}} + 2^{N-1} \times \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{(N-1)/2}}$$

$$u_N = 2^{N-1} \times \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k}}$$

Now, for $2 \leq k \leq N-3$, $\frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k}} \leq \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{2}} = \frac{2}{(N-1)(N-2)}$, so that

$$2 = \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{0}} + \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{N-1}} \leq \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{k}} \leq 2 + \frac{2}{N-1} + \frac{2(N-4)}{(N-1)(N-2)} = 2 + O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)$$

Thus, $u_N \geq 2^N$, and $u_N \sim_{N \rightarrow \infty} 2^N$.

The average complexity of the protocol is $\Theta(2^N)$. The best starting configurations, for the complexity, is when all agents have the same mark. The average complexity is then $2^N + o(2^N)$. Starting from any other configuration, the protocol first has to reach a configuration where all agents have identical marks. This takes less than $2^N + o(2^N)$ transitions, since starting with all agents having the same mark, and switching it, makes the protocol traverse all configurations. Hence, in this case, the overall complexity is less than $2 \times (2^N + o(2^N))$.