Quasirandom Rumor Spreading

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Abstract

We propose and analyze a quasirandom analogue of the classical push model for disseminating information in networks ("randomized rumor spreading").

In the classical model, in each round each informed vertex chooses a neighbor at random and informs it, if it was not informed before. It is known that this simple protocol succeeds in spreading a rumor from one vertex to all others within $O(\log n)$ rounds on complete graphs, hypercubes, random regular graphs, Erdős-Rényi random graph and Ramanujan graphs with probability $1 - o(1)$. In the quasirandom model, we assume that each vertex has a (cyclic) list of its neighbors. Once informed, it starts at a random position on the list, but from then on informs its neighbors in the order of the list. Surprisingly, irrespective of the orders of the lists, the above-mentioned bounds still hold. In some cases, even better bounds than for the classical model can be shown.

1 Introduction

Randomized rumor spreading or random phone call protocols are simple randomized epidemic algorithms designed to distribute a piece of information in a network. They build on the basic paradigm that informed vertices call random neighbors to inform them (push model), or that uninformed vertices call random neighbors to become informed if the neighbor is (pull model). Despite the simple concept, these algorithms succeed in distributing information extremely fast. In contrast to many natural deterministic approaches, they are also highly robust against transmission failures [30, 31, 45].

Such algorithms have been applied successfully both in the context where a single item of news has to be distributed from one processor to all others (cf. [42]), and in the case where news may be injected at various vertices at different times. The latter problem occurs when maintaining data integrity in distributed databases, e.g., name servers in large corporate networks [20, 46]. For a more extensive, but still concise discussion of various central aspects of this area, we refer the reader to the paper by Karp et al. [45].

1.1 Randomized Rumor Spreading

Rumor spreading protocols often assume that all vertices have access to a central clock. The protocols then proceed in rounds, in each of which each vertex, independent of the others, can
perform certain actions. In the classical randomized rumor spreading protocols, in each round each vertex contacts a neighbor chosen independently and uniformly at random. In the push model, which we will focus on here, this results in the contacted vertex becoming informed, provided it was not already. Since all communications are done independently at random, in the following we shall call this also the fully random model to distinguish it from the quasirandom one we will propose in this paper.

The first graphs for which the fully random model was analyzed are complete graphs \[38, 53\]. Pittel \[53\] proved that with probability \(1 - o(1)\), \(\log n + \ln n + f(n)\) rounds suffice, where \(f(n)\) can be any function tending to infinity.

Feige et al. \[31\] showed that on almost all random graphs \(G(n, p)\), \(p \geq (1 + \varepsilon)\log n/n\), the fully random model runs in \(O(\log n)\) time with probability \(1 - n^{-1}\). They also showed that this failure probability can be achieved for \(p = (\log n + O(\log \log n))/n\) only in \(\Omega(\log^2 n)\) rounds. In addition, Feige et al. \[31\] also considered hypercubes and proved a runtime bound of \(O(\log n)\) with probability \(1 - n^{-1}\).

For expanders where the maximum and minimum degree satisfy \(\Delta/\delta = O(1)\), it was shown in Sauerwald \[56\] that the fully random model completes its broadcast campaign in \(O(\log n)\) rounds with probability \(1 - n^{-1}\) (similar results were shown earlier \[7, 51\], but these hold only for the push-pull model). Recently, Fountoulakis et al. \[34\] and Fountoulakis and Panagiotou \[33\] derived precise bounds on the runtime for random and pseudo-random regular graphs, extending the result of Frieze and Grimmett \[38\] for complete graphs.

Demers et al. \[20\] and Karp et al. \[45\] introduced the push-pull model which combines push and pull transmissions. For this model, Chierichetti et al. \[10, 11\] and Giakkoupis \[39\] proved tight runtime bounds in terms of the conductance. In particular, for any graph with constant conductance and arbitrary degree distribution, a runtime bound of \(O(\log n)\) was shown in \[39\].

