New Clocks, Optimal Line Formation and Self-Replication Population Protocols

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Abstract

In this paper we consider a known variant of the standard population protocol model in which agents are allowed to be connected by edges, referred to as the network constructor model. During an interaction between two agents the relevant connecting edge can be formed, maintained or eliminated by the transition function. Since pairs of agents are chosen uniformly at random the status of each edge is updated every $\Theta(n^2)$ interactions in expectation which coincides with $\Theta(n)$ parallel time. This phenomenon provides a natural lower bound on the time complexity for any non-trivial network construction designed for this variant. This is in contrast with the standard population protocol model in which efficient protocols operate in $O(\text{poly log } n)$ parallel time.

The main focus of this paper is on efficient manipulation of linear structures including formation, self-replication and distribution (including pipelining) of complex information in the adopted model.

We propose and analyze a novel edge based phase clock counting parallel time $\Theta(n \log n)$ in the network constructor model, showing also that its leader based counterpart provides the same time guarantees in the standard population protocol model. Note that all currently known phase clocks can count parallel time not exceeding $O(\text{poly log } n)$.

We prove that any spanning line formation protocol requires $\Omega(n \log n)$ parallel time if high probability guaranty is imposed. We also show that the new clock enables an optimal $O(n \log n)$ parallel time spanning line construction, which improves dramatically on the best currently known $O(n^2)$ parallel time protocol, solving the main open problem in the considered model [24].

We propose a new probabilistic bubble-sort algorithm in which random comparisons and transfers are limited to the adjacent positions in the sequence. Utilising a novel potential function reasoning we show that rather surprisingly this probabilistic sorting procedure requires $O(n^2)$ comparisons in expectation and whp, and is on par with its deterministic counterpart.

We propose the first population protocol allowing self-replication of a strand of an arbitrary length $k$ (carrying $k$-bit message of size independent of the state space) in parallel time $O(n(k + \log n))$. The bit pipelining mechanism and the time complexity analysis of self-replication process mimic those used in the probabilistic bubble-sort argument. The new protocol permits also simultaneous self-replication, where $l$ copies of the strand can be created in parallel in time $O(n(k + \log n) \log l)$.

We also discuss application of the strand self-replication protocol to pattern matching. All protocols are always correct and provide time guarantees with high probability defined as $1 - n^{-\eta}$, for a constant $\eta > 0$.

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1 Introduction

The model of population protocols originates from the seminal work of Angluin et al. [4]. The model is used to study distributed processes based on pairwise interactions between anonymous agents drawn from a large population of size $n$. The interacting pairs of agents are chosen by the random scheduler and their states are amended by the predefined transition function governing the considered process. The state space of agents is fixed (constant size) and the size $n$ is not known, i.e., not hard-coded in the transition function. We assume that a population protocol starts in the predefined initial configuration of agents’ states representing the input, and it concludes in an output configuration reflecting on the solution to the considered problem. The sequential time complexity of a protocol refers to the number of interactions required to stabilise this protocol in one of the final configurations. In more recent work on population protocols the focus is on parallel time defined as the total number of pairwise interactions (sequential time) leading to the solution divided by the population size $n$. For example, a core dissemination tool in population protocols known as one-way epidemic [5] distributes simple (e.g., 0/1) messages to all agents in the population utilising $\Theta(n \log n)$ interactions or equivalently $\Theta(\log n)$ parallel time. The parallel time is meant to reflect on massive parallelism of simultaneous interactions. While this is a simplification [14], it provides a good estimation on locally observed time expressed in the number of interactions each agent was involved in throughout the computation process.

Unless stated otherwise, we assume that any protocol starts in the predefined initial configuration with all agents being in the same initial state. A population protocol terminates with success if the whole population stabilises eventually, i.e., it arrives at and stays indefinitely in one of the final configurations of states representing the desired property of the solution.

1.1 Network Constructors Model

While in the standard population protocol model the population of agents remains unstructured, in the network constructors model introduced in [24] and adopted in this paper during an interaction between two agents the edge connecting them can be formed, maintained or eliminated by the transition function. In this way the protocol instructs agents how to organize themselves into temporary or more definite network structures.

Note that since pairs of agents are chosen uniformly at random the status of any edge is updated on average every $\Theta(n^2)$ interactions which coincides with $\Theta(n)$ parallel time. With the exception of some relaxed expectations [12], this phenomenon provides a natural lower bound on the time complexity of non-trivial network construction processes, see [24]. On the other hand this model enables generic protocols capable of simulating space bounded Turing Machine allowing more complex computations including construction of a large class of networks [24].

Model specificity. Whenever possible we will use capital letters to denote states of the agents. In order to accommodate edge connections the transition function governs the relation between triplets of the following type:

$$ P + Q + S \rightarrow P' + Q' + S'. $$

The first two terms on both sides of the rule refer to the states $P$ and $Q$ of the initiator and the responder (respectively) before and $P'$ and $Q'$ after the interaction. The third term $S$ before and $S'$ after the interaction is a binary flag indicating the status of the connection between the two agents, where the edge presence is declared by 1 and by 0 the lack of it. The
states of agents are often more complex being a combination of a fixed number of attributes. Such states are represented as tuples. For such compound states we use vector representation with acute brackets $<$, $>$, where the individual attributes are separated by commas.

**Probabilistic guarantees.** Let $\eta$ be a universal positive constant referring to the reliability of our protocols. We say that an event occurs with negligible probability if it occurs with probability at most $n^{-\eta}$, and an event occurs with high probability (whp) if it occurs with probability at least $1 - n^{-\eta}$. This estimate is of an asymptotic nature, i.e., we assume $n$ is large enough to validate the results. Similarly, we say that an algorithm succeeds with high probability if it succeeds with probability at least $1 - n^{-\eta}$. When we refer to the probability of failure $p$ different to $n^{-\eta}$, we say directly with probability at least $1 - p$. Our protocols make heavy use of Chernoff bounds and the new tail bounds for sums of geometric random variables derived in [20]. We refer to these new bounds as Chernoff-Janson bounds.

We also use notation $f(n) \sim g(n) \iff \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

### 1.2 Our results and their significance

The model of population protocols gained considerably in popularity in the last 15 years. We study here several central problems in distributed computing by focusing on the adopted variant of population protocols. These include phase clocks, a distributed synchronisation tool with good space, time accuracy, and probabilistic guarantees. The first study of leader based $O(1)$ space phase clocks can be found in the seminal paper by Angluin et al. in [5]. Further extensions including junta based nested clocks counting any $\Theta(\log n)$ parallel time were analyzed in [18]. Leaderless clocks based on power of two choices principle were used in fast majority protocols [2], and more recently constant resolution phase clocks propelled the optimal $O(n \log n)$ parallel time [16]. In this work we propose and analyze a new matching based phase clock allowing to count $\Theta(n \log n)$ parallel time. This is the first clock confirming the conclusion of the slow leader election protocol based on direct duels between the remaining leader candidates. We also propose an edge-less variant of this clock based on the computed leader. This clock powers the first optimal $O(n \log n)$ parallel time spanning line construction, a key component of universal network construction, improving dramatically on the best currently known $O(n^2)$ parallel time protocol, and solving the main open problem from [24].

We also consider a probabilistic variant of the classical bubble-sort algorithm, in which any two consecutive positions in the sequence are chosen for comparison uniformly at random. We show that rather surprisingly this variant is on par with its deterministic counterpart as it requires $\Theta(n^2)$ random comparisons whp. While this new result is of independent algorithmic interest, together with the edge-less clock they conceptually power the strand (line-segment carrying information) self-replication protocol studied at the end of this paper.

In a wider context, self-replication is a property of a dynamical system which allows reproduction. Such systems are of increasing interest in biology, e.g., in studies on how life could have begun on Earth [23], in computational chemistry [25], robotics [21] and others.

