# Beyond Classical Local Models in Distributed Computing 

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## Beyond The LOCAL Model

Goal. Study the locality of a problem when nodes have access to exotic ressources, like entangled qubits or others.

Reminder:

- Nodes have IDs
- Run in synchronous rounds
- No message size limits
- No local computational power limits


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Fact. 3-coloring an $n$-node ring requires $\frac{1}{2} \log ^{*} n$ rounds.
(Similar for a path and for MIS computation.)

## Extending the LOCAL Model

Extensions:
(1) Shared-randomness
(2) Quantum ressources
(3) Arbitrary ressources preserving physical locality

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There are proof-of-concept problems showing that it may help.

## Shared-Randomness

Reminder. Randomness does not help for 3-coloring a ring.
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Cannot be solved in the classical LOCAL model with $\operatorname{Pr}>1 / e$. [One can tends to $1 / e$ by always selecting node with ID $=1$ and each other with $\operatorname{Pr}=(n-2) /(n-1)$, if $n \geqslant 6]$

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With shared-randomness, each node can select any edge of $K_{n}$ uniformly at random in a coordinated manner. This is correct with $\operatorname{Pr}=1-1 /\binom{n}{2}=1-O\left(1 / n^{2}\right)$.

## Quantum Extension

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To understand why quantum extensions is strictly stronger than shared-randomness extensions, we need to introduce quantum information background ...

## Quantum Physics

(for computer scientists)


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Unlike relativity theory, quantum physics do not logically follows from easy-to-validate axioms, like the invariance principle (laws are the same under any coordinates axis) and causality. BTW, invariance and causality imply an upper bound speed limit for light.

## Unit of Information

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Deterministic bit $B$ : represented by a value $B \in\{0,1\}$.
Probabilistic bit $P$ : represented by a vector of two reals $\binom{p}{q}$ where $p$ is the probability to get 0 and $q$ to get 1 . Need $0 \leqslant p, q \leqslant 1$ and $p+q=1$.
Denoting by 0 the vector $\binom{1}{0}$ et by 1 the vector $\binom{0}{1}$, one can represent $P$ as:

$$
P=p\binom{1}{0}+q\binom{0}{1}=\binom{p}{q}
$$

## Unit of Information

Quantum bit (or qubit) $Q$ : represented by a vector of two complexes $\binom{\alpha}{\beta}$ where $|\alpha|^{2}$ is the probability to get 0 and $|\beta|^{2}$ to get 1. Need $|\alpha|^{2}+|\beta|^{2}=1$.
Denoting by 0 the vector $\binom{1}{0}$ et by 1 the vector $\binom{0}{1}$, one can represent $P$ as:

$$
Q=\alpha\binom{1}{0}+\beta\binom{0}{1}=\binom{\alpha}{\beta}
$$

## Qubit

A qubit is implemented by a physical particle (photon, electron, atome). The mesure of a qubit is a physical measurement of an observable, a property like: polarisation, spin, electrical charge, energy level, speed, impulsion, ...


## Superposition \& Interference



Superposition even for a single particle ...

si lélectfon est une PARTiCULE, elle doit bien être localisée quelque part! or, on ne voit que des ondes diffuses qui expriment des probabilités.


Mais si l'électron est une ONDE, comment se fait-il qu'un seul détecteur signalera son arrivéé?!


Reality?


## Entanglement of Qubit Systems

A system of two probabilist bits $\binom{p_{1}}{q_{1}}$ and $\binom{p_{2}}{q_{2}}$ represented by a tensor product.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \binom{p_{1}}{q_{1}} \otimes\binom{p_{2}}{q_{2}}=\binom{p_{1} \cdot\binom{p_{2}}{q_{2}}}{q_{1} \cdot\binom{p_{2}}{q_{2}}}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
p_{1} p_{2} \\
p_{1} q_{2} \\
q_{1} p_{2} \\
q_{1} q_{2}
\end{array}\right) \\
= & p_{1} p_{2}\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)+p_{1} q_{2}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)+q_{1} p_{2}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right)+q_{1} q_{2}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Entanglement of Qubit Systems