Rumor spreading has recently been studied intensively on social networks, modeled by random graphs that have a power law degree distribution. Chierichetti et al. \[12\] showed that the push model with non-vanishing probability needs \(\Omega(n^\alpha)\) rounds on preferential attachment graphs \[2\] for some \(\alpha > 0\). For such power-law networks, however, the push-pull strategy is much better than push or pull alone. With this strategy, \(O(\log n)\) rounds suffice with high probability \[25\]. Doerr et al. \[25\] further proved that for a slightly adjusted process, where contacts are chosen uniformly at random among all neighbors except the one that was chosen just in the round before, \(O(\log n/\log \log n)\) rounds suffice. This is asymptotically optimal as the diameter of such a preferential attachment graph, with power law exponent 3, is \(\Theta(\log n/\log \log n)\) \[6\]. Fountoulakis et al. \[33\] showed that push-pull requires \(\Omega(\log n)\) on Chung-Lu-random graphs \[13\] with power law exponent \(> 3\) while for power law exponent \(\in (2, 3)\), the rumor spreads to almost all nodes in time \(\Theta(\log \log n)\) rounds with high probability.

**1.2 Our Results**

In this work, we propose a quasirandom analogue of the randomized rumor spreading algorithm. In this quasirandom model, every vertex is equipped with a cyclic list of its neighbors. If a vertex becomes informed, then in the next round it chooses a position on the list uniformly at random and informs the neighbor corresponding to this position. In the subsequent rounds, the vertex continues sending out messages in the order of its list. Clearly, by introducing these dependencies we gain some natural advantages like the fact that an informed vertex does not call a neighbor a second time before having called all neighbors once. In consequence, we obtain an absolute guarantee that after \(\Delta \cdot \text{diam}(G)\) rounds all vertices are informed (see Theorem 3.1) improving over the corresponding \(O(\Delta \cdot \text{diam}(G) + \log n)\) bound of Feige et al. \[31\] for the fully random model.

Surprisingly, we do not observe that the newly introduced dependencies are harmful. More precisely, we show that the \(O(\log n)\) bound (valid with probability \(1 - n^{-1}\)) for complete graphs, hypercubes, random graphs, random regular graphs and Ramanujan graphs in the classical protocol also holds in the quasirandom model regardless of which lists are used. In addition to its theoretical
interest, this implies that in an implementation of the quasirandom protocol one may re-use any lists that are already present, e.g., to encode the network structure.

Our $O(\log n)$ runtime bound also applies to very sparse connected random graphs with $p = (\log n + o(1))/n$. This contrasts with a lower bound of $\Omega(\log^2 n)$ steps required by the fully random model to inform all vertices with probability $1 - n^{-1}$ [31, Theorem 4.1] and with a lower bound on the expected time of $\Omega(\log n \log \log n)$ shown in this paper. Similarly for hypercubes, we show that the quasirandom model completes in $O(\log n)$ rounds with probability $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$, while the fully random model is easily seen to require $\Omega(\log^2 n)$ steps to achieve the same probability of success. The interesting aspect of these improvements is not so much their actual magnitude, but rather that they can be achieved for free by using a very natural protocol. Note that also speed-ups not visible by asymptotic analyses have been observed, see the experimental analysis [26]. For example, the quasirandom protocol was seen to be around 10% faster on the hypercube on 4096 vertices and around 15% faster on random 12-regular graphs on 4096 vertices.

To prove the results in this paper, we need to cope with the more dependent random experiments. Recall that once a vertex has sent out a message, all its future transmissions are determined. The methods we develop to cope with these difficulties, e.g., suitably delaying independent random decisions to have enough independent randomness at certain moments to allow the use of Chernoff-type inequalities, might be useful in the analysis of other dependent settings as well.

Our analysis employs a certain graph class called expanding graphs, which is defined by three natural expansion properties. Roughly speaking, these properties require that small sets of vertices have many neighbors, and for large sets of vertices the external vertices have many neighbors in the set, and finally that the vertex degrees are of similar order (see Definition 4.1 for the details). This graph class has been used by other authors, e.g., in [16]. We prove that complete graphs, random graphs, random regular graphs and Ramanujan graphs are expanding. After that we show that the quasirandom model succeeds in $O(\log n)$ rounds on every expanding graph with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$, where $\gamma > 0$ is an arbitrary constant.