In this paper, a chunk of information is stored collectively in a strand, i.e., a line segment of agents of length $k$, where each agent stores one bit of information. Such strands may represent strings in pattern matching, a large value, or a code in more complex distributed process. In such cases the replication mechanism facilitates an improved accessibility to this information. We propose the first strand self-replication protocol allowing to reproduce a strand of non-fixed size $k$ in parallel time $O(n(k + \log n))$. This protocol permits concurrent replication, where $l$ copies of a strand can be generated in parallel time $O(n(k + \log n) \log l)$. The parallelism of this protocol is utilised in efficient pattern matching in Section 6.1.
1.3 Related work

One of the main tools used in this paper refers to the central problem of leader election, with the final configuration comprising a single agent in the leader state and all other agents in the follower state. The leader election problem received in recent years greater attention in the context of population protocols. In particular, the results in [10, 15] laid down the foundation for the proof that leader election cannot be solved in a sublinear time with agents utilising a fixed number of states [17]. In further work [3], Alistarh and Gelashvili studied the relevant upper bound, where they proposed a new leader election protocol stabilising in time $O(\log^3 n)$ assuming $O(\log^3 n)$ states per agent.

In a more recent work Alistarh et al. [1] considered more general trade-offs between the number of states used by the agents and the time complexity of stabilisation. In particular, the authors delivered a separation argument distinguishing between slowly stabilising population protocols which utilise $o(\log\log n)$ states and rapidly stabilising protocols relying on $O(\log n)$ states per agent. This result coincides with another fundamental result by Chatzigiannakis et al. [9] stating that population protocols utilizing $o(\log n)$ states are limited to semi-linear predicates, while the availability of $O(n)$ states (permitting unique identifiers) admits computation of more general symmetric predicates. Further developments include also a protocol which elects the leader in time $O(\log^2 n)$ w.h.p. and in expectation utilizing $O(\log^2 n)$ states [8]. The number of states was later reduced to $O(\log n)$ by Alistarh et al. in [2] and by Berenbrink et al. in [7] through the application of two types of synthetic coins.

In more recent work Gąsieniec and Stachowiak reduce memory utilisation to $O(\log\log n)$ while preserving the time complexity $O(\log^2 n)$ whp [18]. The high probability can be traded for faster leader election in the expected parallel time $O(\log n\log\log n)$, see [19]. This upper bound was recently reduced to the optimal expected time $O(\log n)$ by Berenbrink et al. in [6].

One of the main open problems in the area is to establish whether one can elect a single leader in time $o(\log^2 n)$ whp while preserving the optimal number of states $O(\log\log n)$.

2 Two phase clocks and leader election

In order to compute the unique leader and confirm its computation we execute two protocols simultaneously. Namely, the slow leader election protocol which concludes in parallel time $O(n\log n)$ whp, and the new (introduced below) matching based phase clock which counts parallel time $\Theta(n\log n)$ whp. The conclusion of leader election is confirmed via one-way epidemic when the final state (in this clock) is reached by any agent. This leader is utilised in the edge-less clock in nearly optimal computation of the line containing all agents, see Section 4, and in self-replication of strands of information, see Section 6.

The transition rules for governing the slow leader election and the new clocks follow.

2.1 Slow leader election

In the initial configuration all agents are in state $L$ and the leader election protocol is driven by a single rule:

$$L + L \rightarrow L + F,$$

where $L$ represents a leader candidate, and $F$ stands for a follower (or a free) agent. It is well known that this leader election protocol operates in the expected parallel time $\Theta(n)$, and in parallel time $\Theta(n\log n)$ whp.
2.2 Matching based phase clock

The proposed matching based clock assumes the constructors model in which the transition function recognises whether two interacting agents are connected by an edge or not, indicated by 1 or 0, respectively. The agents begin in the predefined state <start>. When two agents in state <start> interact they get connected and they enter the counting stage with their counters set to <0>. Eventually these counters reach the maximum (exit) value max. The values of the counters can go either up or down, depending on the rule used during the relevant interaction. Note that when i is the smallest counter value, then the cardinality of the subpopulation holding it can only go down. We prove that as long as there are agents with counter value below a fixed threshold, it is almost impossible for any other agent to reach the counter value max. And this is the case for the first \( \Theta(n^2 \log n) \) interactions, i.e., \( \Theta(n \log n) \) parallel time. Note also that the number of agents taking part in the counting process is always even as they enter and leave this process in pairs. The counting stage guarantees that the counters of all agents which enter this stage reach level max (denoted by state <max>) in time \( \Theta(n \log n) \), see Theorem 1. And during the next interaction between the two connected agents in state <max> the connection is dropped and the states are updated to <end> indicating the exit from the counting stage.

The rules of the transition function used in the counting stage are as follows:

Initialisation

\[
\text{<start> + <start> + 0 \rightarrow <0> + <0> + 1}
\]

Timid counting

- For all connected \( i \leq j \) and \( i < \text{max} \)
  \[
  <i> + <j> + 1 \rightarrow <i+1> + <i+1> + 1
  \]
- For all disconnected \( i < j \)
  \[
  <i> + <j> + 0 \rightarrow <i> + <i+1> + 0
  \]

Maximum level epidemic

\[
\text{<max> + <i> + 0 \rightarrow <max> + <max> + 0}
\]

Conclude and disconnect

\[
\text{<max> + <max> + 1 \rightarrow <end> + <end> + 0}
\]
\[
\text{<start> + <end> + 0 \rightarrow <end> + <end> + 0 \# takes care of the odd n case}
\]

In the next subsection we discuss the rules of an alternative phase clock in which instead of a matching the agents use virtual edges connecting them with the computed leader.

2.3 Leader based (edge-less) phase clock

We allocate separate constant memory to host the states of the leader based clock. This allows to run the two clocks simultaneously and independently. The followers in the leader based clock start with the counters set to <0>, and \( L \) refers to the leader state. Note that state <0> is initiated for the leader based clock as soon as the agent reaches state <max> or <end> in the matching based clock. Below we present the timid counting rules in which matching edges are replaced by virtual edges between the leader \( L \) and all other agents.
Timid counting

- Leader interactions, for $i < \text{max}$
  \[ < i > + L \rightarrow < i + 1 > + L \]
- Non-leader interactions, for $i < j$
  \[ < i > + < j > \rightarrow < i > + < i + 1 > \]

One can show that the two clocks have the same asymptotic time performance, see Section 3 for the relevant details. Note also that the leader based clock can be used independently from any edge dependent process executed in the population simultaneously.

2.4 Periodic leader based (edge-less) clock

One can expand the functionality of the leader based clock to pace a series of consecutive rounds of a more complex process, with each round operating in parallel time $\Theta(n \log n)$. The extension is assumed to work in rounds formed of three consecutive stages 0, 1 and 2, where each stage is associated with a single execution (full turn) of the leader based clock. The conclusion of each stage is announced with the help of one-way epidemic in parallel time $O(\log n)$ whp. And when this happens all agents which received the announcement proceed to the next stage. This means that after at most $O(\log n)$ parallel time delay (caused by the epidemic) all agents will run the clock in the same stage whp. Note also that while the signal to start the next stage remains in the population throughout the whole stage, it will be wiped out whp by the signal announcing the beginning of the stage that follows. And since we have 3 stages during each round the synchronisation of agents is guaranteed whp.

3 The clocks’ analysis

In this section we provide the time and the probabilistic guarantees for the two phase clocks introduced in Section 2. We first analyze the matching based clock and later extend the reasoning to the leader based (edge-less) clock. We prove the following theorem towards the end of this section.

▶ Theorem 1. In either of the two clocks state $<\text{max}>$ is reached by any agent in parallel time $\Theta(n \log n)$ whp.

