

Maintaining Balanced Trees For Structured Distributed Streaming Systems ^{☆,☆☆}

F. Giroire^{a,*}, R. Modrzejewski^b, N. Nisse^c, S. Perennes^a

^a Univ. Nice Sophia Antipolis, CNRS, I3S, UMR 7271, 06900 Sophia Antipolis, France

^b Google, Dublin, Ireland

^c Inria, France

Abstract

In this paper, we propose and analyze a simple local algorithm to balance a tree. The motivation comes from live distributed streaming systems in which a source diffuses a content to peers via a tree, a node forwarding the data to its children. Such systems are subject to a high churn, peers frequently joining and leaving the system. It is thus crucial to be able to repair the diffusion tree to allow an efficient data distribution. In particular, due to bandwidth limitations, an efficient diffusion tree must ensure that node degrees are bounded. Moreover, to minimize the delay of the streaming, the depth of the diffusion tree must also be controlled. We propose here a simple distributed repair algorithm in which each node carries out local operations based on its degree and on the subtree sizes of its children. In a synchronous setting, we first prove that starting from any n -node tree our process converges to a balanced **binary** tree in $O(n^2)$ rounds. We then describe a more restrictive model, adding a small extra information to each node, under which we adapt our algorithm to converge in $\Theta(n \log n)$ rounds.

Keywords: Distributed Live Streaming System, Graph Algorithm, Balanced Trees, Peer-to-peer

1. Introduction

Trees are inherent structures for data dissemination in general and particularly in peer-to-peer live streaming networks. As shown in [16], networks of this kind experience a high churn (rate of node joins and leaves). Leaves can be both graceful, where a node informs about imminent departure and network rearranges itself before it stops providing to the children, or abrupt (e.g. due to connection or hardware failure). In this case, the diffusion tree may be broken.

In this paper, we tackle this issue by designing an efficient maintenance scheme for trees. The problem setting is as follows. A single source provides

[☆]The research leading to these results has received funding from ANR program Investments for the Future under reference ANR-11-LABX-0031-01, Associated Team AIDyNet, project ECOS-Sud Chile and région PACA.

^{☆☆}A short version of this paper has previously been presented in the 20th Colloquium on Structural Information and Communication Complexity (SIROCCO) [13].

*Corresponding author. Email address: frederic.giroire@cnrs.fr

live media to some nodes in the network. This source is the single reliable node of the network, all other peers may be subject to failure. Each node may relay the content to further nodes. Due to limited bandwidth, both source and any other node can provide media to a limited number $k \geq 2$ of nodes. The network is organized into a logical tree, rooted at the source of media. If node x forwards the stream towards node y , then x is the parent of y in the logical tree. Note that the delay between broadcasting a piece of media by the source and receiving by a peer is given by its distance from the root in the logical tree. Hence, *our goal is to minimize the tree depth, while respecting degree constraints.*

In this work, we assume a *reconnection process*: when a node leaves, its children reattach to its parent. This can be done locally if each node stores the address of its grandparent in the tree. Note that this process is performed independently of the bandwidth constraint, hence after multiple failures, a node may become the parent of many nodes. This process can leave the tree in a state where either the bandwidth constraints are violated (the degree of a node is larger than k) or the tree depth is not optimal. Thus, we propose a distributed *balancing process*, where based on information about its degree and the subtree sizes of its children, a node may perform a local operation at each round. We show that this balancing process, starting from any tree, converges to a balanced tree and we provide analytic upper bounds of the convergence time. More precisely, our contributions are

- In Section 3, we provide a formal definition of the problem and *we propose a distributed algorithm for the balancing process.* The process works in a synchronous setting. At each round, all nodes are sequentially scheduled by an adversary and must execute the process.
- In Section 4, we show that the balancing process always succeeds in $O(n^2)$ rounds. Note that we prove a lower bound of $\Omega(n)$. Nevertheless, the proof of this result is non trivial, and, to the best of our knowledge, *this is the first theoretical analysis of the convergence time of a balancing process for live streaming systems.*
- Then, in Section 5, we study a restricted version of the algorithm in which a node performs an operation only when the subtrees of its children are balanced. In this case, we succeeded in obtaining a tight bound of $\Theta(n \log n)$ on the number of rounds for the worst tree.

The distributed algorithm is presented for any value of $k \geq 2$. However, the proofs of convergence are given for the case $k = 2$. We believe they can be extended to any value of k , but we leave this as future work, as the proofs for $k = 2$ are already long [and tedious](#).

2. Related Work

Live Streaming Systems. Trees are inherent structures for data dissemination in general and particularly in peer-to-peer live streaming networks. Fundamentally, from the perspective of a peer, each atomic piece of content has to be received from some source and forwarded towards some receivers. Moreover, most of the actual streaming mechanisms ensure that a piece of information is

not transmitted again to a peer that already possesses it. Therefore, this implies that dissemination of a single fragment defines a tree structure. Even in *unstructured* networks, whose main characteristic is lack of defined structure, many systems look into perpetuating such underlying trees, e.g. the second incarnation of Coolstreaming [16] or PRIME [18].

Unsurprisingly, early efforts into designing peer-to-peer video streaming concentrated on defining tree-based structures for data dissemination. These have been quickly deemed inadequate, due to fragility and unused bandwidth at the leaves of the tree. One possible fix to these weaknesses was introduced in Split-Stream [7]. The proposed system maintains multiple concurrent trees to tolerate failures, and internal nodes in a tree are leaf nodes in all other trees to optimize bandwidth. The construction of intertwined trees can be simplified by a randomized process, as proposed in Chunkyspread [20], leading to a streaming algorithm performing better over a range of scenarios.

As found in [16], *node churn is the main difficulty for live streaming networks*, especially those trying to preserve structure. To overcome it, in [21], authors propose a stochastic optimization approach relying on constantly randomly creating and breaking relationships. To ensure network connectivity, nodes are said to keep open connections with hundreds of potential neighbours. This is usually not possible. Another approach, presented in [17], is churn-resiliency by maintaining redundancy within the network structure. Motivated by wireless sensors, authors of [19] face a similar problem of maintaining balanced trees, needed for connecting wireless sensors. However, their solution is periodical rebuilding the whole tree from scratch. *Our solution aims at minimizing the disturbance of nodes, whose ancestors were not affected by recent failures, as well as minimizing the redundancy in the network.*

Most of the analysis of these systems found in the literature focuses on the feasibility, construction time and properties of the established overlay network, see for example [7, 20] and [8] for a theoretical analysis. But these works usually ignore the issue of tree maintenance. Generally, in these works, when some elements (nodes or links) of the networks fail, the nodes disconnected from the root execute the same procedure as for initial connection. To the best of our knowledge, there is *no theoretical analysis on the efficiency of tree maintenance in streaming systems*. The reliability usually is estimated by simulations or experiments as in [7].

Self-stabilizing Algorithms. The algorithm proposed in this paper aims at tolerating the high churn in a live distributed streaming system. In some extent, it is a fault-tolerant algorithm and it is natural to consider similar work in the context of self-stabilizing algorithms [11]. A self-stabilizing algorithm must ensure to reach a valid configuration (in our case, a k -balanced tree) starting from any initial configuration (where the tree may be arbitrary and the node's memory may be corrupted and unreliable).

The problem of spanning tree has been widely studied in this context since such a structure may be used for solving the leader election problem. Self-stabilizing algorithms for computing spanning trees have been proposed based on BFS tree [1, 10], DFS tree [9], shortest path tree [2, 15, 6], spanning tree with minimum diameter [5], spanning tree with minimum maximum degree [4], etc. Some work has also been done in the context of Peer-to-Peer networks such as [14] that proposes a self-stabilizing algorithm for computing spanning tree in

large scale systems where any pair of processes can communicate directly under condition of knowing receiver's identifier. The work closest to ours is the one in [3] that proposes a self-stabilizing algorithm that builds a balanced-tree (in the context of containment trees).

The main difference between the above mentioned studies and our work is that we consider one unique kind of failure, namely nodes can leave or appear, in a synchronous environment. This relaxation of the constraints is reasonable in the context of live distributed video streaming systems, as churn largely is the most frequent cause of failure. In particular, the memory of the nodes and the messages are never corrupted or discarded. Therefore, our algorithm is not strictly self-stabilizing. However, under this relaxation, we are able to precisely analyze the time complexity of our algorithms which was not done in previous work (in particular in [3]).