1.3 Related Work on Quasirandomness

We call an algorithm quasirandom if it imitates (or achieves in an even better way) a particular property of a randomized algorithm deterministically. The concept of quasirandomness occurs in several areas of mathematics and computer science. A prominent example are low-discrepancy point sets and Quasi-Monte Carlo Methods [52], which imitate the property of a random point set to be evenly distributed in their domain.

Our quasirandom rumor spreading protocol imitates two properties of the fully random counterpart, namely that a vertex over a short period of time does not contact neighbors twice and over a long period of time calls all neighbors roughly equally often.

This is very much related to a quasirandom analogue of the classic random walk, which is also known as Eulerian walker [54], edge ant walk [59], whirling tour [29], Propp machine [17, 47] and deterministic random walks [18, 22]. Unlike in a random walk, in a quasirandom walk each vertex serves its neighbors in a fixed order. The resulting (completely deterministic) walk nevertheless closely resembles a random walk in several respects [17–19, 22, 36]. Other algorithmic applications of the idea of quasirandom walks are autonomous agents patrolling a territory [58], external mergesort [3], and iterative load-balancing [37].

1.4 Results Obtained After This Work

Subsequent to the conference versions [23, 24] and during the preparation of this journal version, the following results appeared that answer some questions left open in this work. In [1], it is proven that with probability $1 - o(1)$, the quasirandom model succeeds in informing all vertices of a complete graph on $n$ vertices in $(1 + o(1))(\log^2 n + \ln n)$ rounds. Hence for the complete graph, the quasirandom model achieves the same runtime as the fully random one [38] up to lower
order terms. This was strengthened by Fountoulakis and Huber [32], who nearly showed that also Pittel’s bounds [53] hold for the quasirandom model—their upper and lower bounds deviate by only a Θ(log log n) term.

A second important aspect of broadcasting protocols is their robustness. The fully random model, due to its high use of independent randomness is usually considered to be very robust. See [30, 45] for some results in this direction. A very precise result, valid for both the fully random and the quasirandom model, was recently given in [27]. They consider the setting that each message reaches its destination only with an (independently sampled) probability of 0 < p < 1. Again for the complete graph on n vertices, they show that both protocols succeed in (1 + o(1))(log1+p n + p−1 ln n) rounds with probability 1 − o(1). Together with a corresponding lower bound for the fully random model, this shows that both models are equally robust against transmission failures, in spite of the greatly reduced use of independent randomness in the quasirandom model.

The question of how much randomness is needed in such protocols was first considered by Doerr and Fouz [21] and Giakkoupis and Woelfel [40]. Among other results, the latter work presents a variant of the quasirandom model which requires on average only O((log log n) instead of O(log n) random bits per vertex in order to spread the rumor in O(log n) rounds on a complete graph with probability 1 − n−Ω(1). Giakkoupis et al. [41] present two protocols that are based on hashing and pseudorandom generators, respectively. While these protocols only require a logarithmic number of random bits in total on many networks, they are more complicated, for instance, they require that random bits are appended to the rumor.

In order to bound the number of messages, Berenbrink et al. [5] analyze another variant of the quasirandom model based on the combination of push and pull calls. This variant is shown to succeed in O(log n) rounds on random graphs and hypercubes, while requiring only O(n log log n) messages on random graphs and O(n (log log n)2) on hypercubes (all these results hold with probability 1 − n−1).

The worst case behavior of the quasirandom model was very recently addressed by Baumann et al. [4]. Among other results, the authors present a polynomial-time algorithm to compute the configuration of lists and initial neighbors which maximizes the time to spread the rumor.