When the matching based clock is initialised, it forms a matching consisting of unmatched pairs of agents. In Lemmas 2,3 we specify how fast this is done. In Lemma 7 we prove that whp no counter in the population has value $\text{max}$ for as long as the smallest counter value is at most $\text{max} - d - 2$. The constant $d$ depends on $\eta$ and its value can be derived from the proof of Lemma 5. Also, if $T$ is the time elapsed before the value $\text{max}$ is observed in the population for the first time, Lemma 8 guarantees that $T > (\text{max} - d - 2)0.4n \ln n$ whp. Using this inequality, the top value $\text{max}$ can be derived from $d$ and time $T = \Theta(n \log n)$ which upperbounds whp the parallel time of slow leader election process.

▶ Lemma 2. All edges of the matching are formed in the expected parallel time $\Theta(n)$ and whp $O(n \log n)$. 

Proof. The probability of an interaction forming edge $i+1$ when $i$ edges are already formed is $\frac{n(n-1)}{n(n-1)}$. Thus the number of interactions separating formation of edges $i$ and $i+1$ has geometric distribution with the expected value $\frac{n(n-1)}{n(n-1)}$. Thus the expected number of interactions to form all edges is $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2-1} \frac{n(n-1)}{n(n-1)}$, which is $\Theta(n^2)$.

A sufficient condition to form all the edges is that all possible $\binom{n}{2}$ pairs of agents are generated by the random scheduler. The probability of not choosing a fixed pair in first $cn^2 \log n$ interactions is $(1 - 1/\binom{n}{2})^{cn^2 \log n}$, which is negligible for $c$ big enough. Thus all edges are formed after parallel time $O(n \log n)$ whp.

The following lemma refers to early interactions in the matching based clock.

**Lemma 3.** After parallel time 0.51 at least $\frac{n}{2}$ agents belong to already formed edges whp.

Proof. Assume that so far exactly $i$ edges are formed. The probability that during an interaction edge $i+1$ is formed is $\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-2i-1)}{n(n-1)}$. So the expected number of interactions $T_i$ of forming edge $i+1$ is $\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-2i-1)}{n(n-1)}$. And in turn the expected number of interactions $T$ of forming first $n/4$ edges satisfies

$$T = T_0 + \cdots + T_{n/4} = \sum_{i=0}^{n/4} \frac{n(n-1)}{(n-2i)(n-2i-1)} \sim n \int_0^{1/4} \frac{dx}{(1-2x)^2} = \frac{n^2}{2}.$$

We can estimate the probability that $T$ exceeds 0.51n using Chernoff-Janson bound (Thm.2.1 of [20]) proving that it is negligible. In this case we can substitute (for $n$ large enough)

$$p_* = \frac{1}{4}, M \sim \frac{n}{2}, \text{ and } \lambda = \frac{0.51}{0.5} > 1.$$

Thus we get that the expected number of interactions $T \geq 0.51n$ (parallel time $\geq 0.51$) with probability less than $e^{-p_* M(\lambda^{-1} - \ln \lambda)} = e^{-\frac{1}{4}n(\lambda^{-1} - \ln \lambda)}$, i.e., with negligible probability.

As soon as the edges are formed the timid counting begins. In order to analyze this process we define the edge collector problem in which one is asked to collect (draw) all edges of a given matching $M$ of cardinality $n'$, with the solution guaranteed in constant parallel time by Lemma 3. In addition, one can also infer from our proof that in fact a maximum matching of cardinality $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$ is formed whp.

**Lemma 4.** For any cardinality $n' \in [n/4, n/2]$, the parallel time of the edge collector problem is $O(n \log n)$ whp. In addition, the parallel time needed to collect the last $0.05 \cdot n$ edges (of the matching) is at least $0.4 \cdot n \ln n$ whp.

Proof. The probability of collecting an edge in an interaction, when $i$ edges are still missing is $p_i = \frac{2i}{n(n-1)}$. The number of interactions needed to collect this edge is a random variable $X_i$ which has a geometric distribution with the average $\frac{n(n-1)}{2i}$. When $k$ edges are still to be collected, the expected number of interactions to collect extra $k - l$ edges is

$$\sum_{i=l}^{k} \frac{n(n-1)}{2i} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} (H_k - H_l) \sim \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \ln \frac{k}{l}.$$

Using the upper bound of lower tail (Theorem 3.1) of Chernoff-Janson bounds we show that this number of interactions is at least $0.4n(n-1)\ln n$ whp, for $k = 0.05n$ and $l = n^{0.1}$. L. Gąsieniec, P. G. Spirakis, and G. Stachowiak
And indeed, for \( n \) large enough one can adopt
\[
p_* = p = \frac{2n^{0.1}}{n(n-1)}, \quad M \sim \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \ln(0.05n^{0.9}) > 0.44n(n-1) \ln n, \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda = \frac{0.4}{0.44} < 1.
\]
This way we get that the number of interactions smaller than \( 0.4n(n-1) \ln n \) with probability smaller than \( e^{-p_* M(\lambda - 1 - \ln \lambda)} \leq e^{-0.88n^{0.1} \ln(n(\lambda - 1 - \ln \lambda))} \), i.e., with negligible probability.

The collection of edges concludes, when for each edge its two endpoints interact with one another. The probability of a missing interaction along some edge in the first \( cn^2 \log n \) interactions is \( (1 - 1/(n^a))^{cn^2 \log n} \), which is negligible for \( c \) large enough. Thus edge collection concludes \( \text{wp} \) in \( O(n^a \log n) \) interactions translating to parallel time \( O(n \log n) \). □

In our clock protocol the value of parameter \( d > 0 \) depends on the constant \( \eta \) with respect to the high probability guarantees. We prove the existence of this parameter \( d \), for any \( \eta' = \eta + 3 \).

\textbf{Lemma 5.} In a parallel time period of length \( n^a \), for \( 0 < a < 1 \), there are at most \( d \) interactions along any edge in the matching \( \text{wp} \).

\textbf{Proof.} By taking into account all possible subsets of \( d \) out of \( n^{1+a} \) interactions and using the union bound, the probability that an edge is a subject to at least \( d \) interactions in parallel time \( n^a \) does not exceed
\[
\binom{n^{1+a}}{d} \left( \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \right)^d \leq \left( \frac{2n^a}{n-1} \right)^d,
\]
and this value is smaller than \( n^{-\eta'} \) is for \( d \) large enough. □

\textbf{Lemma 6.} In a parallel time period of length \( n^a \), for \( 0.1 < a < 1 \), there are at most \( 2.1n^a \) interactions along edges of the matching \( \text{wp} \).

\textbf{Proof.} The probability that a given interaction is a matching edge interaction is \( \frac{2n^a}{n(n-1)} \). Thus in a parallel time period of length \( n^a \), there are expected \( 2n^a \frac{n^a}{n(n-1)} \leq 2n^a \) edge interactions. By the Chernoff bound the number of edge interactions is at most \( 2.1n^a \) \( \text{wp} \). □

In what follows, depending on the context we will use the notions of counters and \textit{levels} interchangeably.

\textbf{Lemma 7.} Let \( k \) be an integer where \( k < \max - d - 2 \). There exists a constant \( c \), s.t., during parallel time period \( (0.51, cn \log n) \) presence of any agent on level \( i < k \) guarantees \( \text{wp} \) a linear subpopulation of agents of size at least \( 0.1n \) on levels \( j \leq k \). Also during this period no agent reaches level \( \max \) \( \text{wp} \).

\textbf{Proof.} We prove validity of the lemma \( \text{wp} \), i.e., with probability at least (wp) \( 1 - n^{-\eta} \). Let \( \eta' = \eta + 3 \). The proof is done by induction on parallel time \( t \). First we show that in any time \( t \) of the initial parallel time period \( [0.51, n^{0.2}] \) the thesis of the lemma holds \( \wp 1 - 10tn \cdot n^{-\eta'} \).