3. Problem and Balancing Process

In this section, we present the main definitions and settings used throughout the paper. Then we present our algorithm and prove some simple properties of it.

3.1. Notations

This section is devoted to some basic notations.

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Let $T = (V, E)$ be a n -node tree rooted in $r \in V$. Let $v \in V$ be any node. The *subtree* T_v *rooted at* v is the subtree consisting of v and all its descendants. In other words, if $v = r$, then $T_v = T$ and, otherwise, let e be the edge between v and its parent, T_v is the subtree of $T \setminus e = (V, E \setminus \{e\})$ containing v . Let $n_v = |V(T_v)|$.

Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer. A node $v \in V(T)$ is *underloaded* if it has at most $k - 1$ children and at least one of these children is not a leaf. v is said *overloaded* if it has at least $k + 1$ children. In that case, the video is transmitted only to the first k children (i.e., the k children with biggest subtrees). Finally, a node v with k children is *imbalanced* if there are two children x and y of v such that $|n_x - n_y| > 1$. A node is *balanced* if it is neither underloaded, nor overloaded nor imbalanced. Note that a leaf is always balanced.

A tree is a *k-ary tree* if it has no nodes that are underloaded or overloaded, i.e., all nodes have at most k children and a node with $< k$ children has only leaf-children. A rooted k -ary tree T is *k-balanced* if, for each node $v \in V(T)$, the sizes of the subtrees rooted in the children of v differ by at most one. In other words, a rooted tree is k -balanced if and only if all its nodes are balanced.

As formalized by the next claim, *k-balanced trees are optimal in terms of height*. Thus, they are good for live streaming since such overlay networks ensure a low dissemination delay while preserving bandwidth constraints.

Claim 1. *Let T be a n -node rooted tree. If T is k -balanced, then each node of T is at distance at most $\mathcal{D}(n)$ from r , where $\mathcal{D}(n) : \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$ is defined as follows: $\mathcal{D}(n) = d$, if $\sum_{i=0}^{d-1} k^i < n \leq \sum_{i=0}^d k^i$. Note that $(\log_k n) - 1 \leq d \leq (\log_k n) + 1$.*

Proof. We prove the claim by induction. The hypothesis of induction $H_d, d \geq 0$, is: if a tree of size n is k -balanced and if $n \leq \sum_{i=0}^d k^i$, a node is at distance at most d from the root. H_0 is clearly true.

Consider now H_{d+1} . Let T be a tree of size $n \leq \sum_{i=0}^{d+1} k^i$. Consider a child v of its root r . Suppose that the size of its subtree T_v is $n_v > \sum_{i=0}^d k^i$. As the root r is k -balanced, the subtrees of the other children of r are of size larger or equal than $\sum_{i=0}^d k^i$. The tree would thus be of size larger or equal than $k(\sum_{i=0}^d k^i) + 2 = \sum_{i=0}^{d+1} k^i + 1$. Contradiction. Thus, $n_v \leq \sum_{i=0}^d k^i$.

The subtree of a balanced tree is balanced. We can thus use the induction hypothesis H_d . A node of T_v is at distance at most d from v , and thus, any node of T is at distance at most $d + 1$ from the root. The claim follows.

Note that we have $(\log_k n) - 1 \leq d \leq (\log_k n) + 1$. Indeed, on one side, we have $k^{d-1} < \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} k^i < n$. It gives $d - 1 \leq \log_k n$. On the other side, $n \leq \sum_{i=0}^d k^i < k^{d+1}$, giving $\log_k n \leq d + 1$. \square

3.2. Distributed Model and Problem

Nodes are autonomous entities running the same algorithm. Each node v has a local memory where it stores the size n_v of its subtree, the size of the subtrees of its children and the size of the subtrees of its grand-children, i.e., for any child x of v and for any child y of x , v knows n_x and n_y .

Computations performed by the nodes are based only on the local knowledge, i.e., the information present in the local memory and that concerns only nodes at distance at most 2. We consider a synchronous setting. That is, the time is slotted in rounds. At each round, any node may run the algorithm based on its knowledge and, depending on the computation, may do one of the following *operations*. In the algorithm we present, each operation done by a node v consists of rewiring at most two edges at distance at most 2 from v . More precisely, let v_1, \dots, v_d be the children of v ordered by the size of their subtrees. That is $n_{v_1} \geq n_{v_2} \geq \dots \geq n_{v_d}$. Let a be a child of v_1 and b be a child of v_k (if any). The node v may

- replace the edge $\{v_1, a\}$ by the edge $\{v, a\}$. A grand-child a of v then becomes a child of v . This operation is denoted by PULL(a) and illustrated in Figure 1a;
- replace the edge $\{v, v_{k+1}\}$ by the edge $\{v_k, v_{k+1}\}$. A child v_{k+1} of v then becomes a child of another child v_k of v . This operation is denoted by PUSH(v_{k+1}, v_k), see Figure 1b. Note that this operation will be performed only if $d > k$ (i.e., if v is overloaded);
- replace the edges $\{v_1, a\}$ and $\{v_k, b\}$ by the edges $\{v_1, b\}$ and $\{v_k, a\}$. The children v_1 and v_k of v exchange two of their own children a and b . This operation is denoted by SWAP(a, b) and an example is given in Figure 1c. Note that this operation will be performed only if $d = k$ (i.e., v is neither overloaded nor underloaded). Here, a or b may not exist, in which case, one of v_1 and v_k “wins” a new child while the other one “looses” a child. This case is illustrated in Figure 1d.

In all cases, the local memory of the at most $k^2 + 1$, including the parent of v , nodes that are concerned are updated. Note that each of these operations may be done using a constant number of messages of size $O(\log n)$.

In this setting, at every round, all nodes sequentially run the algorithm. In order to consider the worst case scenario, the order in which all nodes are

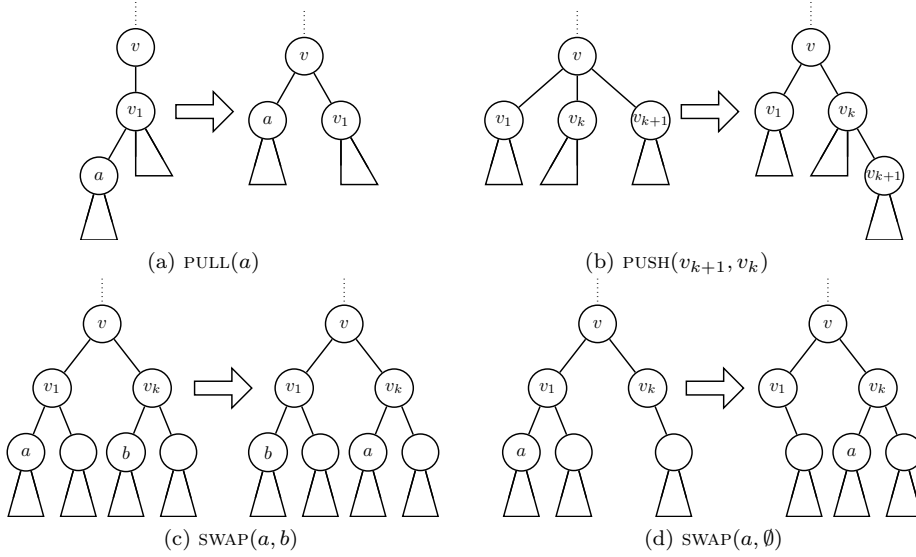


Figure 1: Operations performed by node v in the balancing process

scheduled during one round is given by an adversary. The algorithm must ensure that after a finite number of rounds, the resulting tree is k -balanced. We are interested in time complexity of the worst case scenario of the repair. That is, the performance of the algorithm is measured by the maximum number of rounds after which the tree becomes k -balanced, starting from any n -node tree.

3.3. The Balancing Process

In this section, we present our algorithm, called k -balancing process. We prove some basic properties of it. In particular, while the tree is not k -balanced, the k -balancing process ensures that at least one node performs an operation. In the next sections, we prove that the k -balancing process actually allows to reach a k -balanced tree after a finite number of rounds.