1.5 Organization

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we describe our model more formally and introduce some basic notation. In Section 3 we derive bounds on the broadcast time that hold for all graphs. After that, in Section 4 we describe the class of graphs we consider in this work. The runtime analysis of quasirandom rumor spreading on this graph class is deferred to Section 5. To highlight the efficiency of our new quasirandom model, we also derive some lower bounds for the fully random model in Section 6. In Section 7, we analyze the quasirandom model on hypercubes. We close in Section 8 with a brief summary of our results.

2 Precise Model and Preliminaries

Our aim is to spread a rumor in an undirected graph G = (V, E). Let always V = {1, . . . , n} and n be the number of vertices. In the quasirandom model, each vertex v ∈ V is equipped with a cyclic permutation πv : Γ(v) → Γ(v) of its neighbors Γ(v). We call this its list of neighbors.

The quasirandom rumor spreading process then works as follows. In time step 0, an arbitrary vertex s is informed initially. If a vertex v becomes informed in time step t, then in time step t + 1 it contacts one of its neighbors w chosen uniformly at random. From then on, it respects the order of the list, that is, in time step t + 1 + τ, τ ∈ N, it contacts vertex πτ(v). To simplify the analysis, we will assume that every vertex never stops contacting its neighbors. However, it is easily seen that the propagation of the rumor is exactly the same as if every vertex v stops contacting its neighbors deg(v) rounds after it got informed. We denote by It the set of vertices that are informed at the end of time step t.
Table 1: Upper and lower bounds on the broadcast time that hold with probability at least 1 − 1/n for different graph classes in the fully random and the quasirandom model. More detailed analyses for sparse random graphs can be found in Table 2 on page 22.

Note that the assumption that the initial vertex contacted first by an informed vertex is chosen uniformly at random is crucial for the quasirandom protocol. If the adversary was allowed to specify the initial vertices also, then the time to inform all vertices could take up to n − 1 steps, for example, on a complete graph.

In the remainder of this paper, it will be convenient to consider a model equivalent to the quasirandom model. This model uses the so-called ever-rolling lists assumption, where we assume that vertices contact neighbors at all times, informing the neighbors (if the vertex is informed herself). Hence, here each vertex \( v \), already at the start of the protocol, chooses a neighbor \( i_v \) uniformly at random from \( \Gamma(v) \). This is the neighbor it contacts at time \( t = 1 \). In each following time step \( t = 2, 3, \ldots \), the vertex \( v \) contacts the vertex \( \pi_v^{t-1}(i_v) \) and informs it, if it was not yet informed and if \( v \) is informed at that time (here, \( \pi_v^{t-1} \) is the \( (t-1) \)-th composition of \( \pi \) with itself).

From the viewpoint of how the information spreads, the model with the ever-rolling lists assumption yields a process equivalent to the standard quasirandom rumor spreading model. Hence in the remainder of the paper, we shall always be discussing the model with ever-rolling lists unless we say otherwise.

We shall analyze how long it takes until a rumor known to a single vertex is spread to all other vertices. We adopt a worst-case view in that we aim at bounds that are independent of the starting vertex and of all lists present in the model. This suggests the following definitions.

**Definition 2.1.** Let \( G = (V,E) \) be a graph and \( s \in V \). Then by \( R_s \) we denote the random variable describing the first time \( t \) at which the random rumor spreading process started in the vertex \( s \) leads to all vertices being informed. Let \( \mathcal{R}(G) \) be the (unique) minimal integer-valued random variable that dominates all \( R_s \), i.e., for every \( s \in V \) and \( t \in \mathbb{N} \) it holds that

\[
\Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) \geq t] \geq \Pr[R_s \geq t].
\]

We call \( \mathcal{R}(G) \) the broadcast time of the randomized rumor spreading protocol on the graph \( G \).^1

Let \( \mathcal{L} = (\pi_v)_{v \in V} \) be a family of lists. By \( Q_{\mathcal{L},s} \) we denote the (random) first time that the quasirandom rumor spreading protocol with lists \( \mathcal{L} \) started in \( s \) succeeds in informing all vertices. Let \( \mathcal{Q}(G) \) be the (unique) minimal integer valued random variable that dominates all \( Q_{\mathcal{L},s} \), i.e., for every family of lists \( \mathcal{L} \), every \( s \in V \) and \( t \in \mathbb{N} \) it holds that

\[
\Pr[\mathcal{Q}(G) \geq t] \geq \Pr[Q_{\mathcal{L},s} \geq t].
\]

We call \( \mathcal{Q}(G) \) the broadcast time of the quasirandom rumor spreading protocol on the graph \( G \).

