Sade: competitive MAC under adversarial SINR

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Abstract This paper considers the problem of how to efficiently share a wireless medium which is subject to harsh external interference or even jamming. So far, this problem is understood only in simplistic single-hop or unit disk graph models. We in this paper initiate the study of MAC protocols for the SINR interference model (a.k.a. physical model). This paper makes two contributions. First, we introduce a new adversarial SINR model which captures a wide range of interference phenomena. Concretely, we consider a powerful, adaptive adversary which can jam nodes at arbitrary times and which is only limited by some energy budget. Our second contribution is a distributed MAC protocol called Sade which provably achieves a constant competitive throughput in this environment: we show that, with high probability, the protocol ensures that a constant fraction of the non-blocked time periods is used for successful transmissions.

1 Introduction

The problem of coordinating the access to a shared medium is a central challenge in wireless networks. To efficiently share the wireless medium, a proper medium access control (MAC) protocol is needed. Ideally, such a protocol should not only be able to use the wireless medium as effectively as possible, but it should also be robust against a wide range of interference problems including jamming attacks. Currently, the most widely used model to capture interference problems is the SINR (signal-to-interference-and-noise ratio) model [24]. In this model, a message sent by node $u$ is correctly received by node $v$ if and only if

$$P_u(v)/(N + \sum_{w \in S} P_w(v)) \geq \beta$$

where $P_u(y)$ is the received power at node $x$ of the signal transmitted by node $y$, $N$ is the background noise, and $S$ is the set of nodes $w \neq u$ that are transmitting at the same time as $u$. The threshold $\beta > 1$ depends on the desired rate, the modulation scheme, etc. When using the standard model for signal propagation, then this expression results in $P(u)/d(u, v)\alpha/(N + \sum_{w \in S} P(w)/d(w, v)\alpha) \geq \beta$ where $P(x)$ is the strength of the signal transmitted by $x$, $d(x, y)$ is the Euclidean distance between $x$ and $y$, and $\alpha$ is the path-loss exponent. In this paper, we will assume that all nodes transmit with some fixed signal strength $P$ and that $\alpha > 2$, which is usually the case in an outdoors environment [38].

In most papers on MAC protocols, the background noise $N$ is either ignored (i.e., $N = 0$) or assumed to behave like a Gaussian variable. This, however, is an over-simplification of the real world. There are many sources of interference producing a non-Gaussian noise such as electri-
cal devices, temporary obstacles, co-existing networks [42], or jamming attacks. Also, these sources can severely degrade the availability of the wireless medium which can put a significant stress on MAC protocols that have only been designed to handle interference from the nodes themselves. In order to capture a very broad range of noise phenomena, one of the main contributions of this work is the modeling of the background noise \( N \) (due to jamming or to environmental noise) with the aid of an adversary \( \mathcal{ADV}(v) \) that has a fixed energy budget within a certain time frame for each node \( v \). More precisely, in our case, a message transmitted by a node \( u \) will be successfully received by node \( v \) if and only if

\[
\frac{P}{d(u, v)^\alpha} + \sum_{w \in S} \frac{P}{d(w, v)^\alpha} \geq \beta
\]

(1)

where \( \mathcal{ADV}(v) \) is the current noise level created by the adversary at node \( v \). Our goal will be to design a MAC protocol that allows the nodes to successfully transmit messages under this model as long as this is in principle possible. Prior to our work, no MAC protocol has been shown to have this property.

### 1.1 Model

We assume that we have a static set \( V \) of \( n \) wireless nodes that have arbitrary fixed positions in the 2-dimensional Euclidean plane so that no two nodes have the same position. The nodes communicate over a wireless medium with a single channel. We also assume that the nodes are backlogged in the sense that they always have something to broadcast. Each node sends at a fixed transmission power of \( P \), and a message sent by \( u \) is correctly received by \( v \) if and only if

\[
\frac{P}{d(u, v)^\alpha} / (\mathcal{ADV}(v) + \sum_{w \in S} P/d(w, v)^\alpha) \geq \beta
\]

For our formal description and analysis, we assume a synchronized setting where time proceeds in synchronized rounds. In each round, a node may either transmit a message or sense the channel, but it cannot do both. A node which is sensing the channel may either (i) sense an idle channel, (ii) sense a busy channel, or (iii) receive a packet. In order to distinguish between an idle and a busy channel, the nodes have built-in a fixed noise threshold \( \vartheta \); if the measured signal power exceeds \( \vartheta \), the channel is considered busy, otherwise idle. The threshold \( \vartheta \) relates to the distance within which nodes can communicate with each other, and we will derive bounds on the adversary in terms of \( \vartheta \) (see below). A competitive throughput can only be achieved if \( \vartheta \) is sufficiently large (see below). The basic strategy used in this paper is to approximate the “acceptable amount of noise” and set \( \vartheta \) to the denominator of the SINR formula: the transmission range of a node \( v \) can accordingly be defined as the disk with center \( v \) and radius \( r \) such that \( P/r^\alpha \geq \beta \vartheta \). Whether a message is indeed successfully received is determined by the SINR rule described above.

Physical carrier sensing is part of the 802.11 standard, and is provided by a Clear Channel Assessment (CCA) circuit. This circuit monitors the environment to determine when it is clear to transmit. The CCA functionality can be programmed to be a function of the Receive Signal Strength Indication (RSSI) and other parameters. The ability to manipulate the CCA rules allows the MAC layer to optimize the physical carrier sensing to its needs. Adaptive settings of the physical carrier sensing threshold have been used, for instance, in [43] to increase spatial reuse.

In addition to the nodes there is an adversary who controls the background noise. In order to cover a broad spectrum of noise phenomena, we allow this adversary to be adaptive, i.e., for each round \( t \) the adversary is allowed to know the state of all the nodes in the system at the beginning of \( t \) (i.e., before the nodes perform any actions at time \( t \)) and can set the noise level \( \mathcal{ADV}(v) \) based on that for each node \( v \). To leave some chance for the nodes to communicate, we restrict the adversary to be \((B, T)\)-bounded: for each node \( v \) and time interval \( I \) of length \( T \), a \((B, T)\)-bounded adversary has an overall noise budget of \( B \cdot T \) that it can use to increase the noise level at node \( v \) and that it can distribute among the rounds of \( I \) as it likes. This adversarial noise model is very general, since in addition to being adaptive, the adversary is allowed to make independent decisions on which nodes to jam at any point in time (provided that the adversary does not exceed its noise budget over a window of size \( T \)). In this way, many noise phenomena can be covered.

Our goal is to design a symmetric local-control MAC protocol (i.e., there is no central authority controlling the nodes, and all the nodes are executing the same protocol) that has a constant competitive throughput against any \((B, T)\)-bounded adversary as long as certain conditions (on \( B \) etc.) are met. In order to define what we mean by “competitive”, we need some notation. The transmission range of a node \( v \) is defined as the disk with center \( v \) and radius \( r \) with \( P/r^\alpha \geq \beta \vartheta \), i.e., the range at which \( v \)'s messages can still be received in the absence of adversarial noise. Given a constant \( \epsilon > 0 \), a round is called potentially busy at some node \( v \) if \( \mathcal{ADV}(v) \geq (1 - \epsilon) \vartheta \) (i.e., only a little bit of additional interference by the other nodes is needed so that \( v \) sees a busy channel). For a not potentially busy round at \( v \), \( v \) is still possible that a message sent by a node \( u \) within \( v \)'s transmission range is successfully received by \( v \). Therefore, as long as the adversary is forced to offer not potentially busy rounds due to its limited budget and every node has at least one other node in its transmission range, it is in principle possible for the nodes to successfully transmit messages. To investigate that formally, we use the following notation. For any time frame \( F \) (a set of consecutive rounds) and node \( v \), let \( f_v(F) \)
be the number of rounds in $F$ that are not potentially busy at $v$ and let $s_v(F)$ be the number of rounds in which $v$ successfully receives a message. We call a protocol $c$-competitive for some time frame $F$ if $\sum_{v \in V} s_v(F) \geq c \sum_{v \in V} f_v(F)$. An adversary is uniform if at any round, $ADV(v) = ADV(w)$ for all nodes $v, w \in V$, which implies that $f_v(F) = f_w(F)$ for all nodes. Note that the scope of this paper is not restricted to the case of a uniform jammer (cf Theorem 1).