At each round, a node v executes the algorithm described on Figure 2. To summarize, an underloaded node does a PULL, an overloaded node does a PUSH and an imbalanced node (whose children are not overloaded) does a SWAP operation. Note that a SWAP operation may exchange a subtree with an empty subtree, but cannot create an overloaded node. Intuitively, the children affected by PUSH and PULL are chosen to get probably the least imbalance (reduce the biggest subtree or merge two small subtrees). Note that the PUSH operation merges the subtrees rooted in v_k and v_{k+1} (other choices may have been considered like merging the subtrees rooted in v_d and v_{d-1}) in order to maximize the number of pairs receiving the video (recall that only the first k children of a node receive the video). It is important to emphasise that the k -balancing process requires no memory of the past operations.

Note that if the tree is k -balanced, no operations are performed, and that, if the tree is not, at least one operation is performed.

Claim 2. *If T is not k -balanced, and all nodes execute the k -balancing process, then at least one node will do an operation.*

Algorithm executed by a node v in a tree T . If v is not a leaf, let (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d) be the $d \geq 1$ children of v ordered by subtree-size, i.e., $n_{v_1} \geq n_{v_2} \geq \dots \geq n_{v_d}$.

1. **If** v is underloaded (then $d < k$), let a be a child of v_1 with biggest subtree size. **Then** node v executes $\text{PULL}(a)$. // *That is, a becomes a child of v .*
2. **Else if** v is overloaded (then $d > k \geq 2$), **then** node v executes $\text{PUSH}(v_{k+1}, v_k)$.
// *That is, v_{k+1} becomes a child of v_k .*
3. **Else if** v is imbalanced (then $d = k$) **and if** v_1 and v_k are not overloaded, let a and b be two children of v_1 and v_k respectively such that $|n_{v_1} - n_a + n_b - (n_{v_k} - n_b + n_a)|$ is minimum (a (resp. b) may not exist, i.e., $n_a = 0$ (resp., $n_b = 0$), if v_1 (resp v_2) is underloaded). **Then** node v execute $\text{SWAP}(a, b)$.
// *That is, a and b exchange their parent.*

Figure 2: k -Balancing Process

Proof. If T is not k -balanced, there exists a not k -balanced node v . According to the k -balancing process, v will perform an operation except if it has degree k and either its children v_1 or v_k are overloaded. In this case, the overloaded node will perform an operation. \square

In the next section, we consider the case $k = 2$. We prove that, starting from any tree, the number of operations done by the nodes executing the 2-balancing process is bounded. We believe that the proofs can be extended to larger k , but proofs are already technical for $k = 2$. Therefore, we leave this extension as future work.

Together with the previous claim, it allows to prove

Theorem 1. *Starting from any n -node tree T where each node executes the 2-balancing process, in at most $O(n^2)$ rounds, T eventually becomes 2-balanced.*

Before proving the above result in next Section, we give a simple lower bound on the number of rounds required by the k -Balancing Process. A *star* is a rooted tree where any non root-node is a leaf.

Lemma 1. *If the initial tree is a n -node star, then at least $\Omega(n)$ rounds are needed before the resulting tree is k -balanced.*

Proof. Initially, the degree of the root is $n - 1$. While $n > k$, the only operation that may modify the degree of the root is when the root itself does a PUSH , in which case its degree decreases by one. Hence the degree of the root decreases by at most one per round. Since the tree cannot become k -balanced while the degree of the root is at least $k + 1$, at least $n - 1 - k = \Omega(n)$ rounds are required. \square

4. Worst case analysis of the 2-Balancing process

In this Section, we obtain an upper bound of $O(n^2)$ rounds needed to balance the tree. We prove it using a *potential function*, whose initial value is bounded,

integral and positive, may rise in a bounded number of rounds and, otherwise, strictly decreases.

Lemma 2. *Starting from any n -node rooted tree T , after having executed the 2-Balancing Process during $O(n)$ rounds, no node will do a PUSH operation anymore.*

Proof. Let us study how the degree of the nodes evolves during one round. We start with the following claim.

Claim 3. *Let v be any node with degree d at the beginning of the round. Then,*

- *if $d \leq 2$, its degree is at most 3 at the end of the round.*
- *if $d \geq 3$, its degree cannot have increased at the end of the round.*

Proof of the claim. First, a simple case analysis proves that the degree of v may increase due to operations done by other nodes only in two cases. Either the parent p of v does a PUSH operation on v or p does a SWAP operation (a child of a sibling of v becoming a new child of v). In both cases, the degree of v increases by at most one. Moreover, at most one of these cases occurs in one given round since the parent p of v is scheduled only once and if the parent of v changes during a round, it means either that v has been pulled by a node who has already been scheduled or that v has been swapped by its grandparent g . In the latter case, v cannot be swapped or pulled by the already scheduled g , and its new parent p' will not carry out a PUSH as p' is not overloaded by definition of the balancing process (the children of a node carrying out a SWAP operation are not overloaded).

Now, let us consider the contribution of the operation performed by v itself during this round. If its degree is at least three when v is scheduled, then v has to execute a PUSH operation, reducing its degree by one. Otherwise, the degree of v must be at most 2 after it executes its operation: either v had degree 1 and did a PULL operation, or it had degree 0 or 2 and its degree remains unchanged after its operation.

To summarize, a node with degree 0 or 1 at the beginning of the round can have its degree increased by 2 during the round, 1 unit due to a PULL operation and 1 unit due to a SWAP or a PUSH of another node; a node with degree 2 can have its degree increased by at most 1 during the round, due to other nodes; a node with degree $d \geq 3$ (at the beginning) may have its degree increased by one due to other nodes during the round, but will carry out a PUSH operation before or afterwards, and thus its degree will not have increased at the end of the round. \diamond

Let us define a potential function Φ , where $\Phi(T) = \sum_{v \in V(T)} \max\{0, d_v - 3\}$, with d_v being the number of children of node v .¹ The previous claim shows that

¹Note that it is possible that a node v with degree 2 at the beginning of a round has a degree 3 at the end of the round. It happens if its parent was overloaded at the beginning of the round and carried out a PUSH operation after v has made its operation. Because of this fact, we could not define the most natural potential function, $\sum_{v \in V(T)} \max\{0, d_v - 2\}$ and do a more direct proof. Instead, we had to set $\Phi(T) = \sum_{v \in V(T)} \max\{0, d_v - 3\}$. With our definition of the potential, a node with degree 3 does not count in the potential function.

the potential function Φ is not increasing during the Balancing Process, Note that $\Phi(T) \leq n$ for any n -node tree T . Therefore, there are at most $O(n)$ rounds where the function strictly decreases.

To conclude, we show that during one round, either Φ strictly decreases, or at least one node executes its last PUSH operation.

Indeed, let v be an overloaded node that is closest to the root. First, we notice that no ancestor of v can become overloaded (simple induction on the distance between v and the root). We show that the degree of v strictly decreases during this round.

The parent p of v cannot do any PUSH operation since it cannot become overloaded anymore. A SWAP operation can increase the degree of v to at most 2, which is a decrease from $d \geq 3$ at the beginning of the round. When v is scheduled, if its degree is at least 3, then it will perform a PUSH operation and decrease its degree, otherwise no operation will increase its degree over 2. In any case, the degree of v decreases.

Hence, either the degree of v was at least 4 and the contribution of v in Φ decreases during this round, i.e., Φ strictly decreases. Or, v had degree 3 before the round and is not overloaded anymore at the end of the round. Since all its ancestors are not overloaded, v will never be overloaded again and therefore will never do another PUSH operation. \square

Let \mathcal{Q} be the sum over all nodes $u \in T$ of the distance between u and the root.

Lemma 3. *Starting from any n -node rooted tree T , there are at most $O(n^2)$ distinct (not necessarily consecutive) rounds with a PULL operation. More precisely, the sum of the sizes of the subtrees that are pulled during the 2-Balancing process does not exceed n^2 .*

Proof. First, by Lemma 2, there are no PUSH operations after $O(n)$ rounds. Note that a SWAP operation does not change \mathcal{Q} . Moreover, a PULL operation of a subtree T_v makes \mathcal{Q} decrease by n_v . Since $\mathcal{Q} = \sum_{u \in V(T)} d(u, r) \leq n^2$, the sum of the sizes of the subtrees that are pulled during the whole process does not exceed n^2 . \square

Potential function. To prove the main result of this section, we define a potential function and show that: (1) the initial value of the potential function is bounded; (2) its value may raise due to PULL operations, but in a limited number of rounds and by a bounded amount; (3) a SWAP operation may not increase its value; (4) if no PUSH nor PULL operation are done, there exists at least one node doing a SWAP operation, strictly decreasing the potential function.