^1In order to see that \( \mathcal{R}(G) \) is well-defined, note that for every \( t \) there exists one vertex \( s = s(t) \) such that \( \Pr[R_{s(t)} \geq t] \) is maximized. Then we let \( \mathcal{R}(G) \) satisfy \( \Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) \geq t] = \Pr[R_{s(t)} \geq t] \). Doing this for all integers \( t \in \mathbb{N} \) yields a sequence \( \{\Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) \geq t] : t \in \mathbb{N}\} \) of non-increasing values in \([0,1]\). Hence, \( \Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) = t] := \Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) \geq t] - \Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) \geq t + 1] \) completes the definition of \( \mathcal{R}(G) \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graph class</th>
<th>Broadcast time</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fully random model</td>
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<tr>
<td>all graphs</td>
<td>( O(\Delta(diam(G) + \log n)) ) [31]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete k-ary trees</td>
<td>( \Theta(k \log n) ) (Thm. 4.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypercubes</td>
<td>( \Theta(\log n) ) [31]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete graphs</td>
<td>( \Theta(\log n) ) [38, 53]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ramanujan</td>
<td>( \Theta(\log n) ) [39]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost all random graphs</td>
<td>( \Theta(\log^2 n) ) [31, Thm. 4.1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost all random graphs G(n,p)</td>
<td>( \Theta(\log n) ) [31]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p_n = \log n + o(1) )</td>
<td>( \Theta(\log n) ) [31]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p_n = c \log n, c &gt; 1 )</td>
<td>( \Theta(\log n) ) [31]</td>
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</table>
In the analysis it will often be convenient to assume that after receiving the rumor, a vertex does not pass it on for a certain number of time steps (delaying). Also, it will be helpful to ignore all messages that certain vertices send out from a certain time onward (ignoring). Since we assumed all random decisions done by the vertices before the start of the protocol (ever-rolling list assumption), an easy induction shows that any delaying and ignoring assumptions (possibly even relying on the random choices done by the vertices which have not been active yet) for each vertex can only increase the round in which it becomes informed. In consequence, these assumptions can only increase the time needed to inform all vertices. More precisely, the random variable describing the broadcast time of any model with delaying and ignoring assumptions dominates the original one (see Definition A.3 for the precise definition of stochastic domination).

**Lemma 2.2.** For all possible delaying and ignoring assumptions, the random variable describing the broadcast time of the quasirandom model with these assumptions is stochastically larger than the broadcast time of the true quasirandom model.

We use both delaying and ignoring to reduce the number of dependencies in the analysis. We do this by splitting the analysis into phases. All vertices that receive the rumor within this phase (newly informed vertices) are assumed to delay their actions until the beginning of the next phase. From this next phase on, all messages from vertices that previously sent out messages are ignored. Thus, we start each phase with only newly informed vertices acting. Since they have not actively participated in the rumor spreading process, the first neighbors to which they send the rumor are chosen independently.

We will also need chains of contacting vertices. That is, we say a vertex \( u_1 \in V \) reaches another vertex \( u_m \in V \) within the time interval \([a, b]\), if there is a path \((u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)\) in \( G \) and \( t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_{m-1} \in [a, b] \) such that for all \( j \in [1, m-1] \), \( u_j^{t_{j-1}}(i_{u_j}) = u_{j+1} \). For a vertex \( w \in V \), we denote by \( U_{[a,b]}(w) \) the set of vertices that reach \( w \) within the time interval \([a, b]\).