Since the MAC protocol presented in this paper will be randomized, our performance results typically hold with high probability (short: w.h.p.), that is, with a (polynomial) probability of at least $1 - 1/n$. Some intermediate results will only hold with moderate probability (w.m.p.), that is, with a (poly-logarithmic) probability of at least $1 - 1/\log n$.

1.2 Our contribution

The contribution of this paper is twofold. First of all, we introduce a novel extension of the SINR model in order to investigate MAC protocols that are robust against a broad range of interference phenomena. Second, we present a MAC protocol called Sade\(^1\) which can achieve a $c$-competitive throughput where $c$ only depends on $\epsilon$ and the path loss exponent $\gamma$ but not on the size of the network or other network parameters. (In practice, $\alpha$ is typically in the range $2 < \alpha < 5$, and thus $c$ is a constant for fixed $\epsilon$ [38].) Let $n$ be the number of nodes and let $N = \max\{n, T\}$. Concretely, we show:

**Theorem 1** When running Sade for at least $\Omega((T \log N)/\epsilon + (\log N)/(\gamma \epsilon)^2)$ rounds, for some $\gamma \in O(1/\log T + \log \log n)$, Sade has a $2^{-O((1/\epsilon)^2/(\alpha - 2))}$-competitive throughput for any $(1 - \epsilon)\delta, T)$-bounded adversary as long as (a) the adversary is uniform and the transmission range of every node contains at least one node, or (b) there are at least $2/e$ nodes within the transmission range of every node.

On the other hand, we also show the following.

**Theorem 2** The nodes can be positioned so that the transmission range of every node is non-empty and yet no MAC protocol can achieve any throughput against a $(B, T)$-bounded adversary with $B > \delta$, even if it is uniform.

The two theorems demonstrate that our Sade protocol is basically as robust as a MAC protocol can get within our model. However, it should be possible to improve the competitiveness. We conjecture that a polynomial dependency on $(1/\epsilon)$ is possible, but showing that formally seems to be hard. In fact, a different protocol than Sade would be needed for that.

While our main contribution lies on the conceptual and theoretical side, to complement our formal analysis and worst-case bounds, we also report on the results of a simple simulation study. This study confirms many of our theoretical results, but also shows that the actual performance is often better than in the worst-case. For instance, it depends to a lesser extent on $\epsilon$.

1.3 Paper organization

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. We present our algorithm in Sect. 2, and subsequently analyze its performance in Sect. 3. Simulation results are presented in Sect. 4. After reviewing related work in Sect. 5, we conclude our paper with a discussion in Sect. 6.

2 Algorithm

The intuition behind Sade is simple: Each node $v$ maintains a parameter $p_v$ which specifies $v$’s probability of accessing the channel at a given moment of time. That is, in each round, each node $u$ decides to broadcast a message with probability $p_u$. (This is similar to classical random backoff mechanisms where the next transmission time $t$ is chosen uniformly at random from an interval of size $1/p_v$.) The nodes adapt their $p_v$ values over time in a multiplicative-increase multiplicative-decrease manner, i.e., the value is lowered in times when the channel is utilized (more specifically, we decrease $p_v$ whenever a successful transmission occurs) or increased during times when the channel is idling. However, $p_v$ will never exceed $\hat{p}$, for some constant $0 < \hat{p} < 1$ to be specified later.

In addition to the probability value $p_v$, each node $v$ maintains a time window threshold estimate $T_v$ and a counter $c_v$ for $T_v$. The variable $T_v$ is used to estimate the adversary’s time window $T$: a good estimation of $T$ can help the nodes recover from a situation where they experience high interference in the network. In times of high interference, $T_v$ will be increased and the sending probability $p_v$ will be decreased.

With these intuitions in mind, we can describe Sade in full detail.

Initially, every node $v$ sets $T_v := 1$, $c_v := 1$, and $p_v := \hat{p}$. In order to distinguish between idle and busy rounds, each node uses a fixed noise threshold of $\delta$.

The Sade protocol works in synchronized rounds. In every round, each node $v$ decides with probability $p_v$ to send a message. If it decides not to send a message, it checks the following two conditions:

- If $v$ successfully receives a message, then $p_v := (1 + \gamma)^{-1} p_v$.
- If $v$ senses an idle channel (i.e., the total noise created by transmissions of other nodes and the adversary is less than $\theta$), then $p_v := \min\{(1 + \gamma)p_v, \hat{p}\}$, $T_v := \max\{1, T_v - 1\}$.

Afterwards, $v$ sets $c_v := c_v + 1$. If $c_v > T_v$ then it does the following: $v$ sets $c_v := 1$, and if there was no idle step among the past $T_v$ rounds, then $p_v := (1 + \gamma)^{-1}p_v$ and $T_v := T_v + 2$.

In order for Sade to be constant competitive in terms of throughput, the parameter $\gamma$ needs to be sufficiently small value that depends very loosely on $n$ and $T$. Concretely, $\gamma \in \mathcal{O}(1/\log T + \log \log n))$.\footnote{While a conservative estimate on $\log T$ and $\log \log n$ would leave room for a superpolynomial change in $n$ and a polynomial change in $T$ over time without the need to update $\gamma$, estimating $n$ in adversarial settings within any reasonable guarantees (e.g., constant or polynomial) is challenging. Whether we can eliminate any dependence on $n$ and $T$ for $\gamma$ remains an open question.}

Our protocol Sade is an adaption of the Unit Disk Graphs specific MAC protocol described in [39], generalized to physical interference models. The main difference in the new protocol is that in order to use the concepts of idle and busy rounds, the nodes employ a fixed noise threshold $\theta$ to distinguish between idle ($\text{noise} < \theta$) and busy rounds ($\text{noise} \geq \theta$); in some scenarios the threshold may not be representative, in the sense that, since the success of a transmission depends on the noise at the receiving node and on $\beta$, it can happen that a node senses an idle or busy channel while simultaneously successfully receiving a message. In order to deal with this problem, Sade first checks whether a message is successfully received, and only otherwise takes into account whether a channel is idle or busy. Another change to the protocol in [39] is that we adapt $T_v$ based on idle rounds which allows us to avoid the upper bound on $T_v$ in the protocol in [39].

## 3 Analysis

While the MAC protocol Sade is very simple, its stochastic analysis requires an understanding of the intricate interplay of the nodes following their randomized protocol in a dependent manner. In particular, the nodes’ interactions depend on their distances (the geometric setting). In order to study the throughput achieved by Sade, we will consider some fixed node $v \in V$ and will divide the area around $v$ into three circular and concentric zones.

Let $D_R(v)$ denote the disk of radius $R$ around a given node $v \in V$. In the following, we will sometimes think of $D_R(v)$ as the corresponding geometric area on the plane, but we will also denote by $D_R(v)$ the set of nodes located in this area. The exact meaning will be clear from the context.