We tried simple potential functions first. However, they led either to an unbounded number of rounds with non-decreasing value, or to a larger upper bound. For example, it would be natural to define the potential of a node as the difference between its subtree sizes. For this potential function, (1) (2) and (3) are true, but, unfortunately, for some trees the potential function does not decrease during a round. This function can be patched so that each operation makes the potential decrease: multiplying the potential of a node by its distance to the root. However, the potential in this case can reach $O(n^3)$.

The potential function giving the $O(n^2)$ bound is defined as follows. Recall that we consider a n -node tree T rooted in r such that all nodes have at most

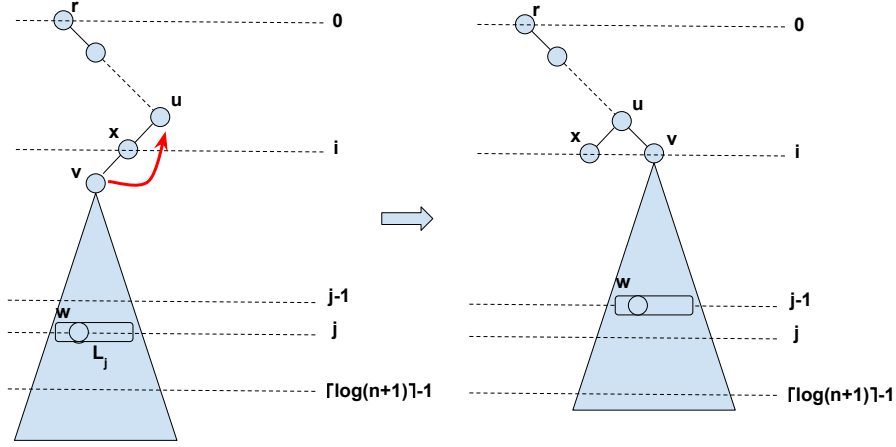


Figure 3: Notations for the proof of Lemma 4

two children (since, by Lemma 2, no node is overloaded after the $O(n)$ first rounds). Let $E_0 = n$ and, for any $0 \leq i \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$, let $E_i = 2E_{i+1} + 1$. Note that $(E_i)_{i \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1}$ is strictly decreasing, and $0 < E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} \leq 1$. Intuitively, E_i is the mean-size of a subtree rooted in a node at distance i from the root in a balanced tree with n nodes.

Let K_i be the set of nodes of T at distance exactly $i \geq 0$ from the root and $|K_i| = k_i$, and, for any $0 \leq i < \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil$, let $m_i = 2^i - k_i$. Intuitively, m_i represents the number of nodes, at distance i from the root, missing compared to a complete binary tree.

For any $v \in V(T)$ at distance $0 \leq i \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$ from the root, the *default* of v , denoted by $\mu(v)$, equals $n_v - \lceil E_i \rceil$ if $n_v > E_i$ and $\lfloor E_i \rfloor - n_v$ otherwise. Note that $\mu(v) \geq 0$ since n_v is an integer.

Let the *potential at distance i from r* , $0 \leq i \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$, be

$$P_i = m_i \cdot \lceil E_i \rceil + \sum_{u \in K_i} \mu(u).$$

Finally, let us define the *potential*

$$\mathcal{P} = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} P_i.$$

Since $\mu(u) \leq n$ for any $u \in V(T)$, and $\sum_{0 \leq i \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} m_i + k_i \leq 2n$, then $\mathcal{P} = O(n^2)$.

Lemma 4. *For any n -node rooted tree T executing the 2-Balancing process, a PULL operation of a subtree T_v may increase the potential \mathcal{P} by at most $2n_v$.*

Proof. Let us consider a PULL operation executed by node u . Let x be its unique child and let v be the child of x such that T_v is pulled by u . Let i be the distance between x and the root. For any $j \geq i$, let L_j be the set of nodes of T_v at distance j from the root before the PULL operation and $|L_j| = \ell_j$ (note that $L_i = \emptyset$ and $\ell_i = 0$), see Figure 3.

The lemma is proved by case analysis. We show that the default increases by at most n_v for x , $\lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor - \lfloor E_j \rfloor$ for nodes below it whose distance j from the root is $j \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$ and by at most n_w for every node whose distance from root is $\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil$.

For any $0 \leq j \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$, let P_j be the potential at distance i from the root before the PULL operation and P'_j be this potential after the operation. Note that for any $j < i$, $P'_j = P_j$. For any node $w \in V(T)$, let $\mu(w)$ the default of w before the PULL operation and $\mu'(w)$ its default after the operation. For any $w \notin V(T_v) \cup \{x\}$, $\mu(w) = \mu'(w)$.

Moreover, either $\mu(x) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - n_x$ and then $\mu'(x) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_x - n_v)$, or $\mu(x) = n_x - \lfloor E_i \rfloor$ and either $\mu'(x) = n_x - n_v - \lfloor E_i \rfloor$ or $\mu'(x) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_x - n_v)$. In any case, $\mu'(x) - \mu(x) \leq n_v$.

For any $w \in L_j$, $i < j \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$, there are several cases to be considered.

- Either $\mu(w) = \lfloor E_j \rfloor - n_w$ and then $\mu'(w) = \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor - n_w$. In that case, $\mu'(w) - \mu(w) \leq \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor - \lfloor E_j \rfloor$.
- Or $\mu(w) = n_w - \lfloor E_j \rfloor$ and $\mu'(w) = n_w - \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor$. In that case, since $\lfloor E_j \rfloor \leq \lceil E_{j-1} \rceil$, $\mu'(w) - \mu(w) \leq \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor - \lfloor E_j \rfloor$.
- Otherwise, $\mu(w) = n_w - \lfloor E_j \rfloor$ and $\mu'(w) = \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor - n_w$. This case occurs if $E_{j-1} > n_w > E_j$. In that case, $\mu'(w) - \mu(w) \leq \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor + \lceil E_j \rceil - 2n_w \leq \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor - \lfloor E_j \rfloor$, (as $n_w \geq \lceil E_j \rceil$).

To summarize, in any case, $\mu'(w) - \mu(w) \leq \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor - \lfloor E_j \rfloor$.

Finally, for any $w \in L_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil}$, either $\mu'(w) = n_w - \lfloor E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} \rfloor$, or $\mu'(w) = \lceil E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} \rceil - n_w \leq 1$ (as we recall that $0 < \lfloor E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} \rfloor \leq 1$), i.e., in any case, $\mu'(w) \leq n_w$.

For any j , $i < j \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$, $P'_j = P_j + (\ell_j - \ell_{j+1}) \lfloor E_j \rfloor + \sum_{w \in L_{j+1}} \mu'(w) - \sum_{w \in L_j} \mu(w)$. That is, $P'_j = P_j + \sum_{w \in L_{j+1}} (\mu'(w) - \lfloor E_j \rfloor) - \sum_{w \in L_j} (\mu(w) - \lfloor E_j \rfloor)$. Moreover, $P'_i = P_i - \lfloor E_i \rfloor + \mu'(v) + \mu'(x) - \mu(x)$. Finally, let \mathcal{P} be the potential before the PULL operation and let \mathcal{P}' be the potential after the PULL operation. Summing the previous formulas, we obtain:

$\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} + \mu'(x) - \mu(x) + \sum_{i < j \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} \sum_{w \in L_j} (\mu'(w) + \lfloor E_j \rfloor - \mu(w) - \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor) + \sum_{w \in L_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil}} (\mu'(w) - \lfloor E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} \rfloor)$. By previous inequalities,

$$\mathcal{P}' \leq \mathcal{P} + n_v + \sum_{w \in L_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil}} n_w \leq \mathcal{P} + 2n_v.$$

□

Let v be a node at distance $\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1 > i \geq 0$ from the root r of T . v is called i -median if it has one or two children a and b and $n_a > E_{i+1} > n_b$ (possibly v has exactly one child and $n_b = 0$).

Lemma 5. *For any n -node rooted tree T executing the 2-Balancing process, a SWAP operation executed by any node v does not increase the potential \mathcal{P} . Moreover, if v is j -median then \mathcal{P} strictly decreases by at least one.*

This lemma is proved by calculating the new potential, in all the possible cases of relative sizes of the children and E_i before and after the operation.