**Other Notation**

Throughout the paper, we use the following graph-theoretical notation. For a vertex \( v \) of a graph \( G = (V, E) \), let \( \Gamma(v) := \{ u \in V : \{u,v\} \in E \} \) be the set of its neighbors and \( \deg(v) := |\Gamma(v)| \) its degree. For any \( S \subseteq V \), let \( \deg_S(v) := |\Gamma(v) \cap S| \). For any \( S_1, S_2 \subseteq V \), let \( E(S_1, S_2) := \{ (u,v) \in E : u \in S_1 \land v \in S_2 \} \). Let \( \delta := \min_{v \in V} \deg(v) \) be the minimum degree, \( d := 2|E|/n \) the average degree, and \( \Delta := \max_{v \in V} \deg(v) \) the maximum degree. The distance \( \text{dist}(x,y) \) between vertices \( x \) and \( y \) is the length of a shortest path from \( x \) to \( y \). The diameter \( \text{diam}(G) \) of a connected graph \( G \) is the largest distance between two vertices in \( G \). We will also use \( \Gamma^k(u) := \{ v \in V : \text{dist}(u, v) = k \} \) and \( \Gamma^{\leq k}(u) := \{ v \in V : \text{dist}(u, v) \leq k \} \). For sets \( S \) we define \( \Gamma(S) := \{ v \in V : \exists u \in S, \{u,v\} \in E \} \) as the set of neighbors of \( S \). The complement of a set \( S \) is denoted \( S^c := V \setminus S \).

All logarithms \( \log n \) are natural logarithms to the base \( e \). As we are only interested in the asymptotic behavior, we will sometimes assume that \( n \) is sufficiently large.

### 3 Quasirandom Rumor Spreading on General Graphs

In this section, we prove two bounds for the broadcast time valid for all graphs. The corresponding upper bounds for the fully random model are \( O(\Delta \cdot (\text{diam}(G) + \log n)) \) and \( 12n \log n \), both satisfied with probability \( 1 - 1/n \) [31].

**Theorem 3.1.** For any graph \( G = (V, E) \), the broadcast time of the quasirandom model is at most

1. \( \Delta \cdot \text{diam}(G) \) with probability 1, and
2. \( 2n - 3 \) with probability 1.

**Proof.** Let \( u \) be the vertex initially informed.
Let \( v \in V \) and \( P = (u = u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_\ell = v) \) be a shortest path from \( u \) to \( v \). Clearly for all \( i \leq \ell \), \( u_i \) becomes informed at most \( \deg (u_{i-1}) \leq \Delta \) time-steps after \( u_{i-1} \) became informed. Claim (i) follows.

To prove claim (ii), again let \( v \in V \) and let \( P = (u = u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_\ell = v) \) be a shortest path from \( u \) to \( v \). Let \( w \) be a vertex not lying on \( P \). Then, as observed already in [31], \( w \) has at most three neighbors on \( P \), and these are contained in \( \{ u_{i-1}, u_i, u_{i+1} \} \) for some \( i < \ell \). If \( w \) has exactly three neighbors \( u_{i-1}, u_i, u_{i+1} \) on \( P \), we call it a counterfeit of \( u_i \) (as \( u_i \) and \( w \) have, apart from each other, the same neighbors on \( P \)). Denote by \( C(u_i) \) the set of counterfeits of \( u_i \). Without loss of generality, we may choose \( P \) in such a way that for all \( i < \ell \), \( u_i \) is informed no later than any if its counterfeits.

Note also that any vertex \( u_i \) on the path has only \( u_{i-1} \) and \( u_{i+1} \) (if existent) as neighbors on the path.