Moreover, whenever we omit $R$ we will assume $R_1$ as radius, where $R_1$ is defined as in Definition 1.

### Definition 1 (Zones)

Given any node $v \in V$, our analysis considers three zones around $v$, henceforth referred to as Zone 1, Zone 2, and Zone 3: Zone 1 is the disk of radius $R_1$ around $v$, Zone 2 is the disk of radius $R_2$ around $v$ minus Zone 1, and Zone 3 is the remaining part of the plane. Concretely:

1. Zone 1 covers the transmission range of $v$, i.e., its radius $R_1$ is chosen so that $P/R_1^2 \geq \beta \theta$, which implies that $R_1 = \sqrt[4]{\beta \theta}.2$. Zone $Z_1(v)$ has the property that if there is at least one sender $u \in Z_1(v)$, then $v$ will either successfully receive the message from $u$ or sense a busy channel, and $v$ will certainly receive the message from $u$ if the overall interference caused by other nodes and the adversary is at most $\theta$.

2. Zone 2 covers a range that we call the (critical) interference range of $v$. Its radius $R_2$ is chosen in a way so that if none of the nodes in Zone 1 and Zone 2 transmit a message, then the interference at any node $w \in Z_1(v)$ caused by transmitting nodes in Zone 3 is likely to be less than $\epsilon \theta$. Hence, if the current round is potentially non-busy at some $w \in Z_1(v)$ (i.e., $ADV(w) \leq (1 - \epsilon)\theta$), then the overall interference at $w$ is less than $\epsilon \theta$, which means that $w$ will see an idle round. It will turn out that $R_2$ can be chosen as $O((1/\epsilon)^{1/(α-1)}R_1)$.

3. Everything outside of Zone 2 is called Zone 3.

The key to proving a constant competitive throughput is the analysis of the cumulative probability (i.e., the sum of the individual sending probabilities $p_v$) of nodes in disks $D_1(v)$ and $D_2(v)$: We will show that the expected cumulative probabilities of $D_1(v)$ and $D_2(v)$, henceforth referred to by $p_1$ and $p_2$, are likely to be at most a constant. Moreover, our analysis shows that while the cumulative probability $p_3$ of the potentially infinitely large Zone 3 may certainly be unbounded (i.e., grow as a function of $n$), the aggregated power received at any node $w \in D_1(v)$ from all nodes in Zone 3 is also constant in expectation.

### 3.1 Zone 1

To show an upper bound on $p_1 = \sum_{u \in Z_1(v)} p_u$, i.e., the cumulative probability of the nodes in Zone 1 of $v$, we can follow a strategy similar to the one introduced for the Unit Disk Graph protocol [39].

In the following, we assume that the budget $B$ of the adversary is limited by $(1 - \epsilon')\theta$ for some constant $\epsilon' = 2\epsilon$. In this case, $B$ is at most $(1 - \epsilon')^2 \theta$. We first look at a slightly weaker form of adversary. We say that a round $t$ is open for a node $v$ if $v$ and at least one other node $w$ within its transmission...
range are potentially non-busy, i.e., $ADV(v) \leq (1 - \epsilon)\delta$ and $ADV(w) \leq (1 - \epsilon)\delta$ (which also implies that $v$ has at least one node within its transmission range). An adversary is weak $(B, T)$-bounded if it is $(B, T)$-bounded and in addition to this, at least a constant fraction of the potentially non-busy rounds at each node is open in every time interval of size $T$.

The weak adversary is more constrained and hence indeed weaker.

Let us focus on a time frame $I$ of size $F$ consisting of $\delta \log N/e$ subframes $I'$ of size $\delta (T + (\log^2 N/\gamma^2 e))$ each, i.e., $F = \delta \log N/e$, where $\delta$ is a sufficiently large constant, and $N = \max\{T, n\}$. Consider some fixed node $v$. We partition $Z_1(v)$ into six sectors of equal angles from $v$, $S_1, \ldots, S_6$. Note that for any sector $S_i$ it holds that if a node $u \in S_i$ transmits a message, then its signal strength at any other node $u' \in S_i$ is at least $\beta \delta$. Fix a sector $S$ and consider some fixed time frame $F$. Let us refer to the sum of the sending probabilities of the neighboring nodes of a given node $v \in S$ by $\hat{p}_v := \sum_{w \in S \setminus \{v\}} p_w$.

Our proof strategy to upper bound the sending probabilities in Zone 1 is as follows: First, in Lemma 1 we study any individual node’s sending probability, and show that it decreases over time if it is high initially. Lemma 2 then studies cumulative probabilities, per disk sector, and shows that the cumulative probability is low at least one time during the interval. Lemmas 3 and 4 derive bounds on the cumulative probability throughout the interval. Finally, Lemma 5 shows that the number of “bad timeframes”, in which cumulative probabilities are high, is small. Thus, since we have only 6 sectors per disk, it follows that during a significant amount of time, the cumulative probability is upper bounded in Zone 1. Let us start. The following lemma shows that $p_v$ will decrease dramatically if $\hat{p}_v$ is high throughout a certain time interval. The lemma is equivalent to Lemma 7 in [39], and we restate the proof for completeness.

**Lemma 1** Consider any node $w \in S$. If $\hat{p}_w > 5 - \hat{p}$ during all rounds of a subframe $I'$ of $I$ and at the beginning of $I'$, $T_{w} \leq \sqrt{F}$, then $p_w$ will be at most $1/n^2$ at the end of $I'$, w.h.p.

**Proof** We call a round useful for node $u$ if, from $u$’s perspective, there is an idle channel or a successful transmission in that round (when ignoring the action of $u$); otherwise the round is called non-useful. Thus, the noise level during an idle useful round is a small constant (smaller than $\delta$), however it can be very high in the presence of a successful transmission if two nodes are very close. Also note that in a non-useful round, according to our protocol, $p_v$ will either decrease (if the threshold $T_v$ is exceeded) or remain the same. On the other hand, in a useful round, $p_v$ will increase (if $v$ senses an idle channel), decrease (if $v$ senses a successful transmission) or remain the same (if $v$ sends a message). Hence, $p_v$ can only increase during useful rounds of $I$. Let $\mathcal{U}$ be the set of use-

Given this property of the individual probabilities, we can derive an upper bound for the cumulative probability of a Sector $S$. In order to compute $p_S = \sum_{v \in S} p_v$, we introduce three thresholds, a low one, $\rho_{\text{green}} = 5$, one in the middle, $\rho_{\text{yellow}} = 5\epsilon$, and a high one, $\rho_{\text{red}} = 5\epsilon^2$. The following three lemmas provide some important insights about these probabilities. The first lemma is shown in [39], and we restate it for completeness.

**Lemma 2** Consider any subframe $I'$ in $I$. If at the beginning of $I'$, $T_w \leq \sqrt{F}$ for all $w \in S$, then there is at least one round in $I'$ with $p_S \leq \rho_{\text{green}}$ w.h.p.
Proof We prove the lemma by contradiction. Suppose that throughout the entire interval $I$, $p_\ell S > \rho_{green}$. Then it holds for every node $v \in S$ that $p_v > \rho_{green} - \hat{p}$ throughout $I$. In this case, we however, from Lemma 1 that $p_v$ will decrease to at most $1/n^2$ at the end of $I$ w.h.p. Hence, all nodes $v \in S$ would decrease $p_v$ to at most $1/n^2$ at the end of $I$ w.h.p., which results in $p_{S} \leq 1/n$. This contradicts our assumption, so w.h.p. there must be a round $i$ in $I$ at which $p_{S} \leq \rho_{green}$. □

Lemma 3 For any subframe $I'$ in $I$ it holds that if $p_{S} \leq \rho_{green}$ at the beginning of $I'$, then $p_{S} \leq \rho_{green}$ throughout $I'$, w.m.p. Similarly, if $p_{S} \leq \rho_{yellow}$ at the beginning of $I'$, then $p_{S} \leq \rho_{yellow}$ throughout $I'$, w.m.p. The probability bounds hold irrespective of the events outside of $S$.