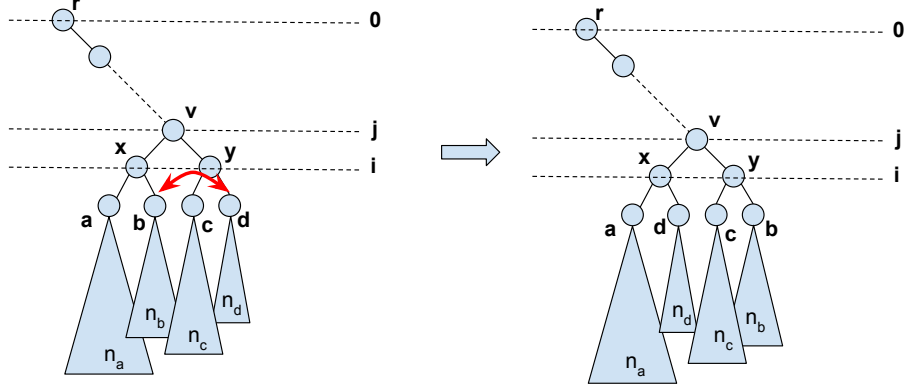


Figure 4: Notations for the proof of Lemma 5

Proof. Let j be the distance from v to r . Let x and y be the children of v . Let a and b be the children of x and let c and d be the children of y . Without loss of generality, $n_a \geq n_b \geq 0$, and $n_c \geq n_d \geq 0$ and $n_a + n_b \geq n_c + n_d$. Because the SWAP operation is executed, then $n_a + n_d - n_b - n_c < n_a + n_b - n_c - n_d = \delta_u$ and $\delta_u > 1$, $n_b > n_d$ and $n_a > n_c$. In particular, b and d are exchanged, see Figure 4.

For any $w \in \{x, y\}$, let $\mu(w)$ be the default of w before the SWAP operation and let $\mu'(w)$ be its default after the operation. Let \mathcal{P} be the potential before the SWAP operation and let \mathcal{P}' be the potential after the SWAP operation. As a SWAP operation does not change the numbers of missing nodes m_k , $0 \leq k \leq \log(n+1) - 1$, and, as it changes only the defaults of x and y , we have $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} - \mu(x) - \mu(y) + \mu'(x) + \mu'(y)$. We assume that $0 \leq j < \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$. Indeed, if $j \geq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1$, then $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P}$, as the potential at distance k from r , P_k , is only defined for smaller distances from the root. We note $i = j + 1$ the distance of x and y from the root. There are several cases to be considered.

- Case $n_x \leq E_i$. Then, $\mu(x) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_a + n_b + 1)$, $\mu'(x) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_a + n_d + 1)$ because $n_a + n_d + 1 < n_x \leq E_i$, $\mu(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_d + 1)$ because $n_y < n_x \leq E_i$, and $\mu'(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_b + 1)$ because $n_c + n_b + 1 < n_x \leq E_i$.
 $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} + \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_a + n_d + 1) - \lfloor E_i \rfloor + (n_a + n_b + 1) + \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lfloor E_i \rfloor + (n_c + n_d + 1) = \mathcal{P}$.
- Case $n_y \geq E_i$. Then, $\mu(x) = (n_a + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$ because $n_x > n_y \geq E_i$, $\mu'(x) = (n_a + n_d + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$ because $E_i \leq n_y < n_a + n_d + 1$, $\mu(y) = (n_c + n_d + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, and $\mu'(y) = (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, because $E_i \leq n_y < n_c + n_b$.
 Again, $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P}$.
- Case $n_y < n_c + n_b + 1 \leq E_i \leq n_a + n_d + 1 < n_x$. Then, $\mu(x) = (n_a + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, $\mu'(x) = (n_a + n_d + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, $\mu(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_d + 1)$ and $\mu'(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_b + 1)$.
 Thus, $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} + (n_a + n_d + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil - (n_a + n_b + 1) + \lceil E_i \rceil + \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lfloor E_i \rfloor + (n_c + n_d + 1) = \mathcal{P} + 2n_d - 2n_b \leq \mathcal{P} - 1$.

- Case $n_y < n_a + n_d + 1 \leq E_i \leq n_c + n_b + 1 < n_x$. Then, $\mu(x) = (n_a + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, $\mu'(x) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_a + n_d + 1)$, $\mu(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_d + 1)$ and $\mu'(y) = (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$. Thus, $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} + \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_a + n_d + 1) - (n_a + n_b + 1) + \lceil E_i \rceil + (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil - \lfloor E_i \rfloor + (n_c + n_d + 1) = \mathcal{P} - 2n_a + 2n_c \leq \mathcal{P} - 1$.
- Case $n_y < \max\{n_c + n_b + 1, n_a + n_d + 1\} \leq E_i < n_x$. Then, $\mu(x) = (n_a + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, $\mu'(x) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_a + n_d + 1)$, $\mu(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_d + 1)$ and $\mu'(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_b + 1)$.
 $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} + \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_a + n_d + 1) - (n_a + n_b + 1) + \lceil E_i \rceil + \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lfloor E_i \rfloor + (n_c + n_d + 1) = \mathcal{P} + \lfloor E_i \rfloor + \lceil E_i \rceil - 2(n_a + n_b + 1) = \mathcal{P} + \lfloor E_i \rfloor + \lceil E_i \rceil - 2n_x$.
Since $n_x > E_i \geq \lfloor E_i \rfloor$ and $n_x \geq \lceil E_i \rceil$, $\mathcal{P}' \leq \mathcal{P} - 1$.
- Case $n_y < E_i \leq \min\{n_c + n_b + 1, n_a + n_d + 1\} < n_x$. Then, $\mu(x) = (n_a + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, $\mu'(x) = (n_a + n_d + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$, $\mu(y) = \lfloor E_i \rfloor - (n_c + n_d + 1)$ and $\mu'(y) = (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil$.
 $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} + (n_a + n_d + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil - (n_a + n_b + 1) + \lceil E_i \rceil + (n_c + n_b + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil - \lfloor E_i \rfloor + (n_c + n_d + 1) = \mathcal{P} + 2(n_c + n_d + 1) - \lceil E_i \rceil - \lfloor E_i \rfloor = \mathcal{P} + 2n_y - \lceil E_i \rceil - \lfloor E_i \rfloor \leq \mathcal{P} - 1$

Since v is $(i-1)$ -median if and only if one of the last four cases is concerned, this concludes the proof. \square

Let v be a node at distance $0 \leq i < \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 2$ from the root r of T . v is called i -switchable if it has one or two children a and b and $n_a > E_{i+1} > n_b$ (possibly v has exactly one child, and $n_b = 0$), $n_a - n_b \geq 2$ and none of its ancestors can execute a SWAP operation. Note that, if a node is i -switchable, then it is i -median.

Lemma 6. *Let T be a tree where no PUSH nor PULL operation is possible in the 2-Balancing process. If a node v is i -switchable, then either v can do a SWAP operation, or $0 \leq i < \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 3$ and it has a $(i+1)$ -switchable child.*

Proof. Let v be a i -switchable node ($0 \leq i < \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 2$) and let x be its greatest child and y its other child if any (possibly $n_y = 0$).

Because no PUSH operation is possible, all nodes have at most two children.

First, let us assume that $i = \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 3$. By definition, $n_y < E_{i+1} = E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 2} \leq 3$ (since, by definition, $E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 1} \leq 1$). Hence, either $n_y = 0$ and $n_x \geq 2$ and v must do a PULL operation which is not possible, or $n_y = 1$ and $n_x \geq 3$, or $n_y = 2$ and $n_x \geq 4$. For the last two cases, x cannot have only one child, since otherwise he should execute a PULL operation which is not possible. Therefore, it is easy to check that, in the last two cases, v can execute a SWAP operation.

Now, assume that $i < \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 3$. Because $n_v > n_x > E_{i+1} \geq 3$ and no PULL operation is executed by v , then v has two children x and y . Let a and b be the two children of x (if any) and let c and d be the two children of y (if any). Without loss of generality, $n_a \geq n_b$ and $n_c \geq n_d$. Because v is i -median, then $n_x > E_{i+1} > n_y$.