Later we prove by induction that until any considered time \( t \) the thesis of the lemma holds \( \wp 1 - 10tn \cdot n^{-\eta'} \). Note that this guarantees that the thesis holds \( \text{wp} \), i.e., \( \wp 1 - n^{-\eta} \), for parallel time \( t = O(n \log n) \). Assume that all events in the thesis of the lemma hold before parallel time \( t \). We prove that if the thesis of the lemma holds before parallel time \( t \), then it also holds in time \( t \) \( \wp 1 - 10tn \cdot n^{-\eta'} \). By the inductive hypothesis before parallel time \( t \) or equivalently until parallel time \( t - \frac{1}{n} \) the thesis of the lemma holds \( \wp 1 - 10(t - \frac{1}{n})n \cdot n^{-\eta'} \). In turn, we get that until parallel time \( t \) the thesis of the lemma holds \( \wp 1 - 10tn \cdot n^{-\eta'} \).
We first prove the base step of induction. As we proved in Lemma 3, during the initial parallel time 0.51 at least \( n/2 \) agents enter the clock with state (0) wp 1 – \( n^{-2} \), when also some of these agents could already move to higher levels. By Lemma 6 applied to the initial time period \( n^{0.2} \) there are at most 2.1\( n^{0.2} \) of the latter wp, 1 – \( n^{-2} \). Thus in parallel time period \([0.51, n^{0.2}]\) level 0 is the host of at least 0.5\( n – 2.1n^{0.2} \) > 0.4\( n \) agents constantly residing at this level wp 1 – \( 2n^{-\eta} \). Also, by Lemma 5 no agent reaches level \( \max \) wp 1 – \( n^{-\eta} \). So in parallel time \( t = n^{0.2} \) the lemma holds wp 1 – \( 3n^{-\eta} \). Note that 1 – \( 3n^{-\eta} \geq 1 – 10tn \cdot n^{-\eta} \) for any \( t \geq 0.51 \).

Now we prove the inductive step. We observe first that during parallel time period \([t', t] \), where \( t' = t – n^{0.1} \), all agents which entered the clock are at least once on level \( l \leq k + 1 \) wp 1 – \( n^{-\eta} \). And indeed during this period an agent avoids interactions with agents on levels \( j \leq k \) wp at most

\[ (1 – 0.1/n)^{n^{0.1}} < e^{0.1n^{0.1}}. \]

Because of this and Lemma 5, during this period, any agent which entered the clock does not elevate to levels higher than \( k + 1 + d \) wp 1 – \( 2n^{-\eta} \). Therefore no agent reaches level \( \max \) during period \([t', t] \) wp 1 – \( 2n^{-\eta} \).

In order to prove the first thesis of the lemma we consider two cases.

Case 1: in this case in parallel time \( t' \) there are at least 0.11\( n \) agents on levels not exceeding \( k \). Since by Lemma 6 in parallel time period \([t', t] \) at most 2.1\( n^{0.1} \) such agents can increase their level wp. 1 – \( n^{-\eta} \). And in turn, in parallel time \( t \) there are at least 0.1\( n > 0.11n – 2.1n^{0.1} \) agents on levels \( j \leq k \).

Case 2: in this case in parallel time \( t' \) the number of agents on levels at most \( k \) is between 0.1\( n \) and 0.11\( n \) and the number of agents on levels below \( k \) is at least 3\( n^{0.1} \). Let \( Y \) be the set of agents belonging to the levels above \( k \) in time \( t' \). By Lemma 6 the probability that in parallel time period \([t', t] \) the number of agents below level \( k \) drops below 0.9\( n^{0.1} (= 3n^{0.1} – 2.1n^{0.1}) \) is negligible, i.e., at most \( n^{-\eta} \). Consider any set \( X \) with 0.9\( n^{0.1} \) agents residing at levels smaller than \( k \) and estimate how many agents from set \( Y \) interact with them. For as long as 0.38\( n \) agents from \( Y \) do not interact with \( X \), the probability of interaction between an unused (not in contact with agents in \( X \)) agent in \( Y \) and some agent in \( X \) is at least 0.68\( n^{0.9} \). Any such interaction increases the number of agents on levels not exceeding \( k \). Consider a sequence of \( n^{1.1} \) zeros and ones in which position \( t \) is one (1) if and only if either

\[ \text{interaction } \tau \text{ is between an unused agent in } Y \text{ with an agent in } X \text{ if there are more} \]

\[ \text{than 0.38} n \text{ unused agents in } Y. \]

or if this number is smaller than 0.38\( n \) value 1 is drawn with a fixed probability 0.68\( n^{0.9} \). By Chernoff bound the probability that this sequence has less than 0.6\( n^{0.2} \) ones is negligible, i.e., at most \( n^{-\eta} \). Since 0.12\( n < 0.11n + 0.6n^{0.2} \) this sequence has less than 0.6\( n^{0.2} \) ones only when the number of agents elevated to levels not exceeding \( k \) is smaller than 0.6\( n^{0.2} \). Also by Lemma 6 during parallel time period \([t', t] \) at most 2.1\( n^{0.1} \) other agents may increase their level beyond \( k \) wp 1 – \( n^{-\eta} \). So in Case 2 the number of agents on levels not exceeding \( k \) increases during period \([t', t] \) by at least 0.6\( n^{0.2} – 2.1n^{0.1} \).

Case 3: assume that in parallel time \( t' \) the number of agents on levels \( j \leq k \) is between 0.1\( n \) and 0.11\( n \) and also the number of agents on levels below \( k \) is smaller than 3\( n^{0.1} \). The probability of an interaction between one of such agents and an agent in set \( Y \) of agents above level \( k \) is at most 6\( n^{0.9} \). Any such interaction increases the number of agents on levels not exceeding \( k \). By Chernoff bound the probability that this number of interactions exceeds 7\( n^{0.2} \) in \([t', t] \) is negligible, i.e., at most \( n^{-\eta} \). Thus in Case 3 the probability that the number of agents on levels at most \( k \) exceeds 0.12\( n > 0.11n + 7n^{0.2} \) is negligible, i.e., at most \( n^{-\eta} \).
We now formulate Claim 1 that upperbounds the number of agents leaving levels $j \leq k$ and Claim 2 that bounds from below the number of agents joining these levels in Case 3. Because $\wp (1 - 6n^{-\eta'})$ the levels $j \leq k$ gain agents as a result of these two processes. This will conclude the proof.

\section*{Claim 1}
In Case 3 during parallel time period $[t', t]$ there are at most $0.26n^{0.1}$ agents located at levels $j \leq k$ which increment their level $\wp (1 - 4n^{-\eta'})$.

And indeed, as for long as there are at most $0.12n$ agents on levels not greater than $k$, the probability that such agent interacts as the initiator with a clock agent is at most $0.12/n$. Such an interaction increments the level of this clock agent with probability at most $0.12/n$. We prove that more than $0.13n^{0.1}$ such increments occur in $[t', t]$ with probability at most $4n^{-\eta'}$. Consider a sequence of $n^{1.1}$ zeros and ones in which position $i$ is one if and only if either

- interaction $i$ increments initiator's level and there are at most $0.12n$ agents on levels not greater than $k$
- if this number is greater than $0.38n$ value 1 is drawn with a fixed probability $0.12/n$.

By Chernoff bound this sequence has less than $0.13n^{0.1}$ ones (1s) $\wp (1 - n^{-\eta'})$. On the other hand we have at most $0.12n$ agents on levels at most $k$ $\wp (1 - n^{-\eta'})$. Thus $\wp (1 - 2n^{-\eta'})$ at most $0.13n^{0.1}$ agents on levels not exceeding $k$ can increment their levels in $[t', t]$ acting as initiators. Analogously, we can prove that $\wp (1 - 2n^{-\eta'})$ at most $0.13n^{0.1}$ agents on levels not exceeding $k$ can increment their levels in $[t', t]$ acting as responders. So altogether at most $0.26n^{0.1}$ agents on levels $j \leq k$ increment their levels during $s[t', t]$ $\wp (1 - 4n^{-\eta'})$.

\section*{Claim 2}
In Case 3 during parallel time period $[t', t]$ there are at least $0.75n^{0.1}$ interactions between agents on levels $i < k$ and those residing on levels higher than $k$ $\wp (1 - 2n^{-\eta'})$.