The proof is lengthy and technical. Thus, for readability reasons, it is deferred to the Appendix.

Lemma 4 For any subframe $I'$ in $I$ it holds that if there has been at least one round during the past subframe where $p_{S} \leq \rho_{green}$, then throughout $I'$, $p_{S} \leq \rho_{red}$ w.m.p., and the probability bounds hold irrespective of the events outside of $S$.

Proof Suppose that there has been at least one round during the past subframe where $p_{S} \leq \rho_{green}$. Then we know from Lemma 3 that w.m.p. $p_{S} \leq \rho_{yellow}$ at the beginning of $I'$. But if $p_{S} \leq \rho_{yellow}$ at the beginning of $I'$, we also know from Lemma 3 that w.m.p. $p_{S} \leq \rho_{red}$ throughout $I'$, which proves the lemma. □

Now, define a subframe $I'$ to be good if $p_{S} \leq \rho_{red}$ throughout $I'$, and otherwise $I'$ is called bad. With the help of Lemmas 2 and 4 we can prove the following lemma (see also [39]).

Lemma 5 For any sector $S$, the expected number of bad subframes $I'$ in $I$ is at most $1/polylog(N)$, and at most $\epsilon \beta'/6$ of the subframes $I'$ in $I$ are bad w.h.p., where the constant $\beta'>0$ can be made arbitrarily small depending on the constant $\delta$ in $f$. The bounds hold irrespective of the events outside of $S$.

Proof From Lemma 2 it follows that for every subframe $I$ in $F$ there is a time point $t \in I$ at which $p_{D} \leq \rho_{green}$ w.h.p. Consider now some fixed subframe $I$ in $F$ that is not the first one and suppose that the previous subframe in $F$ had at least one round with $p_{D} \leq \rho_{green}$. Then it follows from Lemma 4 that for all rounds in $I$, $p_{D} \leq \rho_{red}$ w.m.p. (where the probability only depends on $I$ and its preceding subframe), i.e., $I$ is good. Hence, it follows from the Chernoff bounds that at most $\epsilon \beta'/7$ of the odd-numbered as well as the even-numbered subframes after the first subframe in $F$ are bad w.h.p. (if the constant $\alpha$ is sufficiently large). This implies that overall at most $\epsilon \beta'/6$ of the subframes in $F$ are bad w.h.p.

Since we have exactly 6 sectors, it follows from Lemma 5 that apart from an $\epsilon \beta'$-fraction of the subframes, all subframes $I'$ in $I$ satisfy $\sum_{v \in Z_4(u)} p_v \leq 6\rho_{red}$ throughout $I'$ w.h.p.

3.2 Zone 3

Next, we will show that although the cumulative probability of the nodes in Zone 3 may be high (for some distributions of nodes in the space it can actually be as high as $\Omega(n)$), their influence (or noise) at node $v$ is limited if the radius of Zone 2 is sufficiently large. Thus, probabilities recover quickly in Zone 1 and there are many opportunities for successful receptions.

In order to bound the interference from Zone 3, we divide Zone 3 into two sub-zones: $Z_3^-$, which contains all nodes from Zone 3 up to a radius of $O(\log^2 n)$, and $Z_3^+$, which contains all remaining nodes in Zone 3. For Zone $Z_3^-$ we can prove the following lemma.

Lemma 6 At most an $\epsilon \beta$-fraction of the subframes $I'$ in $I$ are bad for some $R_1$-disk in Zone $Z_3^-$ w.h.p., where the constant $\beta' > 0$ can be made arbitrarily small depending on the constant $\delta$ in $f$.

Proof The claim follows from the fact that the radius of Zone $Z_3^-$ is $O(\log^2 n)$ and hence $d = O(\log^4 n)$ disks of radius $R_1$ are sufficient to cover the entire area of $Z_3^-$. According to Lemma 5, over all of these disks, the expected number of bad subframes is at most $1/polylog(N)$. Using similar techniques as for the proof of Lemma 5 in [39], it can also be shown that for each disk $D$, the probability for $D$ to have $k$ bad subframes is at most $1/polylog(N)^k$ irrespective of the events outside of $D$. Hence, one can use Chernoff bounds for sums of identically distributed geometric random variables to conclude that apart from an $\epsilon \beta'/d$-fraction of the subframes, all subframes $I'$ in $I$ satisfy $\sum_{v \in D} p_v \leq 6\rho_{red}$ throughout $I'$ w.h.p. This directly implies the lemma. □

Suppose that $R_2 = c \cdot R_1$. Lemma 6 implies that in a good subframe the expected noise level at any node $w \in Z_4(v)$ created by transmissions in Zone $Z_3^-$ is upper bounded by

$$6\rho_{red} \cdot \sum_{d=(c-1)}^{\Omega(\log^2 n)} \frac{2\pi (d+1)}{\sqrt{2}(dR_1)^a} \cdot \frac{12\pi \rho_{red}}{\alpha - 1} \cdot \frac{1}{(c-2)^{a-2} R_1^a}$$

which is at most $\epsilon \theta/4$ if $c = O(1/\epsilon^{1/(\alpha-2)})$ is sufficiently large. In order to bound the noise level at any node $w \in Z_4(v)$ from Zone $Z_3^+$, we prove the following claim.

Lemma 7 Consider some fixed $R_1$-disk $D$. If at the beginning of time frame $I$, $T_w \leq \sqrt{F}$ for all $w \in D$, then for all rounds except for the first subframe in $I$, $p_{D} \in O(\log n)$, w.h.p.
Proof Lemma 2 implies that there must be a round $t$ in the first subframe of $I$ with $p_D \leq 6\rho_{\text{green}}$ w.h.p. Since for $p_D \in \Omega(\log n)$, at least a logarithmic number of nodes in $D$ transmit and therefore every node sees a busy channel, w.h.p., and $p_D$ can only increase if a node sees an idle channel, $p_D$ is bounded by $O(\log n)$ for the rest of $I$ w.h.p.

The claim immediately implies the following result.

Lemma 8 If at the beginning of time frame $I$, $T_w \leq \sqrt{F}$ for all $w$, then for all rounds except for the first subframe in $I$, the interference at any node $w \in Z_1(v)$ due to transmissions in $Z_3$ is at most $\epsilon \vartheta/4$ w.h.p.

Hence, we get:

Lemma 9 If at the beginning of time frame $I$, $T_w \leq \sqrt{F}$ for all $w$, then at most an $\epsilon \beta$-fraction of the subframes in $I$ contain rounds in which the expected interference at any node $w \in Z_1(v)$ due to transmissions in Zone 3 is at least $\epsilon \vartheta/2$.

3.3 Zone 2

For Zone $Z_2$ we can prove the following lemma in the same way as Lemma 6.

Lemma 10 At most an $\epsilon \beta$-fraction of the subframes $I'$ in $I$ are bad for some $R_1$-disk in Zone 2, w.h.p., where the constant $\beta > 0$ can be made arbitrarily small depending on the constant $\delta$ in $f$.