A system $(A, B)$ composed of two qubits represented as linear combinaisons of four unit vectors:

$$
(A, B)=\left(\begin{array}{l}
c_{00} \\
c_{01} \\
c_{10} \\
c_{11}
\end{array}\right)=c_{00}\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)+c_{01}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)+c_{10}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right)+c_{11}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $c_{i j} \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\sum_{i j}\left|c_{i j}\right|^{2}=1$, the probability to observe $A=i$ et $B=j$ being controled by $\left|c_{i j}\right|^{2}$.

## Entangled vs. Separable States

The state of a system $(A, B)$ is separable if $(A, B)=A \otimes B$. Otherwise it is entangled.

$$
(A, B)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Operators

The state of a system $S$ of $n$ qubits is denoted $|S\rangle$ which is a vector in $\mathbb{H}^{2^{2}}$. Operations on state vector is a reversible unit matrix of $\mathbb{H}^{2^{n} \times 2^{n}}$.

For $n=1$,
NOT $:=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right), \quad \operatorname{NOT} \cdot\binom{1}{0}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right) \cdot\binom{1}{0}=\binom{0}{1}$

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1 & 0
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R(\theta):=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
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\end{array}\right)
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R(\theta):=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\
\sin \theta & \cos \theta
\end{array}\right) \\
\sqrt{\mathrm{NOT}}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1+i & 1-i \\
1-i & 1+i
\end{array}\right), \quad \sqrt{\mathrm{NOT}} \cdot \sqrt{\mathrm{NOT}}=\mathrm{NOT}
\end{gathered}
$$

## No Cloning \& No Erasing

The is no operator $U$ that for a qubit $A$ that makes:

$$
U \cdot|A, 0\rangle=|A, A\rangle \quad \text { or } \quad U \cdot|A\rangle=\binom{1}{0}
$$

## On Bell's Inequalities

Using a Gedankenexperiment invented by David Bohm (1951), John S. Bell (1964) showed that the nonexistence of properties before measurement is a direct consequence of the quantitative numerical predictions of the quantum theory. Alain Aspect (1982) showed that the quantum-theoretic predictions were indeed obeyed.


## A Gedankenexperiment



## A Gedankenexperiment



12GR 32RG 32GR 22RR 33RR 12RG 22GG 13RG 21RG $22 G G \quad 11 G G \quad 31 R G \quad 22 R R \quad 21 R G \quad 21 G G \quad 21 G R \quad 11 G G \quad 13 G R$ 11 GG 31 RG 32RG 21 GR 31GR 31 RG 12GR $23 R G$ 11RR $21 G R \quad 13 G R \quad 13 R G \quad 33 G G \quad 21 R R \quad 12 R G$ 33RR 23RG 23GR $33 G G \quad 33 R R \quad 12 R R \quad 21 R G \quad 31 G R \quad 32 G R \quad 23 R R \quad 13 G G \quad 23 G G$ $33 R \mathrm{R} \quad 12 \mathrm{GR} \quad 12 \mathrm{RG}$ 31GG 33GG 13GG 32GR 32RR $23 R G$ $\underline{11 R R}$ 31GR 22RR 11RR 23GR 23GR 22GG 13RR 33GG $\underline{22 G G} \quad \underline{11 G G} \quad 12 G R \quad 32 R G \quad 32 G G \quad 31 R R \quad 13 R G \quad \underline{22 R R}$ 11RR

## A Gedankenexperiment



|  | 32R | 32G | 22RR | 33RR | 12RG | 22GG | 13RG |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 22GG | 11GG | 31 | 22 | 21 | 21 | 21 | 11GG | 13GR |
| 11GG | 31 | 32 | 2 | 31 | 31 | 12 | 23RG |  |
|  | 13G | 13R | 33GG | 21 | 12 | 33R | 23RG |  |
| 3GG | 33RR | 12 | 21 | 31 | 32 | 23RR | G |  |
| 3RR | 12 | 12RG | 31 | 33GG | 13 | 32GR | 32RR |  |
|  | 31GR | $\underline{22 R R}$ | 11R | 23 | 23G | $\underline{22 G G}$ | 13RR | 33G |
| 2GG | 1G | 12GR | 32 RG | 32GG | 31RR | 13RG | 22R |  |