Let us assume that v cannot do any SWAP operation. Then, either $n_x - n_y \leq 1$, or $n_d \geq n_b$ (and then $n_c \leq n_a$), or $n_c \geq n_a$ (and then $n_b \geq n_d$). The first case is not possible since v is i -switchable and $n_x - n_y \geq 2$. Therefore, there are only two cases to be considered.

- If $n_a \geq n_c \geq n_d \geq n_b$, then $2n_a + 1 \geq n_a + n_b + 1 = n_x > E_{i+1} = 2E_{i+2} + 1 > n_y = n_c + n_d + 1 \geq 2n_b + 1$ and $n_a > E_{i+2} > n_b$. Moreover, $1 + n_a + n_b = n_x \geq n_y + 2 = 3 + n_c + n_d \geq 2n_b + 3$ and $n_a \geq n_b + 2$. Hence, x is $(i+1)$ -switchable.
- If $n_c \geq n_a \geq n_b \geq n_d$, then $2n_c + 1 \geq n_a + n_b + 1 = n_x > E_{i+1} = 2E_{i+2} + 1 > n_y = n_c + n_d + 1 \geq 2n_d + 1$ and $n_c > E_{i+2} > n_d$. Moreover, $2n_c + 1 \geq n_a + n_b + 1 = n_x \geq n_y + 2 = n_c + n_d + 3$ and $n_c \geq n_d + 2$. Hence, y is $(i+1)$ -switchable.

□

Lemma 7. *At each round of the 2-Balancing process when no PULL nor PUSH operations are done, if the tree is not balanced, then there is a i -switchable node, $0 \leq i < \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 2$.*

Proof. Let a and b be the two children of the root (r has two children since otherwise a PULL operation may be done or the tree has two nodes and is balanced). Recall that $E_0 = n = n_a + n_b + 1 = 2E_1 + 1$.

- If $n_a = n_b$, the root is balanced and cannot execute a SWAP operation. Moreover, $E_1 = n_a = n_b = (n-1)/2$.
- Otherwise, assume without loss of generality, $n_a > n_b$, then $n_a > E_1 = (n_a + n_b)/2 > n_b$.
 - If $n_a > E_1 > n_b$ and $n_a - n_b \geq 2$, then the root is 0-switchable.
 - If $n_a > E_1 > n_b$ and $n_a - n_b \leq 1$ then the root cannot execute a SWAP operation (since no such operation can decrease the difference between its subtrees).

Therefore, either the root is 0-switchable, or we are in a \mathcal{S}_1 -situation: the two children a and b of the root are such that $n_a = n_b = E_1$ or $n_a > E_1 > n_b$ and $n_a - n_b \leq 1$, and in both cases, $n_a, n_b \in \{\lceil E_1 \rceil, \lfloor E_1 \rfloor\}$ and the root cannot perform a SWAP operation.

Let $i \geq 1$. Assume that we are in a \mathcal{S}_i -situation: for any $j < i$, all nodes at distance j from the root cannot do a SWAP operation, and for any $j \leq i$, $k_j = 2^j$ and, for any node v at distance i of the root, $n_v \in \{\lceil E_i \rceil, \lfloor E_i \rfloor\}$.

First, note that if the tree is in a $\mathcal{S}_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 2}$ -situation, then it is balanced. Therefore, let $j \leq \lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 2$ be the smallest integer such that T is not in a \mathcal{S}_j -situation. For any node u at distance $j-1$ from the root, $n_u \geq \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor \geq \lfloor E_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil - 3} \rfloor \geq 3$. Therefore, u has exactly two children since if it has more children, a PUSH operation would be possible, and if it has only one child, a PULL operation would be possible (note that, such a PULL operation would actually be done during the round since all ancestors of u cannot do a SWAP operation).

Since the tree is not in a \mathcal{S}_j -situation, there is a node u at distance $j-1$ from the root and with two children a and b such that, without loss of generality, $n_a \notin \{\lceil E_j \rceil, \lfloor E_j \rfloor\}$. However, $n_a + n_b + 1 = n_u \in \{\lceil E_{j-1} \rceil, \lfloor E_{j-1} \rfloor\} = \{\lceil 2E_j + 1 \rceil, \lfloor 2E_j + 1 \rfloor\}$.

Assume first that $n_a > \lceil E_j \rceil$. Then, $n_b = n_u - n_a - 1 \leq n_u - 2 - \lceil E_j \rceil \leq \lfloor 2E_j + 1 \rfloor - 2 - \lceil E_j \rceil \leq 2\lfloor E_j \rfloor - 1 - \lceil E_j \rceil \leq \lfloor E_j \rfloor - 1 < E_j$. Hence, $n_a > E_j > n_b$ and $n_a - n_b \geq 2$ and u is $(j-1)$ -switchable.

Similarly, if $n_a < \lfloor E_j \rfloor$, then $n_b = n_u - n_a - 1 \geq \lfloor 2E_j + 1 \rfloor - \lfloor E_j \rfloor \geq \lfloor E_j \rfloor + 1 > E_j$. Again, u is $(j - 1)$ -switchable. \square

Proof. of Theorem 1. By Lemma 2, after $O(n)$ rounds, no PUSH operations are executed anymore and all nodes have at most two children. From then, only PULL or SWAP operations may happen. Moreover, by Claim 2, there is at least one operation per round while T is not balanced. From Lemma 3, there are at most $O(n^2)$ rounds with a PULL operation. Once no PUSH operations are executed anymore, from Lemmata 3, 4 and 5, potential \mathcal{P} can increase by at most $O(n^2)$ in total (over all rounds). Moreover, by Lemma 5, if a i -median node executes a SWAP operation, the potential \mathcal{P} strictly decreases by at least one.

By Lemma 7, at each round when no PULL nor PUSH operations are done, there is an i -switchable node, $0 \leq i < \lceil \log(n + 1) \rceil - 2$. Thus, by Lemma 6, at each such round, there is an i -switchable that can execute a SWAP operation. Since a i -switchable node is i -median ($0 \leq i < \lceil \log(n + 1) \rceil - 2$), by Lemma 5, the potential \mathcal{P} strictly decreases by at least one.

The result then follows from the fact that $\mathcal{P} \leq n^2$. \square

5. Adding an extra knowledge to the nodes

In this section, we assume an extra knowledge: each node knows whether it has a descendant that is not balanced. This extra information is updated after each operation. Then, our algorithm is modified by adding the condition that any node v executing the balancing process can do a PULL or SWAP operation only if all its descendants are balanced. Adding this property allows to prove better upper bounds on the number of steps, by avoiding conflict between an operation performed by a node and an operation performed by one of its not balanced descendant. We moreover prove that this upper bound for our algorithm is asymptotically tight, reached when input tree is a path. The approach presented in this section is specific for $k = 2$. I.e., the objective of the Balancing Process is to reach a 2-balanced tree. [Note that the motivation for the extra knowledge is more theoretical, even if it could be added to existing systems with only a small cost \(a single bit per node which is updated when an operation is carried out or when a node leaves the system\).](#)

First, we define a function f used to bound the number of rounds needed to balance a tree consisting of two balanced subtrees and a common ancestor. Let $f : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be the function defined recursively as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall a \geq 0, & \quad f(a, a) = 0 \\ \forall a \geq 1, & \quad f(a, a - 1) = 0 \\ \forall a \geq 2, & \quad f(a, 0) = 1 + f(\lfloor \frac{a-1}{2} \rfloor, 0) \\ \forall a > 2, \forall 1 \leq b < a - 1, & \quad f(a, b) = 1 + \max(f(\lceil \frac{a-1}{2} \rceil, \lfloor \frac{b-1}{2} \rfloor), f(\lfloor \frac{a-1}{2} \rfloor, \lceil \frac{b-1}{2} \rceil)) \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 8. *For any $a \geq 0$, $a \geq b \geq 0$, $f(a, b) \leq \max\{0, \log_2 a\}$.*

Proof. The proof is by induction on a . If $a \leq 1$, then $f(a, b) = 0$ and $f(2, b) \leq 1$ for any $0 \leq b \leq a$ and the result holds. Let $a > 2$ and assume the result is true for any $0 \leq a' < a$. Then, $f(a, 0) = 1 + f(\lfloor \frac{a-1}{2} \rfloor, 0) \leq 1 + \log_2 \lfloor \frac{a-1}{2} \rfloor \leq \log_2 a$ and the result holds. Finally, for any $b < a - 1$, $f(a, b) =$