Let \( t_i \) denote the time that vertex \( u_i \) becomes informed. Then, \( t_0 = 0 \). By definition of our algorithm and choice of \( P \), we have \( t_1 \leq t_0 + |\Gamma (u_0) \setminus (C(u_1))| = t_0 + |\Gamma (u_0) \setminus P| + 1 - |C(u_1)| \). For \( 2 \leq i \leq \ell - 1 \), similarly, we have \( t_i \leq t_{i-1} + |\Gamma (u_{i-1}) \setminus (C(u_i))| = t_{i-1} + |\Gamma (u_{i-1}) \setminus P| + 2 - |C(u_i)| \). Finally, \( t_\ell \leq t_{\ell-1} + |\Gamma (u_{\ell-1}) \setminus P| + 2 \). We conclude

\[
t_\ell \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} |\Gamma V (u_i) \setminus P| - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} |C(u_i)| + 2\ell - 1.
\]

Now each vertex \( w \) not lying on \( P \) can contribute at most 2 to the above expression (if it has three neighbors on \( P \), then it is also a counterfeit). Hence \( t_\ell \leq 2(n - \ell - 1) + 2\ell - 1 = 2n - 3 \). \( \square \)

It is easy to verify that for a path of length \( n - 1 \) there are lists and initial vertices such that \( 2n - 3 \) rounds are needed. Hence the second bound is tight. The first bound is matched by \( k \)-ary trees (up to constant factors), as shown in Section 4.3, where we also demonstrate that the quasirandom model is faster than the fully random one on these graphs.

## 4 Graph Classes

Our results cover hypercubes, many expander graphs, random regular graphs, and Erdős-Rényi random graphs. The three latter graph classes have three properties in common, to which we will refer as “expanding”. This allows us to examine the quasirandom rumor spreading on them from a higher level just using these three properties defined in the following Section 4.1.

### 4.1 Expanding Graphs

In order to analyze our quasirandom rumor spreading model for a larger class of graphs at once, we distill three simple properties of graphs which are satisfied by several common graph classes. Given these three properties, we can later prove in Theorem 5.1 that quasirandom rumor spreading successfully informs all vertices in a logarithmic runtime. Roughly speaking, these properties concern the vertex expansion of not too large subsets (P1), the edge expansion (P2) and the regularity of the graph (P3).

**Definition 4.1** (expanding graphs). We call a connected graph expanding if the following properties hold:

- (P1) For any constant \( C_\alpha \) with \( 0 < C_\alpha \leq d/2 \) there is a constant \( C_\beta \in (0, 1) \) such that for any connected subset \( S \subseteq V \) with \( 3 \leq |S| \leq C_\alpha (n/d) \), it holds that \( |\Gamma (S) \setminus S| \geq C_\beta d |S| \).

- (P2) There are constants \( C_\delta \in (0, 1) \) and \( C_\omega > 0 \) such that for any subset \( S \subseteq V \), the number of vertices in \( S^c \) which have at least \( C_\delta d(|S|/n) \) neighbors in \( S \) is at least \( |S^c| - \frac{C_\omega n^2}{d |S|} \).
(P3) \( d = \Omega(\Delta) \) and if \( d = \omega(\log n) \), then also \( d = O(\delta) \).

We will now describe the properties in detail and argue why each of them is intrinsic for the analysis. (P1) describes a vertex expansion, which means that connected sets have a neighborhood which is roughly in the order of the average degree larger than the set itself. Without this property, the broadcasting process could end up in a set with a tiny neighborhood and thereby slow down too much. Note that in (P1), \( C_\beta \) depends on \( C_\alpha \). As \( C_\alpha \) has to be a constant, the upper limit on \( C_\alpha \) only applies for constant \( d \).

(P2) is a certain edge expansion property implying that a large portion of uninform vertices has a sufficiently large number of informed neighbors. This avoids the situation where the broadcasting process stumbles upon a point when it has informed many vertices but most of the remaining uninformed vertices have very few informed neighbors and therefore only a small chance to get informed. Note that (P2) is only useful for \( |S| = \omega(n/d) \).