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(2) Uniformity. If we look only flashs, results are uniform random

## A Gedankenexperiment


(1) Correlation. If same detector position, then flash same color (2) Uniformity. If we look only flashs, results are uniform random Hypothesis. What is measured by detectors is an intrinsic property of the particles that is fixed before measurement. (Fixed at the creation in $C$, or along their travel to $A$ or $B$, but before fixing selecting positions.)

## A Gedankenexperiment



Hypothesis. What is measured by detectors is an intrinsic property of the particles that is fixed before measurement.

For type RGR, same flashs for positions 11, 22, 33 or 12, 21. (Different flashs for positions 12, 31, 23, 32.) Since positions are selected indep. uniformly at random ( $1 / 9$ each pair), so we should obtained same flashs $5 / 9>55 \%$ of the time.

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More generally, for types with twice the same letters (RGR, RRG, RGR, GRR, GGR, GRG and RGG) we should observe same flashs $55 \%$ of the time. For types RRR and GGG, it should occur $100 \%$ of the time.

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Whatever the type distribution, detectors should flash the same color at least $55 \%$ of the time. A contradiction with characteristic (2). Properties do not exist before detection.

## The CHSH Game: $a \oplus b=x \wedge y$

Input: $x, y \in\{0,1\}$
Output: $a, b \in\{0,1\}$


## The CHSH Game: $a \oplus b=x \wedge y$

(1) No deterministic strategies allow Alice \& Bob to win.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a(0) \oplus b(0)=0 \\
& a(0) \oplus b(1)=0 \\
& a(1) \oplus b(0)=0 \\
& a(1) \oplus b(1)=1
\end{aligned}
$$

## The CHSH Game: $a \oplus b=x \wedge y$

(2) If Alice \& Bob share random bits, then they have a strategy to win $75 \%$ of the times, and no probabilistic algorithm can do better.

| $x$ | $y$ | $x \wedge y$ | 0 | 1 | $x$ | $\neg x$ | $y$ | $\neg y$ | $x \oplus y$ | $\neg x \oplus y$ | success probability |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | $p_{1}$ | 0 | $p_{3}$ | 0 | $p_{5}$ | 0 | $p_{7}$ | 0 | $P_{00}=p_{1}+p_{3}+p_{5}+p_{7}$ |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | $p_{1}$ | 0 | 0 | $p_{4}$ | $p_{5}$ | 0 | 0 | $p_{8}$ | $P_{01}=p_{1}+p_{4}+p_{5}+p_{8}$ |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | $p_{1}$ | 0 | $p_{3}$ | 0 | 0 | $p_{6}$ | 0 | $p_{8}$ | $P_{10}=p_{1}+p_{3}+p_{6}+p_{8}$ |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $p_{2}$ | $p_{3}$ | 0 | $p_{5}$ | 0 | 0 | $p_{8}$ | $P_{11}=p_{2}+p_{3}+p_{5}+p_{8}$ |

$$
\min \left\{P_{00}, P_{01}, P_{10}, P_{11}\right\} \leqslant 3 / 4
$$

because $S=P_{00}+P_{01}+P_{10}+P_{11}=$
$3 p_{1}+p_{2}+3 p_{3}+p_{4}+3 p_{5}+p_{6}+p_{7}+p_{8} \leqslant 3 \cdot\left(p_{1}+\cdots+p_{8}\right) \leqslant 3$.

## The CHSH Game: $a \oplus b=x \wedge y$

(3) If Alice \& Bob have qubits, then they have a strategy to win $\cos ^{2}(\pi / 8)>85 \%$ of the times, and no quantum algorithm can do better.

$$
|A, B\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Alice applies a rotation $R(\theta)$ with $\theta=-\pi / 16$ if $x=0$ and $3 \pi / 16$ is $x=1$. Similarly, Bob applies $R(-\pi / 16)$ or $R(3 \pi / 16)$ depending whether $y=0$ or 1 .