3.4 Throughput

Given the upper bounds on the cumulative probabilities and interference, we are now ready to study the throughput of Sade. For this we first need to show an upper bound on $T_v$ in order to avoid long periods of high $p_v$ values. Let $J$ be a time interval that has a quarter of the length of a time frame, i.e., $|J| = F/4$. We start with the following lemma whose proof is identical to Lemma III.6 in [40].

Lemma 11 If in subframe $I'$ the number of idle rounds at $v$ is at most $k$, then node $v$ increases $T_v$ by 2 at most $k/2 + \sqrt{J}$ many times in $I'$.

Next, we show the following lemma.

Lemma 12 If at the beginning of $J$, $T_v \leq \sqrt{F}/2$ for all nodes $v$, then every node $v$ has at least $2^{-\Omega((1/\epsilon)^2/(\alpha - 2))}|J|$ rounds in $J$ in which it senses an idle channel, w.h.p.

Proof Fix some node $v$. Let us call a subframe $I'$ in $J$ good if in Zone 1 and in any $R_1$-disk in Zone 2 of $v$, the cumulative probability is upper bounded by a constant, and the expected interference due to transmissions at $v$ induced from Zone 3 is at most $\epsilon \vartheta/2$ throughout $I'$. From Lemmas 5, 9, and 10 it follows that there is an $(1-\epsilon)$-fraction of good subframes in $J$. Since $R_2 = O((1/\epsilon)^1/(\alpha - 2)R_1)$, for any round $t$ in a good subframe $I'$ the total cumulative probability in Zones 1 and 2 of $v$ is upper bounded by $O((1/\epsilon)^2/(\alpha - 2))$. Hence, the probability that none of the nodes in Zones 1 and 2 of $v$ transmits is given by

$$\sum_{w \in Z_1 \cup Z_2} (1 - p_w) \geq e^{-2\sum_{w \in Z_1 \cup Z_2} p_w} = 2^{-\Omega((1/\epsilon)^2/(\alpha - 2))}$$

Due to the Markov inequality, the probability that the interference due to transmissions in Zone 3 is at least $\epsilon \vartheta$ is at most $1/2$. These probability bounds hold independently of the other rounds in $I'$. Moreover, the total interference energy of the adversary in $I'$ is bounded by $|I'|(1-\epsilon)^2 \vartheta$, which implies that at most a $(1-\epsilon)$-fraction of the rounds in $I'$ are potentially busy, i.e., $ADV(v) \geq (1-\epsilon) \vartheta$. Hence, for at least a $2^{-\Omega((1/\epsilon)^2/(\alpha - 2))}$-fraction of the rounds in $I'$, the probability for $v$ to sense an idle channel is a constant, which implies the lemma.

This allows us to prove the following lemma.

Lemma 13 If at the beginning of $J$, $T_v \leq \sqrt{F}/2$ for all $v$, then also $T_v \leq \sqrt{F}/2$ for all $v$ at the end of $J$, w.h.p.

Proof From the previous lemma we know that every node $v$ senses an idle channel for $\Omega(|J|)$ rounds in $J$ for any constants $\epsilon > 0$ and $\alpha > 2$. $T_v$ is maximized at the end of $J$ if all of these idle rounds happen at the beginning of $J$, which would eventually reduce $T_v$ down to 1. Afterwards, $T_v$ can rise to a value of at most $t$ for the maximum $t$ with $\sum_{i=1}^t 2i \leq |J|$ (because $v$ increases $T_v$ by 2 each time it sees no idle channel in the previous $T_v$ steps), which is at most $\sqrt{|J|}$. Since $\sqrt{|J|} = \sqrt{F}/2$, the lemma follows.

Since $T_v$ can be increased at most $(F/4)\sqrt{F}/2$ many times in $J$, we get:

Lemma 14 If at the beginning of a time frame $I$, $T_v \leq \sqrt{F}/2$ for all $v$, then throughout $I$, $T_v \leq \sqrt{F}/2$ for all $v$, and at the end of $I$, $T_v \leq \sqrt{F}/2$ for all $v$, w.h.p.

Hence, the upper bounds on $T_v$ that we assumed earlier are valid w.h.p. We are now ready to prove the following result which essentially implies Theorem 1 (a), as we will see below:

Theorem 3 When running Sade for at least $\Omega((T \log N)/\epsilon' + (\log N)/(\gamma \epsilon')^2)$ rounds, Sade has a $2^{-\Omega((1/\epsilon')^2/(\alpha - 2))}$-competitive throughput for any weak $(\epsilon, T)$-bounded adversary.
Recall that we allow here any \(((1 - \epsilon)\theta, T)\)-bounded adversary.

**Proof (of Theorem 3)** Recall that a round is open for a node \(v\) if \(v\) and at least one other node in \(Z_1(v)\) are not potentially busy. Let \(J\) be the set of all open rounds in \(I\). Furthermore, let \(k_0\) be the number of times \(v\) senses an idle channel in \(J\) and let \(k_1\) be the number of times \(v\) receives a message in \(I\). From Lemma 12 and the assumptions in Theorem 3 we know that
\[
k_0 = 2 - \Omega((1/\epsilon)^2/(a - 2)) |I|.
\]

**Case 1** \(k_1 \geq k_0/6\). In this case, our protocol is \(2 - \Omega((1/\epsilon)^2/(a - 2))\) competitive for \(v\) and we are done.

**Case 2** \(k_1 < k_0/6\). In this case, we know from Lemma 11 that \(p_v\) is decreased at most \(k_0/2 + \sqrt{F}\) times in \(I\) due to \(c_u > T_u\). In addition to this, \(p_v\) is decreased at most \(k_1\) times in \(I\) due to a received message. The other hand, \(p_v\) is increased at least \(k_0\) times in \(I\) (if possible) due to an idle channel w.h.p. Also, we know from our protocol that at the beginning of \(I\), \(p_v = \hat{p}\). Hence, there must be at least \((1 - 1/2 - 1/6)k_0 - \sqrt{F} > k_0/4\) rounds in \(I\) w.h.p. at which \(p_v = \hat{p}\). Now, recall the definition of a good subframe in the proof of Lemma 12. From Lemmas 5, 9, and 10 it follows that at most a \(\epsilon\beta\)-fraction of the subframes in \(I\) is bad. In the worst case, all of the rounds in these subframes are open rounds, which sums up to at most \(k_0/8\) if \(\beta\) is sufficiently small. Hence, there are at least \(k_0/8\) rounds in \(I\) that are in good subframes, w.h.p., and at which \(p_v = \hat{p}\), which implies that the other not potentially busy node in \(Z_1(v)\) has a constant probability of receiving a message from \(v\). Using Chernoff bounds, at least \(k_0/16\) rounds with successfully received transmissions can be identified for \(v\), w.h.p.

If we charge \(1/2\) of each successfully transmitted message to the sender and \(1/2\) to the receiver, then a constant competitive throughput can be identified for every node in both cases above. It follows that our protocol is \(2 - \Omega((1/\epsilon)^2/(a - 2))\) competitive in \(F\).

We now complete the proof of Theorem 1.

**Proof (of Theorem 1)** Case 1: the adversary is uniform and \(\forall v: Z_1(v) \neq \emptyset\)

In this case, every node has a non-empty neighborhood and therefore all non-jammed rounds of the nodes are open. Hence, the conditions on a weak \(((1 - \epsilon)\theta, T)\)-bounded adversary are satisfied. Therefore Theorem 3 applies, which completes the proof of Theorem 1(a).