For as long as there are at most $0.12n$ agents on levels at most $k$, at least $0.38n = n/2 - 0.12n$ agents are on levels higher than $k$. The probability of interaction between such agents and an agent on level $i < k$ is at least $0.76/n = 2 \cdot 0.38/n$. Any such an interaction increases the number of agents on levels not exceeding $k$. Consider a sequence of $n^{1.1}$ zeros and ones in which at position $i$ is one (1) if and only if either

- there are at most $0.12n$ agents on levels not greater than $k$ and interaction $i$ increases the number of such agents
- the number of agents on levels up to $k$ is greater than $0.12n$ and value 1 is drawn with a fixed probability $0.76/n$.

By Chernoff bound this sequence has more than $0.75n^{0.1}$ ones (1s) $\wp (1 - n^{-\eta'})$. On the other hand we have at most $0.12n$ agents on levels at most $k$ $\wp (1 - n^{-\eta'})$. Thus $\wp (1 - 2n^{-\eta'})$ at least $0.75n^{0.1}$ agents on levels exceeding $k$ can reduce their levels to at most $k$ during $[t', t]$ while acting as initiators.

Because of both Claims 1 and 2 after parallel time period $[t', t]$ there are at least $0.51n^{0.1}(= 0.75n^{0.1} - 0.24n^{0.1})$ more agents on levels $j \leq k$ than in parallel time $t'$. This proves that in parallel time $t$ there are at least $0.1n$ agents on levels $j \leq k$.

\section*{Lemma 8}
The parallel time in which the first agent achieves level $\max$ is greater than $(\max - d - 2) \cdot 0.4n \ln n$ whp.

\textbf{Proof.} Let $t_k$ be the time when for the first time there are no agents available at levels lower than $k$. By Lemma 7 during period $[0.51, t_k]$, there are at least $0.1n$ agents on level $k$ or lower. Let $n_k \in [n/4, n/2]$ be the number of edges at time $t_k$. Thus between time $t_k$ and $t_{k+1}$ at least $0.1n$ agents must increment their levels to $k + 1$. This is done by collecting (interacting via) edges adjacent to them. By Lemma 4 this takes parallel time at least $0.4n \ln n$. This process is repeated for $\max - d - 2$ levels when no agents reach level $\max$ whp.
Lemma 9. The first agent moves to level $\text{max}$ in parallel time $O(n \log n)$ whp.

Proof. The total parallel time to form $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ edges is $O(n \log n)$ whp by Lemma 2. If the first agent achieves level $\text{max}$ earlier the lemma remains true. If this is not the case, the parallel time $O(n \log n)$ is determined by collection of all $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ edges which needs to be repeated $\text{max}$ times (to reach the highest level) resulting also in the total parallel time $O(n \log n)$.

Now we are ready to prove Theorem 1. The thesis for matching based clock follows directly from Lemmas 8 and 9. The thesis for the leader based clock can be proved by a sequence of lemmas almost identical to Lemmas 7, 8 and 9. In the analogue of Lemma 7 we can take $n-1$ followers instead of $n'$ edges. This is because Lemma 2 assures that the parallel time counted by the matching based clock is long enough to form all edges whp. All agents are initiated at level 0 of the leader based clock in parallel time $O(\log n)$ whp, by the epidemic started by the leader. This is followed by removal of all edges of the matching based clock in time $O(n \log n)$ whp. This gives the initialisation of the leader based clock in parallel time $O(n \log n)$.

4 Optimal spanning line formation

In the spanning line formation problem, starting in edge-less configuration the task for $n$ agents is to form a sequence $a_i, \ldots, a_{i+n-1}$, in which pairs of agents $a_i, a_{i+1}$, for $j \in \{0, \ldots, n-2\}$, become connected by edges, which are the only edges present in the population. We prove that any spanning line formation protocol requires $\Omega(n \log n)$ parallel time. We also propose an optimal spanning line formation protocol which stabilises in parallel time $\Theta(n \log n)$ whp.

Theorem 10. Spanning line formation stabilising whp requires $\Omega(n \log n)$ parallel time.

Proof. The final spanning line configuration must be preceded by one of the three critical configurations including A) two lines, where one of four edges could be inserted to form a line, B) buffalo, where one specific edge needs to be removed, or C) unicorn, where one of the two edges needs to be removed. Alternatively, the final line configuration is obtained from cycle configuration (a cycle containing all agents) from which one edge is removed. In such case we consider the only two cycle preceding configurations including D) line, where a unique edge need to be inserted, or E) chord, where specific chord needs to be removed, see Figure 1. Thus to stabilise in the final spanning line configuration, the protocol has to go through one of the bottleneck transitions having a choice of a fixed (at most 4) number of edges. This limited choice forces $\Omega(n \log n)$ parallel time if we insist on high probability.

![Figure 1](configurations_leading_to_line_and_cycle.png)

Figure 1 Configurations leading to line and cycle.
Let $T$ be the parallel time required to stabilise in the final spanning line configuration whp. As indicated above, stabilising in such configuration requires passing through a bottleneck transition. At any time, when in a critical configuration, the probability of choosing at random a pair of agents which enables a bottleneck transition is at most $\frac{4}{n^2} = \frac{8}{n(n-1)}$, since there are at most four such pairs for each bottleneck transition. Assume $T < \eta \ln \frac{n}{10}$, where $\eta$ is the parameter of whp requirement. The probability that the algorithm fails in this time is not smaller than the probability of no bottleneck transition which is at least
\[
\left(1 - \frac{8}{n(n-1)}\right)^{\eta \ln \frac{n}{10}} \sim n^{-0.8\eta} > n^{-\eta}.
\]
Thus also the probability of a spanning line formation protocol not stabilising in parallel time $T$ is larger than $n^{-\eta}$, for $n$ large enough.

**Optimal line formation.** The protocol is preceded by leader election verified by the matching based clock. And when this happens, the (periodic) leader based clock starts running simultaneously with the following line formation protocol based on two main rules defined below. The constant size state space of the combined protocol is a Cartesian product of the individual states spaces of the leader based clock and the line formation protocols.

**Form head and tail**

\[
L + F + 0 \rightarrow H + T + 1
\]

This rule creates the initial head in state $H$ and the tail in state $T$ of the newly formed line. Note that since the line formation process uses separate memory the leader in the leader based clock remains in the leadership state, i.e., it is the head state $H$ is used solely in the line formation protocol.

**Extend the line**

\[
H + F + 0 \rightarrow R + H + 1
\]

This rule extends the current line by addition of an extra agent from the head end of the line. The state $R$ indicates that the agent is in the line between the head and the tail.

**Theorem 11.** The spanning line formation protocol stabilises whp in parallel time $O(n \log n)$.

**Proof.** The probability of an interaction adding agent $i + 1$ to the line when $i$ agents are already present is $\frac{2(n-i)}{n(n-1)}$. Such interactions has geometric distribution with the expected value $\frac{n(n-1)}{2(n-i)}$. Thus the expected parallel time of forming the line is
\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{n(n-1)}{2(n-i)} \sim \frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} \sim \frac{n \ln n}{2}.
\]
By Chernoff-Janson bound this parallel time $O(n \log n)$ is guaranteed whp.

In order to make the line formation protocol always correct we need some backup rules for the unlikely case of desynchronisation when two or more leaders survive to the line formation stage. In such case we need to continue leader elimination.

\[
L + L + 0 \rightarrow L + F + 0
\]
Also when a leader meets already formed head.
\[ L + H + 0 \rightarrow F + H + 0 \]

Finally we have to dismantle excessive lines if two or more lines are formed. This is done using extra state \( D \) which dismantles the line edge by edge starting from the head.
\[ H + H + 0 \rightarrow H + D + 0 \]
\[ D + R + 1 \rightarrow F + D + 0 \]
\[ D + T + 1 \rightarrow F + F + 0 \]

5 Probabilistic bubble-sort

Let array \( A[0..n - 1] \) contain an arbitrary sequence of \( n \) numbers. In the probabilistic bubble-sort during each comparison step an index \( j \in \{0, \ldots, n - 2\} \) is chosen uniformly at random, and if \( A[j] > A[j + 1] \) these two values are swapped in \( A \). We show that the expected number of comparisons required to sort all numbers in \( A \) (in the increasing order) is \( \Theta(n^2) \) whp.