$1 + \max(f(\lceil \frac{a-1}{2} \rceil, \lfloor \frac{b-1}{2} \rfloor), f(\lfloor \frac{a-1}{2} \rfloor, \lceil \frac{b-1}{2} \rceil))$. Because $a > 2$ and $b < a - 1$, then $\lfloor \frac{a-1}{2} \rfloor \geq \lceil \frac{b-1}{2} \rceil$. Therefore, the induction hypothesis applies and $f(a, b) \leq 1 + \log_2 \lceil \frac{a-1}{2} \rceil \leq \log_2 a$. \square

Now, we give a function bounding the number of rounds needed to balance any tree of a given size. Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be the function defined recursively as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall n \in \{0, 1\}, \quad g(n) &= 0 \\ \forall n > 1, \quad g(n) &= \max_{a \geq b \geq 0, a+b=n-1} (\max\{g(a), g(b)\} + f(a, b)) \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 9. For any $n \geq 0$, $g(n) \leq \max\{0, n \log_2 n\}$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on n . If $n \leq 1$, then $g(n) = 0$ and $g(2) = f(1, 0) = 0$. Let $n > 2$ and assume that $g(n') \leq n' \log_2 n'$ for any $2 \leq n' < n$. Then, for any $0 \leq b \leq a$ with $a + b = n - 1$, the induction hypothesis implies that $\max\{g(a), g(b)\} \leq (n - 1) \log_2(n - 1)$ and, by Lemma 8, $f(a, b) \leq \log_2 a \leq \log_2(n - 1)$, so $g(n) \leq n \log_2(n - 1) \leq n \log_2 n$ and the result holds. \square

We now state our main results:

Theorem 2. Starting from any n -node rooted tree, the 2-Balancing process with *extra* knowledge reaches a 2-balanced tree in $O(n \log n)$ rounds.

Proof. Let $B(n)$ be the maximum number of rounds that is needed to reach a 2-balanced tree starting from any tree with at most n nodes. Recall that we consider that all nodes execute the Balancing Process with the extra constraint that a node can execute a PULL or SWAP operation only if all its descendants are balanced.

In this setting, the result of Lemma 2 still holds. That is, starting from any tree with at most $O(n)$ nodes and after $O(n)$ rounds, there are no overloaded nodes anymore and no PUSH operation will never be executed again. Actually, in this setting, the proof of Lemma 2 becomes easier since the parent of an overloaded node cannot execute a SWAP or a PULL operation.

Since we aim at proving that $B(n) = O(n \log n)$, the first $O(n)$ rounds are negligible and we may consider only starting trees without overloaded nodes.

Let T be any n -node tree rooted in r . Let x be any not balanced node with two children y and z such that $n_y - 1 > n_z \geq 0$. Note that, because x is not balanced, $n_y \geq 2$. Note also that possibly $n_z = 0$ (i.e., $T_z = \emptyset$) in which case, x is underloaded.

We start by proving the following claim.

Claim 4. If all descendants of x are balanced, then, after at most $f(n_y, n_z)$ rounds, all nodes in T_x are balanced.

Proof of the claim. It is important to note that while there is at least one node that is not balanced in T_x , no operation done by a node in $V(T) \setminus V(T_x)$ will affect T_x . Hence, we can consider only the operations executed by nodes in T_x .

The proof of the claim is by induction on n_y . If $n_y = 2$, then x executes a PULL operation after which all nodes in T_x become balanced. Since $f(2, 0) = 1$, the result holds. Hence, let $n_y > 2$. There are two cases to be considered.

- if x is underloaded, let u and v be the two children of y . Because $n_y > 2$ and all nodes in T_y are balanced, u and v actually exist and $|n_u - n_v| \leq 1$ and $n_u + n_v = n_y - 1$. W.l.o.g. $n_u \geq n_v$ and therefore, $n_v \leq \lfloor \frac{n_y - 1}{2} \rfloor$. Then x executes PULL(u). Then, u is now a child of x and T_u are still balanced. x is balanced as well, as $|n_v + 1 - n_u| \leq 1$. On the other hand, y has now a single child v and all its descendants are balanced. By induction, all nodes in T_y become balanced after at most $f(n_v, 0)$ rounds, i.e., by Lemma 8, after at most $\log_2 n_v$ rounds.

In total, all nodes in T_x become balanced after at most $1 + \log_2 n_v \leq 1 + \log_2 \lfloor \frac{n_y - 1}{2} \rfloor = f(n_y, 0)$.

- if x is imbalanced, then $n_y - n_z > 1$. Let y_1 and y_2 be the two children of y and let z_1 and z_2 be the two children of z . Because y and z are balanced, $|y_1 - y_2| \leq 1$ and $|z_1 - z_2| \leq 1$. W.l.o.g., $y_1 \geq y_2$ and $z_1 \geq z_2$. Then, x executes SWAP(y_2, z_2). Now, y is the parent of y_1 and z_2 and all its descendants are balanced. Similarly, z is the parent of y_2 and z_1 and all its descendants are balanced.

Because $|y_1 - y_2| \leq 1$ and $|z_1 - z_2| \leq 1$, then x becomes balanced but y and z may now be not balanced anymore.

Note that, while not all nodes in T_y and T_z are balanced, the operations executed in one of these trees does not affect the other one. By induction, all nodes in T_y become balanced after at most $f(n_{y_1}, n_{z_2})$ rounds and all nodes in T_z become balanced after at most $f(n_{y_2}, n_{z_1})$ rounds.

In total, all nodes in T_x become balanced after one SWAP operation and the maximum number of rounds for all nodes in T_y and T_z to become balanced. Therefore, it takes at most $1 + \max\{f(n_{y_2}, n_{z_1}), f(n_{y_1}, n_{z_2})\} \leq f(n_y, n_z)$ rounds.

◇

Now, we are ready to prove the theorem. We prove by induction on n that $B(n) \leq g(n)$ and the theorem directly follows from Lemma 9. The result clearly holds for $n \leq 1$.

Let T be a tree rooted in r with at most n nodes. Let a and b the children of the root. While some descendant of r is not balanced, r does not execute any action. By definition of B , as both T_a and T_b behave as independent trees, all descendants of r become balanced after $\max\{B(n_a), B(n_b)\}$ rounds, i.e., by the induction hypothesis, after $\max\{g(n_a), g(n_b)\}$ rounds. Finally, by the above paragraph, at most $f(n_a, n_b)$ additional rounds are sufficient for all nodes to become balanced. Hence, T becomes 2-balanced after at most $\max\{g(n_a), g(n_b)\} + f(n_a, n_b)$ rounds.

Then, $B(n) \leq \max_{a \geq b \geq 0, a+b=n-1} (\max\{g(a), g(b)\} + f(a, b)) = g(n)$ rounds. □

Next theorem shows that there are trees starting from which the balancing process actually uses a number of rounds of the order of the above upper bound.

Theorem 3. *Starting from an n -node path rooted in one of its ends, the 2-Balancing process with [extra](#) knowledge reaches a 2-balanced tree in $\Omega(n \log n)$ rounds.*

Proof. Let $h : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be the function defined as:

$$h(d) = 2^d + \sum_{i=1}^{d-2} 2^i.$$

Let $d \geq 1$. Let \mathcal{T}_d be the set of trees defined as follows. For any $T \in \mathcal{T}_d$, T has $n + 1$ nodes where $h(d - 1) \leq n < h(d)$ and consists of a root r with a unique child u and u is the root of an n -node balanced tree.

We first prove the following claim by induction on $d \geq 1$.

Claim 5. *Starting from any tree in \mathcal{T}_d , there is a schedule for the adversary such that the 2-Balancing process with *extra* knowledge reaches a 2-balanced tree in exactly $d - 1$ rounds.*

Proof of the claim. This is clearly true for $d = 1$. The balanced subtree rooted in u is of size at most 1, hence the tree is already balanced. So no operations ($d - 1 = 0$) are needed.