**Case 2**: \(|Z_1(v)| \geq 2/\epsilon\) for all \(v \in V\)

Consider some fixed time interval \(I\) with \(|I|\) being a multiple of \(T\). For every node \(v \in Z_1(u)\) let \(f_v\) be the number of non-jammed rounds at \(v\) in \(I\) and \(o_v\) be the number of open rounds at \(v\) in \(I\). Let \(J\) be the set of rounds in \(I\) with at most one non-jammed node. Suppose that \(|J| > (1 - \epsilon/2)|I|\).

Then every node in \(Z_1(u)\) must have more than \((\epsilon/2)|I|\) of its non-jammed rounds in \(J\). Note that these non-jammed rounds must be “serialized” (i.e., disjoint) in \(J\) to satisfy our requirement on \(J\): if \(J_u\) is the set of non-jammed slots for \(v \in Z_1(u)\) in \(J\), there is no intersection between \(J_u\) and \(J_v\) for two nodes in \(Z_1(u)\). Therefore, it holds that \(|J| > \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)}(\epsilon/2)|I| \geq (2/\epsilon) \cdot (\epsilon/2)|I| = |I|\). Since this is impossible, it must hold that \(|J| \leq (1 - \epsilon/2)|I|\).

Thus,
\[
\sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} o_v \leq \left(\sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} f_v\right) - |J| \leq (1/2) \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} f_v \text{ because } \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} f_v \geq (2/\epsilon) \cdot |I| = |I|.
\]

Let \(D'(u)\) be the set of nodes \(v \in Z_1(u)\) with \(o_v \geq f_v/4\). That is, for each of these nodes, a constant fraction of the non-jammed rounds is open. Then \(\sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} D'(u) o_v < (1/4) \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} f_v\), so \(\sum_{v \in D'(u)} o_v \leq (1/2) \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} o_v \geq (1/4) \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} f_v\).

Consider now a set \(U \subseteq V\) of nodes so that \(\bigcup_{u \in U} Z_1(u) = V\) and for every \(v \in V\) there are at most 6 nodes \(u \in U\) with \(v \in Z_1(u)\). Note \(U\) is easy to construct in a greedy fashion for arbitrary UDGs, and therefore for \(Z_1(u)\) in the SINR model, and also known as a dominating set of constant density. Let \(V' = U \bigcup D'(u)\). Since \(\sum_{v \in D'(u)} o_v \leq (1/4) \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} f_v\) for every node \(u \in U\), it follows that \(\sum_{u \in V' \setminus Z_1(u)} o_v \geq (1/6) \sum_{u \in U} \sum_{v \in D'(u)} o_v \geq (1/24) \sum_{u \in U} \sum_{v \in Z_1(u)} f_v \geq (1/24) \sum_{v \in V} f_v\). The fact that a constant fraction of rounds are open implies that, using Theorem 3, \(SADE\) is constant competitive w.r.t. the nodes in \(V'\).

This completes the proof of Theorem 1 (b).

\[\square\]

**3.5 Optimality**

Obviously, if a jammer has a sufficiently high energy budget, it can essentially block all nodes all the time. In the following we call a network dense if \(\forall v \in V: Z_1(v) \geq 1\).

**Theorem 4** The nodes can be positioned so that the transmission range of every node is non-empty and yet no MAC protocol can achieve any throughput against a \((B, T)\)-bounded adversary with \(B > \theta\), even if it is uniform.

**Proof** Let us suppose that the jammer has an energy budget \(B > \theta\). If every node \(v\) only has nodes right at the border of its disk \(Z_1(v)\) and the adversary continuously sets \(AD\forall(v) = B\), then \(v\) will not be able to receive any messages according to the SINR model. Thus, the overall throughput in the system is 0.

\[\square\]

**4 Simulations**

To complement our formal analysis and to investigate the average-case behavior of our protocol, we conduct a simulation study. In the following, we consider two scenarios which differ in the way nodes are distributed in the 2-dimensional Euclidean space. In the first scenario, called \(U\), the nodes
are distributed \textit{uniformly at random} in the 2-dimensional
plane of size $25 \times 25$ units. In the second scenario, called HET,
we first subdivide the 2-dimensional plane of size $25 \times 25$
units into $25$ sub-squares of size $5 \times 5$ units. For each sub-
square, we then choose the number of nodes $\lambda$ uniformly at
random from the interval $[20, 1000]$ and distribute said nodes
(uniformly at random) in the corresponding sub-square. Con-
sequently, each sub-square may provide a different density,
where the attribute density represents the average number of
nodes per unit in the plane of the corresponding scenario. In
order to avoid boundary effects, for both UNI and HET, we
assume that the Euclidean plane “wraps around”, i.e., is a
torus where distances are computed modulo the boundaries.

While our formal throughput results in Sect. 3 hold for any
adversary which respects the jamming budget constraints,
computing the best adversarial strategy (i.e., the strategy
which minimizes the throughput of \textit{Sade}) is difficult. Hence,
in our simulations, we consider the following two types of
adversaries:

1. \textit{Regular (or random) jammer (REG)} given an energy bud-
get $B$ per node, a time interval $T$, and a specific $1 > \epsilon > 0$,
the adversary randomly jams each node every $\epsilon$th round
(on average) using exactly $\frac{B}{\epsilon}$ energy per node. Addi-
tionally we make sure that the overall budget $B$ is perfectly
used up by the end of $T$.

2. \textit{Bursty (or deterministic) jammer (BUR)} For each time
period $T$, the adversary jams all initial rounds at the node,
until the budget $B$ is used up. The remaining rounds in $T$
are unjammed. In other words, the first $\epsilon T$ many rounds
are jammed by the adversary using exactly $\frac{B}{\epsilon}$ energy per
node.

If not stated otherwise, we consider the jammer REG with
parameters $\alpha = 3$, $\epsilon = \frac{1}{4}$, $\beta = 2$, $\Pi = 8$, $T = 60$, $B =
(1 - \epsilon) \cdot \beta$ and run the experiment for 3000 rounds. We will
typically plot the percentage of successful message recep-
tions, averaged over all nodes, with respect to the unjammed
rounds. If not specified otherwise, we repeat each experiment
ten times with different random seeds, both for the distribu-
tion of nodes in the plane as well as the decisions made by
our MAC protocol. By default, our results show the average
over these runs; the variance of the runs is low.

We employ discrete-event simulations and keep the simu-
lator very simple: the simulator corresponds to our theoretical
model investigated in the previous section. In particular, we
stick to synchronous rounds and do not model the TCP/IP net-
working stack. For reproducibility reasons, we will make our
simulation code publicly available together with this paper.

\textbf{Impact of Scale and $\alpha$} We first study the throughput as a
function of the network size. Therefore we distribute $n$ nodes
uniformly in the $\sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{n}$ plane. Figure 1 (top left) shows
our results under the REG (or random) jammer and differ-
ent $\alpha$ values. First, we can see that the competitive throughput
is around 40%, which is higher than what we expect from
our worst-case formal analysis. Interestingly, for $\alpha = 3$, we
observe a small throughput decrease for larger networks; but
for $\alpha > 3$, the throughput is almost independent of the net-
work scale. (In the literature, $\alpha$ is typically set to 3 or 4.)

This is reminiscent of Theorem 1: a higher $\alpha$ renders the
transmissions and power propagation more local. This locality
can be exploited by \textit{Sade}.