In order to prove this result we first remind the reader that any sorting procedure based on fixing local inversions requires \( \Omega(n^2) \) comparisons. In order to prove the upper bound we utilise the classical zero-one principle stating that if a (probabilistic) sorting network sorts correctly all sequences of zeros and ones, it also sorts an arbitrary sequence of numbers of the same length. More precisely, if we want to prove that a given sequence \( X \) of \( n \) numbers will be sorted we have to consider only \( n + 1 \) zero-one sequences obtained by replacing \( k \) largest elements of \( X \) by ones and the remaining elements by zeros, for any \( k = 0, \ldots, n \), see [22].

Thus it is enough to prove that the probabilistic bubble-sort utilises \( O(n^2) \) comparisons to sort whp any zero-one sequence of length \( n \), and later use the union bound to extend this result to any sequence of numbers, also whp.

▶ Theorem 12. The probabilistic bubble-sort utilises \( 4(n - 1)(n \ln 2 + \eta \ln n) \) comparisons whp to sort any zero-one sequence of size \( n \).

Let \( k \) be the number of ones in a zero-one sequence represented by \( A \). We define a configuration \( C \) as the subset of all positions in \( A \) at which ones are situated, where \( |C| = k \). The probabilistic bubble-sort starts in the initial configuration (based on the original zero-one sequence) and thanks to the conditional swaps progresses through consecutive configurations including the final one in which all zeros precede \( k \) ones. For any configuration \( C \), we define a potential function \( P(C) = \sum_{i \in C} P[i] \) with a non-negative integer value, where
\[
P[i] = 2^{n-k+2l-i} - 2^l, \text{ for } l = |C \cap \{0, \ldots, i-1\}|.
\]

Note that the value of this potential is zero for all \( i \) if and only if the sequence is sorted. Thus \( P(C) = 0 \) for a sorted sequence \( C \). Also, when all ones precede all zeros, the potential \( P(C) \) is the highest possible. One can notice that always \( P(C) < 2^n \).

We prove the following lemma.

▶ Lemma 13. Let \( C \) be an arbitrary configuration in \( A \) and \( EP(C') \) be the expected potential of the next configuration \( C' \) in the probabilistic bubble-sort. The following inequality holds.
\[
EP(C') \leq \left( 1 - \frac{1}{4(n-1)} \right) P(C).
\]
Proof. We split configuration $C$ into disjoint blocks of indices $B_1, B_2, \ldots$, each corresponding to a solid run of ones. For any block $B = \{x, \ldots, y\}$ we define a potential $P(B) = \sum_{i=x}^{y} P[i]$. In the subsequent configuration $C'$, let $EP(B')$ be the expected potential of $B' \subset C'$ based on the ones originating from $B$ in the preceding configuration $C$. We show that

$$EP(B') \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{4(n-1)}\right) P(B).$$

Let $l = |C \cap \{0, \ldots, y - 1\}|$. We have

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=x}^{y} P[i] = \sum_{i=x}^{y} 2^{n-2(l+i-y)} - \sum_{i=x}^{y} 2^{l+i-y} < 2^{n-k+2l-y+1}$$

Assume first that $y = n - 1$. The inequality follows from the fact that $P(B) = P(B') = 0$ as ones located at positions in $B$ cannot be moved any further. Thus we can assume that $y < n - 1$. Now, as either $B' = B$ or $B' = \{x, \ldots, y - 1\} \cup \{y + 1\}$ and the latter happens with probability $\frac{1}{n-1}$, we get

$$P(B') = \sum_{i=x}^{y-1} 2^{n-2(l+i-y)} - \sum_{i=x}^{y} 2^{l+i-y} + 2^{n-k+2l-y-1} =$$

$$P(B) - 2^{n-k+2l-y-1} \leq \frac{3}{4} P(B).$$

And in turn

$$EP(B') \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{n-1}\right) P(B) + \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{3}{4} P(B) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{4(n-1)}\right) P(B).$$

Note that any configuration $C$ is the union of disjoint blocks $B_i$ and $P(C) = \sum_i P(B_i)$, thus also

$$EP(C') = \sum_i EP(B_i') \leq \sum_i \left(1 - \frac{1}{4(n-1)}\right) P(B_i) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{4(n-1)}\right) P(C) \tag*{\blacksquare}$$

The initial value of $P(C_0)$ is bounded by $2^n$. When after $t$ random comparisons $EP(C_t) \leq n^{-\eta}$ the sequence is sorted whp. This holds because the probability that after $t$ random comparisons the sequence is not sorted is equal to the probability that the potential is greater than zero (i.e., at least 1 as the potential is always integral). This probability is less than or equal to $EP(C_t)$ which is not bigger than $n^{-\eta}$.

Let $c = \left(1 - \frac{1}{4(n-1)}\right)$. Let also $P(C_j)$ and $P(C_{j+1})$ be the potentials of the configurations separated by the $j$th consecutive comparison. We have shown earlier that $EP(C_{j+1})$, conditioned on the value of $P(C_j)$, is at most $c \cdot P(C_j)$. This implies that the unconditional value of $EP(C_{j+1})$ is at most $c \cdot EP(C_j)$. Thus by an induction argument it follows that after $t$ random comparisons $EP(C_t)$ is at most $c^t \cdot EP(C_0)$. Finally as $EP(C_0) = P(C_0)$, where $C_0$ is the initial configuration and its potential is not a random variable, in order to estimate $t$ we get inequality

$$EP(C_t) \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{4(n-1)}\right)^t P(C_0) \leq \exp \left(-\frac{t}{4(n-1)}\right) 2^n \leq n^{-\eta},$$

which holds for $n \ln 2 + \eta \ln n \leq \frac{t}{4(n-1)}$, equivalent with

$$t \geq 4(n-1)(n \ln 2 + \eta \ln n).$$

This concludes the proof of Theorem 12.
Strand self-replication

A strand is a line segment \( a_{i_0}, \ldots, a_{i_{k-1}} \) in which each agent holds a 0/1-bit of information and the only pairs of agents connected by edges are \( a_{i_j}, a_{i_{j+1}} \), for all \( j \in \{0, \ldots, k-2\} \). The front agent \( a_{i_0} \) in a strand is called the head, the last one \( a_{i_{k-1}} \) is called the tail, and the remaining ones are referred to as regular or internal agents. In the strand self-replication problem the agents forming a strand are asked to create an identical copy of this strand from freely available (disconnected) agents. In this section we propose and analyze the first strand self-replication mechanism allowing efficient concurrent reproduction of many, possibly different, strands.

Our strand self-replication protocol mimics the pipelining process utilised and analyzed in the probabilistic bubble-sort algorithm in Section 5. There are, however, some small differences between the two processes. In particular, in strand self-replication the transfer (pipelining) of consecutive bits of information between the old and the new strand is done at the same time as the new strand is being constructed. Also any bit transferred to the new strand stops moving as soon as it finds the first unused (newly added) agent in the new strand. Finally, the probability of using an edge in the strand is \( \frac{1}{n^2} \) comparing to the probability \( \frac{1}{k} \) of choosing any pair of numbers in the probabilistic bubble-sort applied to sequence of size \( k \). In the proof of Theorem 14 we point out that only the last difference separates the self-replication process by a multiplicative factor \( \Theta(n^2/k) \) from bubble-sort applied to a sequence with \( k \) ones on the left and \( 2k \) zeros at the right end.