## The CHSH Game: $a \oplus b=x \wedge y$

(1) No deterministic strategies allow Alice \& Bob to win.
(2) If Alice \& Bob share random bits, then they have a strategy to win $75 \%$ of the times, and no probabilistic algorithm can do better.
(3) If Alice \& Bob have qubits, then they have a strategy to win $\cos ^{2}(\pi / 8)>85 \%$ of the times, and no quantum algorithm can do better.

## The $\varphi$-LOCAL Model

(the ultimate non-signalling local model?)


## Aim

+ A weaker model than the quantum extension of the LOCAL model for a better understanding of the absolute limits of any conceivable extensions of the LOCAL model by any non-signalling physical theory (preserving causality principle).


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+ A weaker model than the quantum extension of the LOCAL model for a better understanding of the absolute limits of any conceivable extensions of the LOCAL model by any non-signalling physical theory (preserving causality principle).
+ A simple combinatorial model avoiding linear algebra in Hilbert space.
- Does not give concrete distributed algorithms because instructions with new physics may do not exist yet.


## The Physical Locality: the $\varphi$-LOCAL Model

Thesis. Locality is violated if and only if, based on the available output data, we can conclusively verify that after $t$ rounds some subset $S$ of nodes was affected by input data of $G_{\vec{x}}$ initially localized outside its view, which is

$$
\operatorname{view}_{t}\left(G_{\vec{x}}, S\right):=\bigcup_{v \in S} \operatorname{view}_{t}\left(G_{\vec{x}}, v\right)
$$

In the $\varphi$-LOCAL model, we allow any kind of correlation (possibly non-local) in the output distribution that does not violate locality.

## Non-Signalling Distribution

If $A, B$ are nodes at distance more than $t$, then for an entry $(x, y)$, the output $(a, b)$ must verify the non-signalling property:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(a \mid x, y)=_{\text {def }} \sum_{b} \operatorname{Pr}(a, b \mid x, y)=\operatorname{Pr}(a \mid x) \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(b \mid x, y)=_{\text {def }} \sum_{a} \operatorname{Pr}(a, b \mid x, y)=\operatorname{Pr}(b \mid y)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Non-Signalling Distribution



| $x$ | $y$ | $a$ | $b$ |  | $a$ | $b$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | or | 1 | 1 | (proba. $1 / 2)$ |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | or | 1 | 1 | (proba. $1 / 2)$ |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | or | 1 | 1 | (proba. $1 / 2)$ |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | or | 1 | 0 | (proba. $1 / 2$ ) |

## Non-Signalling Distribution



| $x$ | $y$ | $a$ | $b$ |  | $a$ | $b$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | or | 1 | 1 | (proba. $1 / 2)$ |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | or | 1 | 1 | (proba. $1 / 2)$ |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | or | 1 | 1 | $($ proba. $1 / 2)$ |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | or | 1 | 0 | (proba. $1 / 2)$ |

NB: $a \oplus b=x \wedge y$
(4) There is a distribution in the $\varphi$-LOCAL model with $t=0$ round that allows Alice \& Bob to win the CHSH game 100\% of the time.

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The $\Omega\left(\log ^{*} n\right)$ lower bound for 3 -coloring a ring (or MIS in a path) is NOT based on a view argument.

## Some Results for $\varphi$-LOCAL

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- Computing an MIS for a path requires at least two rounds, and three rounds are sufficient.
- Holroyd-Ligget'16 (stronger model) have constructed a stationary 1-dependent distribution for 4-coloring a path, and that such distribution for 3 -coloring is not possible. It follows that 4-coloring can be done in one 1-directional round, and 3 -coloring in one (2-directional) round.


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- 3 -coloring a path cannot be done in one 1 -directional round.

Thank you!