\textbf{Impact of Density} Next, we investigate how the per-
formance of \textit{Sade} depends on the node density. We focus
on $\alpha = 3$ and study both the REG jammer as well as the
BUR (deterministic) jammer. Figure 1 (top right) shows that
results for the UNI scenario ($n$ nodes distributed uniformly
in the $25 \times 25$ plane, i.e., density $n/625$). The throughput is
similar under both jammers, and slightly declines for denser
networks. This effect is very similar to the effect of having
larger (but equidistant) networks.

However, \textit{Sade} suffers from more heterogenous densities.
The results for the scenario HET are shown in Fig. 1 (bottom
left). While the throughput is generally lower, the specific
sub-square density plays a minor role.

\textbf{Convergence Time} \textit{Sade} adapts quite fast to the given
setting, as the nodes increase and decrease their sending
probabilities in a multiplicative manner. Being able to adapt
quickly is an important feature, in particular in dynamic or
mobile environments where nodes can join and leave over
time, or where nodes are initialized with too high or low send-
ing probabilities. Our distributed MAC protocol will adjust
automatically.

Figure 1 (bottom right) shows representative executions
over time and plots the cumulative probability. Initially,
nodes have a maximum sending probability of $\hat{p} = 1/24$.
This will initially lead to many collisions; however, very
quickly, the senders back off and the overall sending prob-
abilities (the \textit{aggregated probability}) reduce almost exponen-
tially, and we start observing successful message trans-
misions. (Observe that the aggregated “probability” can be
higher than one, as it is simply the sum of the probabilities
of the individual nodes.)

The sum of all sending probabilities also converges
quickly for any other $\Pi$. However, for smaller powers, the
overall probability is higher. This is in accordance with our
goal: since for very large sending powers, also more remote
nodes in the network will influence each other and interfere,
it is important that there be only a small number of con-
current senders in the network at any time—the aggregated
sending probability must be small. On the other hand, small
powers allow for more local transmissions, and to achieve a
high overall throughput, many senders should be active at the
same time—the overall sending probability should be high.
5 Related work

Traditional jamming defense mechanisms typically operate on the physical layer [32,34,44], and mechanisms have been designed to both avoid jamming as well as detect jamming. Especially spread spectrum technology is very effective to avoid jamming, as with widely spread signals, it becomes harder to detect the start of a packet quickly enough in order to jam it. Unfortunately, protocols such as IEEE 802.11b use relatively narrow spreading [26], and some other IEEE 802.11 variants spread signals by even smaller factors [8]. Therefore, a jammer that simultaneously blocks a small number of frequencies renders spread spectrum techniques useless in this case. As jamming strategies can come in many different flavors, detecting jamming activities by simple methods based on signal strength, carrier sensing, or packet delivery ratios has turned out to be quite difficult [31].

Recent work has investigated MAC layer strategies against jamming in more detail, for example coding strategies [9], channel surfing and spatial retreat [2,47], or mechanisms to hide messages from a jammer, evade its search, and reduce the impact of corrupted messages [46]. Unfortunately, these methods do not help against an adaptive jammer with full information about the history of the protocol, like the one considered in our work.

In the theory community, work on MAC protocols has mostly focused on efficiency. Many of these protocols are random backoff or tournament-based protocols [5,10,23,25,30,37] that do not take jamming activity into account and, in fact, are not robust against it (see [3] for more details). The same also holds for many MAC protocols that have been designed in the context of broadcasting [11] and clustering [29]. Also some work on jamming is known (e.g., [13] for a short overview). There are two basic approaches in the literature. The first assumes randomly corrupted messages (e.g. [36]), which is much easier to handle than adaptive adversarial jamming [4]. The second line of work either bounds the number of messages that the adversary can transmit or disrupt with a limited energy budget (e.g. [20,28]) or bounds the number of channels the adversary can jam (e.g. [14–19,33]).

The protocols in [20,28] can tackle adversarial jamming at both the MAC and network layers, where the adversary may not only be jamming the channel but also introducing malicious (fake) messages (possibly with address spoofing). However, they depend on the fact that the adversarial jamming budget is finite, so it is not clear whether the protocols would work under heavy continuous jamming. (The result in [20] seems to imply that a jamming rate of 1/2 is the limit whereas the handshaking mechanisms in [28] seem to require an even lower jamming rate.)

In the multi-channel version of the problem introduced in the theory community by Dolev et al. [17] and also studied in [14–19,33], a node can only access one channel at a time, which results in protocols with a fairly large runtime (which can be exponential for deterministic protocols [15,18] and at least quadratic in the number of jammed channels for randomized protocols [16,33] if the adversary can jam almost
all channels at a time). Recent work [14] also focuses on the wireless synchronization problem which requires devices to be activated at different times on a congested single-hop radio network to synchronize their round numbering while an adversary can disrupt a certain number of frequencies per round. Gilbert et al. [19] study robust information exchange in single-hop networks.

Our work is motivated by the work in [3] and [4]. In [4] it is shown that an adaptive jammer can dramatically reduce the throughput of the standard MAC protocol used in IEEE 802.11 with only limited energy cost on the adversary side. Awerbuch et al. [3] initiated the study of throughput-competitive MAC protocols under continuously running, adaptive jammers, but they only consider single-hop wireless networks. Their approach has later been extended to reactive jamming environments [40], co-existing networks [42] and applications such as leader election [41].

Several research groups have recently investigated similar models in different contexts [1, 6, 7, 12, 21, 22, 27, 45], e.g., in Byzantine and Sybil environments [1, 7, 22], in multi-channel environments [45], and in learning environments [12]: Dams et al. [12] introduced distributed algorithms based on no-regret learning which approximate the number of successful transmissions well. In contrast to our work, the authors do not need to make any assumptions on the number of nodes n. However, the paper does not provide any bounds regarding convergence time. Bender et al. [12] recently initiated a systematic study of “scalable” backoff protocols (assuming dynamic packet arrivals), identifying three natural properties: constant throughput, few failed access attempts, robustness (continue to work efficiently even if some of the access attempts fail for spurious reasons). The authors present a the RE-BACKOFF protocol guaranteeing expected constant throughput with dynamic process arrivals and requiring only an expected polylogarithmic number of access attempts per process.

The result closest to ours is the robust MAC protocol for Unit Disk Graphs presented in [39]. In contrast to [39], we initiate the study of the more relevant and realistic physical interference model [24] and show that a competitive throughput can still be achieved. Indeed, to the best of our knowledge, our paper is the first to consider jamming resistant protocols in the SINR model. As unlike in Unit Disk Graphs, in the SINR setting far-away communication can potentially interfere and there is no absolute notion of an idle medium, a new protocol is needed whose geometric properties must be understood. For the SINR setting, we also introduce a new adversarial model (namely the energy budget adversary).

6 Conclusion

This paper has shown that robust MAC protocols achieving a constant competitive throughput exist even in the physical model. This concludes a series of research works in this area. Nevertheless, several interesting questions remain open. For example, while our theorems prove that Sade is as robust as a MAC protocol can get within our model and for constant ε, we conjecture that a throughput which is polynomial in (1/ε) is possible. However, we believe that such a claim is very difficult to prove. We also plan to explore the performance of Sade under specific node mobility patterns.

Remark: In order for the community to be able to reproduce our results, we will make the simulation code publicly available together with this paper.

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The upper bound on \( \mathbb{E}[p_S'] \) certainly also holds if \( c_v > T_v \) for a node \( v \in S \), because \( p_v \) will never be increased (but possibly decreased) in this case.