Let $d \geq 1$ and let us assume by induction that any tree in \mathcal{T}_d is balanced in $d - 1$ rounds. Let $T \in \mathcal{T}_{d+1}$. Note first that, all nodes of T but the root are balanced. Therefore, during the first round, the best schedule for the adversary is to schedule the root last. When the root is scheduled, it must execute a PULL. Therefore, at the end of the first round, the tree consists of the root r with two children, u and a new child v (that was a child of u before the PULL). The subtree T_v is balanced and u has a unique child w and T_w is balanced with at most $n_w = \lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor$ nodes. Since $h(d) \leq n < h(d + 1)$, we have $2^d + \sum_{i=1}^{d-2} 2^i \leq n_w \leq 2^d + \sum_{i=1}^{d-2} 2^i$. That is, $h(d - 1) \leq n_w < h(d)$. Hence, $T_u \in \mathcal{T}_d$. Moreover, since the root does not execute any operation while the nodes of T_u are not balanced, we can consider T_u as an independent subtree and the induction hypothesis holds. Therefore, there is a schedule for the adversary such that T_u is balanced after exactly $d - 1$ rounds. In total, there is an adversary that implies that $T \in \mathcal{T}_{d+1}$ requires d rounds to become balanced. \diamond

We now prove the Lemma. For any $n \geq 1$, let d_n be the integer such that $h(d_n) \leq n < h(d_n + 1)$.

Consider an n -node path rooted in one of its ends and the following schedule of the nodes. Let us define the beginning of Phase i , $i = 1..n$, as the round when the tree is composed of a path P^i of length $n - i$ with one end the root r and the other end is a node v attached to a balanced subtree T^i of size i . During the Phase i , the adversary schedules the nodes as follows: at each round, all nodes of $P^i \setminus \{v\}$ (they don't do anything since they have unbalanced descendant), then the nodes of $T^i \cup \{v\}$ in the same ordering as defined above. Hence, Phase i boils down to balancing a tree composed of a root node attached to a single balanced subtree. By above paragraph, Phase i lasts at least d_i rounds.

Hence, the tree will be balanced in $N = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i$ rounds. Hence,

$$N \geq \sum_{i=1}^{h(d_n)-1} d_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^{d_n-1} (i-1)(h(i+1) - h(i)) \geq (d_n - 2)(h(d_n) - h(d_n - 1))$$

By definition of h , $h(d_n) - h(d_n - 1) = 2^{d_n} + 2^{d_n-2} - 2^{d_n-1} > 2^{d_n-2}$. Hence,

$$N \geq (d_n - 2)2^{d_n-2}.$$

Note now that by definition $n < h(d_n + 1) \leq 2^{d_n+2}$. It implies that $d_n > \log_2 n - 2$. Finally, we obtain $N = \Omega(n \log n)$. \square

6. Conclusions and future research

We have proposed a distributed tree balancing algorithm and shown the following properties. The algorithm does stop only when the tree is balanced. After $O(n)$ rounds, there are no overloaded nodes in the tree. This corresponds to a broadcast tree in which every node receives content. The bound is reached when the starting tree is a star. After there are no overloaded nodes in the tree any more, the balancing process lasts at most $O(n^2)$ rounds. Moreover, with the additional restriction that a node acts only if all of its descendants are balanced, the number of rounds to balance any tree is $O(n \log n)$. This bound is reached when the starting tree is a path.

An obvious, but probably hard, open problem is closing the gap between the $O(n^2)$ upper bound and the $\Omega(n)$ lower bound on balancing time. Another possibility is examination of the algorithm's average behaviour, which as hinted by simulations should yield $O(\log n)$ bound on balancing time.

The algorithm itself can be extended to handle well the case of trees that are not regular. Furthermore, in order to approach a practical system, moving to multiple trees would be highly beneficial. Allowing the algorithm to stop with more imbalance, where children are allowed to differ by a given threshold instead of one, could lead to a faster convergence.

Last, it would be interesting to analyze the average behavior of the balancing process, which is explored by simulations in [12]. In particular, while the worst case bounds seem high, simulations for random trees suggest that the average case is closer to $O(\log n)$, which is lower than the time of rebuilding a tree from scratch.

7. Bibliography

- [1] S. Aggarwal and S. Kutten. Time optimal self-stabilizing spanning tree algorithms. In *Proceedings of 13th conference on Foundations of Software Technology and Theoretical Computer Science*, volume 761 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 400–410. Springer, 1993.
- [2] B. Awerbuch, S. Kutten, Y. Mansour, B. Patt-Shamir, and G. Varghese. Time optimal self-stabilizing synchronization. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing (STOC)*, pages 652–661, 1993.
- [3] E. Bampas, A. Lamani, F. Petit, and M. Valero. Self-stabilizing balancing algorithm for containment-based trees. In *Stabilization, Safety, and Security of Distributed Systems*, pages 191–205. Springer, 2013.
- [4] L. Blin and P. Fraigniaud. Space-optimal silent self-stabilizing spanning tree constructions inspired by proof-labeling schemes. In *28th Int. Symp. on Distributed Computing, DISC*, volume 8784 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 565–566. Springer, 2014.

- [5] M. Bui, F. Butelle, and C. Lavault. A distributed algorithm for constructing a minimum diameter spanning tree. *CoRR*, abs/1312.1961, 2013.
- [6] J. Burman and S. Kutten. Time optimal asynchronous self-stabilizing spanning tree. In *Proceedings of Distributed Computing, 21st International Symposium, (DISC)*, volume 4731 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 92–107. Springer, 2007.
- [7] M. Castro, P. Druschel, A. Kermarrec, A. Nandi, A. Rowstron, and A. Singh. SplitStream: high-bandwidth multicast in cooperative environments. In *Proceedings of the nineteenth ACM symposium on Operating systems principles*, page 313, 2003.
- [8] G. Dan, V. Fodor, and I. Chatzidrossos. On the performance of multiple-tree-based peer-to-peer live streaming. In *26th IEEE International Conference on Computer Communications*, pages 2556–2560, 2007.
- [9] A. K. Datta, C. Johnen, F. Petit, and V. Villain. Self-stabilizing depth-first token circulation in arbitrary rooted networks. *Distributed Computing*, 13(4):207–218, 2000.
- [10] A. K. Datta, L. L. Larmore, and P. Vemula. An $o(n)$ -time self-stabilizing leader election algorithm. *J. Parallel Distrib. Comput.*, 71(11):1532–1544, 2011.
- [11] E. W. Dijkstra. Self-stabilizing systems in spite of distributed control. *Communications of the ACM*, 17(11):643–644, 1974.
- [12] F. Giroire and N. Huin. Study of Repair Protocols for Live Video Streaming Distributed Systems. In *IEEE Global Communications Conference (GLOBECOM)*, San Diego, United States, Dec. 2015.
- [13] F. Giroire, R. Modrzejewski, N. Nisse, and S. Pérennes. Maintaining balanced trees for structured distributed streaming systems. In *20th International Colloquium on Structural Information and Communication Complexity (SIROCCO 2013)*, 2013.
- [14] T. Herault, P. Lemarinier, O. Peres, L. Pilard, and J. Beauquier. A model for large scale self-stabilization. In *IEEE Parallel and Distributed Processing Symposium*, pages 1–10, 2007.
- [15] T. C. Huang, J. Lin, and N. Mou. Self-stabilizing algorithms for the shortest path problem in distributed systems. In *Proceedings of the ISCA 17th International Conference on Parallel and Distributed Computing Systems*, pages 270–277, 2004.
- [16] B. Li, Y. Qu, Y. Keung, S. Xie, C. Lin, J. Liu, and X. Zhang. Inside the new coolstreaming: Principles, measurements and performance implications. In *27th IEEE International Conference on Computer Communications*, 2008.
- [17] Z. Li, G. Xie, K. Hwang, and Z. Li. Churn-resilient protocol for massive data dissemination in p2p networks. *IEEE Parallel and Distributed Systems*, 22(8):1342–1349, 2011.

- [18] N. Magharei and R. Rejaie. Prime: Peer-to-peer receiver-driven mesh-based streaming. *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking*, 17(4):1052–1065, 2009.
- [19] M.-S. Pan, C.-H. Tsai, and Y.-C. Tseng. The orphan problem in zigbee wireless networks. *IEEE Transactions on Mobile Computing*, 8(11):1573–1584, 2009.
- [20] V. Venkataraman, K. Yoshida, and P. Francis. Chunkyspread: Heterogeneous unstructured tree-based peer-to-peer multicast. In *14th IEEE International Conference on Network Protocols*, pages 2–11, 2006.
- [21] S. Zhang, Z. Shao, and M. Chen. Optimal distributed p2p streaming under node degree bounds. In *18th IEEE International Conference on Network Protocols*, pages 253–262, 2010.