The Algorithm. When a strand is ready for self-replication it first creates a copy of its head, then pushes through this new head (one by one, preserving the order) the bits of information pulled from its own agents. At the same time, in order to accept the incoming bits of information, first the new head and later the copies of the consecutive regular agents of the replicated strand extend the new strand until the tail is formed. When the last (tail) bit of information is delivered to the new strand, the edge bond bridging the two heads is removed and the original (old) strand is ready for the next round of self-replication.

Note that in this version of the self-replication protocol a newly formed strand may simultaneously seek its tail extension and already be involved in self-replication from its head end. In addition, when eventually all free agents are used, a large volume of agents will be likely stuck in partially replicated strands.

\[ \text{Theorem 14.} \] The strand self-replication protocol recreates a \( k \)-bit strand in parallel time \( O(n(k + \log n)) \) whp.

Proof. See the Appendix including Lemmas 16 and 17.

\[ \text{Corollary 15.} \] The strand self-replication protocol generates \( l \) copies of a \( k \)-bit strand in parallel time \( O(n(k + \log n) \log l) \) whp.

Pattern matching with strand self-replication

Pattern matching is a classical problem in Algorithms [13]. In this problem there are two strings, a shorter pattern \( P \) of length \( k \) and usually much longer text \( T \) of length \( m \). The main task in pattern matching is to find all occurrences of \( P \) in \( T \). We demonstrate how to utilise self-replication mechanism in pattern matching in the network constructors model.

Assume we have two strands, one containing \( P^R \) (reversed sequence of bits in \( P \)) and the other containing \( T \). One can find all occurrences of \( P \) in \( T \) by forming a single strand containing sequence \( T \cdot P^R \), further injection to and pipelining across \( T \) the consecutive bits.
of $P^R$ while adopting the pattern matching procedure from [11]. Using this approach and Theorem 17 one can prove that utilising a fixed number of states the parallel time of finding all occurrences of $P$ in $T$ is $O(n(m + k + \log n))$ whp.

The pattern matching protocol can be improved by instructing the original strand and all replicas containing $P^R$ to alternate between insertion of its content at a random position in $T$ and self-replication. Each insertion and self-replication takes time $O(n(k + \log n))$. After $\frac{m}{\mathcal{P}}$ pattern replications and insertions the distance between any two consecutive insertion points in strand $T$ is $O(k \log m)$ whp, for $m$ large enough. Thus the parallel time of the improved protocol is independent from $m$ and is bounded by $O(n(k + \log n) \log n)$, where $O(n(k + \log n) \log \frac{m}{\mathcal{P}})$ comes from all insertions and self-replications, and $O(n(k \log m + \log n))$ refers to pattern matching on each segment of size $O(k \log m)$.

7 Open Problems

Going beyond the proposed strand self-replication protocol one could investigate whether other network structures can self-replicate and at what cost. Also further studies on utilisation of strands (as carriers of complex information) in more complex distributed processes is needed. One should also seek alternative population protocol models which capture the bottleneck of infrequent edge manipulation. This can be done, for example, by imposing a greater bias on interactions between pairs of agents already connected by edges.

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Appendix

Proof of Theorem 14. We start with presenting further detail of the self-replication protocol. As in all other protocols studied in this paper, the agents utilise a constant number of states, this time organised into the following triplets

\[< \text{Role}, B_i, \text{Buffer}>,\]

where the three attributes are:

- **Role** refers to the strand’s head agent \(H\), the tail agent \(T\), or to a regular contributor \(R\).
- \(B_i\) refers to the bit of information combined with its position \(i\) in the strand. Note that each position \(i\) is computed (and stored) modulo 3 counting from the head’s position 0. This allows agents to distinguish between the two directions: towards the head and towards the tail on the strand. We use \(B_T\) to denote the bit located in the tail agent of the strand with a special index \(-1\). Finally, by \(|B_i|\) we denote the sole value of the information bit without its location. Thus the binary representation of the information stored in the replicated strand corresponds to the sequence \(|B_0|, |B_1|, \ldots, |B_T|\), and in turn for all \(B_i \neq B_T\) we have \(B_i = < |B_i|, i \mod 3 >\), and \(B_T = < |B_T|, -1 >\).
- **Buffer** is a part of agents’ memory handling single information \(|B_i|\) bits or control messages.

An agent is in the neutral state \(\phi\) when its buffer is empty and no dedicated replication action (apart from waiting for further instructions) is needed from this agent. In the self-replicated strand state \(\phi^H\) denotes the empty buffer of an agent supporting bit transfer towards \(H\). Similarly, when the buffer is occupied by a bit \(|B_x|\) moving towards \(H\) the relevant state is \(|B_x|^H\).

In the newly formed strand state \(\psi^T\) denotes the empty buffer of an agent supporting bit transfer towards the tail end. And similarly, when the buffer is occupied by a bit \(|B_x|\) moving towards the tail end the relevant state is \(|B_x|^T\). Here the control message \(\psi^N\)
indicates that further extension is expected at the current end of the new strand. In this strand we distinguish also state $\psi$ (await further information) in agents just added at the tail end.

Below we explain how the information (the carried sequence of bits) is transferred from the old to the new strand. The full list of strand self-replication protocol rules follows. The relevant diagrams with state transitions in the old and the new strands are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3 respectively. Please note that this set of rules is designed for strands containing at least three agents, i.e., when all types of agents $H,T$ and $R$ are used. The relevant protocols for shorter strands are trivial as they carry only a constant number of bits.

(R1) **Start of the strand self-replication.** The replication process begins when the head $H$ in the neutral state $\phi$ interacts with a free agent in state $F$:

$$<H, B_0, \phi> + F + 0 \rightarrow <H, B_0, \phi_H> + <H, B_0, \psi> + 1$$

When this rule is applied, in the old strand signal $\phi_H$ (move all bits towards the head) is created, and in the new strand signal $\psi$ means await further instructions (either to add a new agent or to conclude the replication process).

(R2) **Create $|B_i|_H$ or $|B_T|_H$ bit message.** When signal $\phi_H$ arrives at the $(i-1)^{th}$ agent and the $i^{th}$ agent is neutral, message $|B_i|_H$ is placed in the buffer of the latter.

$$<R, B_i, \phi> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, \phi_H> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<R, B_i, |B_i|_H> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, \phi_H> + 1$$

A similar action is taken at the tail agent in neutral state $<T, B_T, \phi>$

$$<T, B_T, \phi> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, \phi_H> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<T, B_T, |B_T|_H> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, \phi_H> + 1$$

The rules in R2 enable propagation of the request to pipeline all information bits towards the head $H$. The rules R3 and R4 govern the relevant bit movement.

(R3) **Move a non-tail bit message $|B_x|_H$ towards $H$.**

$$<R, B_i, |B_x|_H> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, \phi_H> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<R, B_i, \phi_H> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, |B_x|_H> + 1$$

Note that when the bit message $|B_x|$ is moved state $\phi_H$ requesting further bit messages remains in the $i^{th}$ agent.

(R4) **Move the tail bit message $|B_T|_H$ towards $H$.**

$$<T|R, B_i, |B_T|_H> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, \phi_H> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<T|R, B_i, \phi> + <R|H, B_{i-1}, |B_T|_H> + 1$$

Note that when the tail message $|B_T|_H$ is moved the neutrality of the tail agent is restored. Eventually, thanks to the final transfer of the tail message (to the new strand) states of all buffers in the old strand are reset to $\phi$. 
The following two rules govern transfer of bit messages between the old and the new strand.

**R5** Transfer a non-tail bit message $|B_x|^H$ to the head of the new strand.

$$<H, B_0, |B_x|^H> + <H, B_0, \psi^T> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<H, B_0, \phi^H> + <H, B_0, |B_x|^T> + 1$$

After the transfer across the two strands the bit message is now targeting the tail end.

**R6** Transfer the tail bit message $|B_T|^H$ to the head of the new strand.

$$<H, B_0, |B_T|^H> + <H, B_0, \psi^T> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<H, B_0, \phi^H> + <H, B_0, |B_T|^T> + 0$$

As indicated earlier, transfer of the tail message to the new strand and removal of the bridging edge restore the neutrality of the old strand which is now ready to reproduce again.