Now, consider the event \( E_2 \) that at least two nodes in \( S \) transmit a message. If \( E_2 \) holds, then \( \mathbb{E}[p_S'] = p_S' = p_S \), so there is no change in the system. On the other hand, assume that \( E_2 \) does not hold. Let \( q_0'(S) = q_0(S)/(1 - q_2(S)) \) and \( q_1'(S) = q_1(S)/(1 - q_2(S)) \) be the probabilities \( q_0(S) \) and \( q_1(S) \) under the condition of \( \neg E_2 \). We distinguish between three cases.

**Case 1** \( p_S^{(0)} = p_S \). Then

\[
\mathbb{E}[p_S'] \leq q_0'(S) \cdot (1 + \gamma) p_S + q_1'(S) \cdot (1 + \gamma)^{-1} p_S 
= ((1 + \gamma) q_0'(S) + (1 + \gamma)^{-1} q_1'(S)) p_S.
\]

We know that \( q_0(S) \leq q_1(S)/p_S \), so \( q_0'(S) \leq q_1'(S)/p_S \). If \( p_S \geq \rho_{\text{green}} \), then \( q_0'(S) \leq q_1'(S)/p_S \). Hence,

\[
\mathbb{E}[p_S'] \leq ((1 + \gamma)/6 + (1 + \gamma)^{-1} 5/6) p_S \leq (1 + \gamma)^{-1/2} p_S
\]

since \( \gamma = o(1) \). On the other hand, \( p_S' \leq (1 + \gamma) p_S \) in any case.

**Case 2** \( p_S^{(1)} = p_S \). Then

\[
\mathbb{E}[p_S'] \leq q_0'(S) \cdot (1 + \gamma)^{-1} p_S + q_1'(S) p_S 
= (q_0'(S)/(1 + \gamma) + (1 - q_0'(S))) p_S 
= (1 - q_0'(S)\gamma/(1 + \gamma)) p_S.
\]

Now, it holds that \( 1 - x\gamma/(1 + \gamma) \leq (1 + \gamma)^{-x/2} \) for all \( x \in [0, 1] \) because from the Taylor series of \( e^x \) and \( \ln(1+x) \) it follows that

\[
(1 + \gamma)^{-x/2} \geq 1 - (x \ln(1 + \gamma))/2 \geq 1 - (x(1 - \gamma/2)\gamma)/2
\]

and

\[
1 - x\gamma/(1 + \gamma) \leq 1 - (x(1 - \gamma/2)\gamma)/2
\]

for all \( x, \gamma \in [0, 1] \) as is easy to check. Therefore, when defining \( \varphi = q_0'(S) \), we get \( \mathbb{E}[p_S'] \leq (1 + \gamma)^{-\varphi/2} p_S \). On the other hand, \( p_S' \leq p_S \leq (1 + \gamma)p_S \).

**Case 3** \( p_S^{(2)} = p_S \). Then for \( \varphi = 0 \), \( \mathbb{E}[p_S'] \leq p_S = (1 + \gamma)^{-\varphi/2} p_S \) and \( p_S' \leq p_S = (1 + \gamma)p_S \).

Combining the three cases and taking into account that \( p_S^{(0)} + p_S^{(1)} + p_S^{(2)} = p_S \), we obtain the following result.

**Claim** There is a \( \varphi \in [0, 1] \) (depending on \( p_S^{(0)} \), \( p_S^{(1)} \) and \( p_S^{(2)} \)) so that

\[
\mathbb{E}[p_S'] \leq (1 + \gamma)^{-\varphi} p_S \quad \text{and} \quad p_S' \leq (1 + \gamma)^{2\varphi} p_S.
\]
rounds in \( I' \) to be numbered from 1 to \( |I'| \), let \( q_t \) and \( \varphi_i \) be defined as above, and let \( q'_t = q_t + \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \varphi_i \). It holds that

\[
\mathbb{E}[q'_{t+1}] = \mathbb{E}[q_{t+1} + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \varphi_i] \\
= \mathbb{E}[q_{t+1}] + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \varphi_i \\
= q_t + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \varphi_i \\
= q'_t.
\]

Moreover, it follows from Inequality (2) that for any round \( t, p'_S \leq (1 + \gamma)^{2q_t} p_S \). Therefore, \( q_{t+1} \leq q_t + 2q_t \), which implies that \( q'_t \leq q'_t + \varphi_t \). Hence, we can define a martingale \( (X_t)_{t \in I'} \) with \( \mathbb{E}[X_{t+1}] = X_t \) and \( X_{t+1} \leq X_t + \varphi_t \) that stochastically dominates \( q'_t \). Recall that a random variable \( Y_t \) stochastically dominates a random variable \( Z_t \) if for any \( z \), \( \mathbb{P}[Y_t \geq z] \geq \mathbb{P}[Z_t \geq z] \). In that case, it is also straightforward to show that \( \sum_t Y_t \) stochastically dominates \( \sum_t Z_t \), which we will need in the following. Let \( T = |I'| \). We will make use of Azuma’s inequality to bound \( X_T \).

**Fact 5** (Azuma Inequality) Let \( X_0, X_1, \ldots \) be a martingale satisfying the property that \( X_i \leq X_{i-1} + c_i \) for all \( i \geq 1 \). Then for any \( \delta \geq 0 \),

\[
\mathbb{P}[X_T > X_0 + \delta] \leq \exp(-\delta^2/(2\sum_{i=1}^T c_i^2)).
\]

Thus, for \( \delta = 1/\gamma + \sum_{i=1}^T \varphi_i \) it holds in our case that

\[
\mathbb{P}[X_T > X_0 + \delta] \leq \exp(-\delta^2/(2\sum_{i=1}^T \varphi_i^2)).
\]

This implies that

\[
\mathbb{P}[q'_T > q'_0 + \delta] \leq \exp(-\delta^2/(2\sum_{i=1}^T \varphi_i^2)),
\]

for several reasons. First of all, stochastic dominance holds as long as \( p_S \in [\rho_{green}, \rho_{yellow}] \), and whenever this is violated, we can stop the process as the requirements on \( I' \) would be violated, so we would not have to count that probability towards \( I' \). Therefore,

\[
\mathbb{P}[q'_T > q'_0 + 1/\gamma] \leq \exp(-\delta^2/(2\sum_{i=1}^T \varphi_i^2)).
\]

Notice that \( q'_T > q'_0 + 1/\gamma \) is required so that \( p_S > \rho_{yellow} \) at the end of \( I' \), so the probability bound above is exactly what we need. Let \( \varphi = \sum_{i=1}^T \varphi_i \). Since \( \varphi_i \leq 1 \) for all \( i \), \( \varphi \geq \sum_{i=1}^T \varphi_i^2 \). Hence,

\[
\frac{\delta^2}{2\sum_{i=1}^T \varphi_i^2} \geq \frac{(1/\gamma + \varphi)^2}{2\varphi} \geq \left( \frac{1}{2\varphi \gamma^2} + \frac{\varphi}{2} \right).
\]

This is minimized for \( 1/(2\varphi \gamma^2) = \varphi/2 \) or equivalently, \( \varphi = 1/\gamma \). Thus,

\[
\mathbb{P}[q'_T > q'_0 + 1/\gamma] \leq \exp(-1/\gamma)
\]

Since there are at most \( \binom{T}{2} \) ways of selecting \( I' \subseteq I \), the probability that there exists an interval \( I' \) with the properties above is at most

\[
\left( \binom{T}{2} \right) e^{-1/\gamma} \leq \frac{f^2 e^{-1/\gamma}}{2} \leq \frac{1}{\log^2 n}
\]

for any constant \( c \) if \( \gamma = O(1/(\log T + \log \log n)) \) is small enough.

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