Finally, we discuss the remaining rules governing the new strand creation. Recall that the control message represented by state $\psi$ at the current end of the new strand indicates that this strand can be still extended.

**R7** Move a non-tail message $|B_x|^T$ towards the tail end.

$$<H|R, B_i, |B_x|^T> + <R, B_{i+1}, \psi^T> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<H|R, B_i, \psi^T> + <R, B_{i+1}, |B_x|^T> + 1$$

After this move the $i^{th}$ agent in the new strand awaits further bit messages.

**R8** Move the tail message $|B_T|^T$ towards the tail end.

$$<H|R, B_i, |B_T|^T> + <R, B_{i+1}, \psi^T> + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<H|R, B_i, \psi^T> + <R, B_{i+1}, |B_T|^T> + 1 >$$

After this move the neutrality of the $i^{th}$ agent in the new strand is restored, i.e., no further bit messages from the head end are expected.

When there is no room for the bit message coming from the head end another agent has to be added to the tail end of the new strand. This is done in two steps. In the first step the current tail end requests addition of a new agent with control message $\psi^N$.

**R9** Request strand extension with $\psi^N$ on non-tail bit message $|B_x|^T$ arrival.

$$<R, B_i, |B_x|^T > + <R, B_{i+1}, \psi > + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<R, B_i, |B_x|^T > + <R, B_{i+1}, \psi^N > + 1.$$

The analogous rule requesting extension beyond the head of the new strand is

$$<H, B_0, |B_1|^H> + <H, B_0, \psi > + 1 \rightarrow$$

$$<H, B_0, |B_1|^H> + <H, B_0, \psi^N > + 1.$$

When ready (signal $\psi^N$ is present) the new agent is added from the pool of free agents.
(R10) Extend the new strand.

\[ <H|R,B_i,ψ^N> + F + 0 \rightarrow \]
\[ <H|R,B_i,ψ^T> + <R,*,ψ> + 1 \]

Note that after this rule is applied the newly added agent still awaits its bit message which is denoted by *. This new bit message arrives with the help of the following two rules.

(R11) Arrival of a non-tail bit message.

\[ <H|R,B_i,B_x,T> + <R,*,ψ> + 1 \rightarrow \]
\[ <H|R,B_i,ψ>T> + <R,B_x,ψ> + 1 \]

As a non-tail bit arrived the new strand will be still extended which is denoted by messages \(ψ^T\) (expect more bit messages from the head end) in the \(i^{th}\) agent and \(ψ\) (further extension still possible). The situation is different when the tail bit message arrives.

(R12) Arrival of the tail bit message.

\[ <R,B_i,B_T,T> + <R,*,ψ> + 1 \rightarrow \]
\[ <R,B_i,ϕ> + <T,B_T,ϕ> + 1 \]

After this rule is applied the neutrality at the tail end of the new strand is restored.

Note, however, that since the neutrality of the agents closer to the head of this strand was restored earlier the front of the new strand can be already involved in the next strand replication process. But since we use different messages for the transfers in the old and the new strands, the two simultaneously run processes will not interrupt one another.

We conclude the proof of Theorem 14 with Lemma 16 stating the correctness of the proposed self-replication protocol, and Lemma 17 addressing the parallel time complexity.

▷ Lemma 16. The strand self-replication protocol based on rules R1-R12 is correct.

Proof. We argue first about correctness of the proposed protocol in the replicated (old) strand. One can observe that the bit messages stored in the agents of the strand move along consecutive edges towards the head \(H\). They do not change their order as they only move when the preceding bit message vacates the relevant buffer. Finally, to conclude the replication process neutrality of each agent need to be restored, and this is done by the eventual transfer of the tail message \(|B_T|^H\). In what follows we discuss the actions in all three types of agents in the strand.

- The actions of the tail node are governed by rules R2 and R4. The first rule creates bit message \(|B_T|^H\) and the second moves this message towards the head of the strand, restoring the neutrality of the tail agent.

- The actions of a regular node require also rule R3 which supports movement of multiple non-tail bit messages towards \(H\). And when the tail bit message arrives the neutrality of this regular agent is restored by rule R4 applied to this agent twice, first on the right then on the left side of this rule.
The actions of head $H$ are more complex. The self-replication begins with application of rule $R_1$ which comprises three different actions: forming a bridging edge, adding the head of the new strand, and replication of its bit message in the newly formed head. This is followed by transfer of non-tail bit messages to the new strand by alternating use of rules $R_3$ and $R_5$. When eventually the tail bit message arrives during application of rule $R_4$, the neutrality of the head is restored by rule $R_6$. This concludes the replication process.

For the full cycles of rules utilised in the replicated strand see Figure 2 in the Appendix. The new strand formation requires different organisation of states and transitions. Note that all agents added to the strand must originate in state $F$, see Figure 3. Also in this case we argue that the bit messages arrive in the unchanged order and eventually the neutrality of all agents is reached (starting from the head and finishing with the tail agent) with the help of the tail bit message $|B_T|T$.

Formation of the tail agent requires application of only two rules: $R_{10}$ to add a new agent and $R_{12}$ to equip this agents with the tail message $|B_T|$, when neutrality of this agent is reached.

The situation with the regular nodes is more complex as they have to accept and store their own bit message $|B_i|$ (done by rule $R_{11}$), add additional agent (via alternating application of rules $R_9$ and $R_{10}$) moving all non-tail bit messages following $|B_i|$ in the old strand (rule $R_7$) until the tail bit message arrives (rule $R_8$) and finally neutrality of the regular agents is reached via rule $R_8$ or rule $R_{12}$ if the agent precedes the tail agent.

Rule $R_1$ creates the head of the new strand, rules $R_9$ and $R_{10}$ add a new agent, rules $R_5$ and $R_7$ move non-tail bit messages in the direction of the tail until the tail bit message arrives (rule $R_6$) when the neutrality of the head is reached (rule $R_8$).

For the full cycle of rules used by agents in the replicated strand see Figure 3 (Appendix). As discussed earlier in the new strand what matters is that neutrality is reached earlier by agents located closer to the head, as this strand is allowed to start self-replication while some bit messages (from the old strand) are still being moved towards the tail end (which may not be fully formed yet). However, it is enough to observe that these two replication processes are independent as they are based on movement of bit messages towards the opposite directions and in turn they share no rules.

Lemma 17. The strand self-replication protocol based on rules $R_1$-$R_{12}$ stabilises in parallel time $O(n(k + \log n))$ whp.

Proof. The strand self-replication protocol mimics the pipelining mechanism utilised and analyzed in the probabilistic bubble-sort procedure. The main differences is the fact that the bits of information are moved along the original and the new strand at the same time as the new strand is being constructed. In particular, when the leading bit reaches the current end of the new strand, the extension request (for a new agent and edge connection) is successful with probability $\leq \frac{1}{n^2}$. Also move of any bit along an existing edge is successful with probability $1/\binom{n}{2}$. Thus the expected potential change associated with one interaction (the counterpart of the inequality from Lemma 13) is

$$EP(C') \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{2n(n-1)}\right) P(C).$$
As the total number of extension requests is $k$ and the longest distance any bit has to move is $2k$, we get the initial potential $P(C_0) \leq 2^{3k}$ in this case. In order to estimate the number of interactions $t$, after which $EP(C_t) \leq n^{-\eta}$, we get inequalities

$$EP(C_t) \leq \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2n(n-1)} \right)^t \cdot P(C_0) \leq \exp \left( -\frac{t}{2n(n-1)} \right) 2^{3k} \leq n^{-\eta},$$

which holds for $3k \ln 2 + \eta \ln n \leq \frac{t}{2n(n-1)}$ and in turn for $t \geq 2n(n-1)(3k \ln 2 + \eta \ln n)$.