The last property (P3) demands a certain regularity of the graph. It is trivially fulfilled for regular graphs, which many definitions of expanders require. The condition \( d = \Omega(\Delta) \) for the case \( d = O(\log n) \) does not limit any of our graph classes below. If the average degree is at most logarithmic, (P3) implies no further restrictions. Otherwise, we require \( \delta, d \) and \( \Delta \) to be of the same order of magnitude. Without this condition, there could be an uninformed vertex with \( \delta \) informed neighbors of degree \( \omega(\delta) \) which does not get informed in logarithmic time with a good probability. With an additional factor of \( \Delta/\delta \) this could be resolved, but as we aim at a logarithmic bound, we require \( \delta = \Theta(\Delta) \) for \( d = \omega(\log n) \). Note that we do not require \( d = \omega(1) \), but the proof techniques for constant and non-constant average degrees will differ in Section 5.

We now describe several important graph classes which are expanding, i.e., satisfy all three properties of Definition 4.1, with high probability.

4.1.1 Complete Graph
It is not difficult to show that complete graphs are expanding.

**Theorem 4.2.** Complete graphs are expanding.

**Proof.** We first prove that (P1) holds. Let \( C_\alpha \) be an arbitrary constant. Take any subset \( S \subseteq V \) with \( 3 \leq |S| \leq C_\alpha n/(n-1) \). Then

\[
|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| = n - |S| \geq |S| (n-1) \frac{n-|S|}{|S| n} = |S| (n-1) \left( \frac{1}{|S|} - \frac{1}{n} \right),
\]

so (P1) holds with \( C_\beta = \frac{1}{|S|} - \frac{1}{n} \geq \frac{n-1}{C_\alpha n} - \frac{1}{n} > 0 \). We now show that (P2) holds. Let \( C_5 \in (0,1) \) be an arbitrary constant. Take any subset \( S \subseteq V \). Then every vertex \( v \in S^c \) has exactly \( |S| \geq C_5 d(|S|/n) \) neighbors in \( S \) which implies that (P2) is satisfied.

Property (P3) is trivially fulfilled, as a complete graph is regular. \( \square \)

4.1.2 Random Graphs \( G(n,p) \), \( p \geq (\log n + \omega(1))/n \)

In this section we show that a large class of random graphs is expanding with probability \( 1 - o(1) \). We use the popular random graph model \( G(n,p) \), where between each two vertices out of a set of \( n \) vertices an edge is present independently with probability \( p \). This model is usually called the Erdős-Rényi random graph model.

We distinguish two kinds of random graphs with slightly different properties:

**Definition 4.3** (sparse and dense random graph). We call a random graph \( G(n,p) \) sparse if \( p = (\log n + f_n)/n \) with \( f_n = \omega(1) \) and \( f_n = O(\log n) \), and dense if \( p = \omega(\log(n)/n) \).

Note that our definition of a sparse random graph coincides with the one of Cooper and Frieze [14] who set \( p = c_n \log(n)/n \) with \((c_n-1)\log n = \omega(1) \) and \( c_n = O(1) \). In the remainder of this section we prove the following theorem.

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Theorem 4.4. Sparse and dense random graphs are expanding with probability $1 - o(1)$.

The proof can be skipped at a first reading of the paper, since the following sections do not depend on the proven results of this section.

Proof. Note that for random graphs, $d = p(n - 1)(1 \pm o(1))$ holds with probability $1 - n^{-1}$. To simplify the presentation of the proof we will ignore the factor $(1 \pm o(1))$ as we do not try to optimize the used constants.

The easiest property to check is (P3). That $d = \Omega(n)$ holds with probability $1 - o(1)$ is a well-known property of random graphs and can be shown by union and Chernoff bounds (cf. Lemma A.1) as follows:

$$\Pr[\Delta \geq 5d] = \Pr[\exists v \in V: \deg(v) \geq 5d] \leq n \exp(-4d/3) = o(1).$$

Analogously for $d = \omega(\log n)$,

$$\Pr[\delta \leq d/2] = \Pr[\exists v \in V: \deg(v) \leq d/2] \leq n \exp(-d/8) = o(1).$$

For the proof of (P2) it suffices to bound the number of neighbors of a set by Chernoff bounds. The following lemma does this for sparse and dense random graphs at once.

Lemma 4.5. Sparse and dense random graphs satisfy (P2) with probability $1 - o(1)$.

Proof. We choose $C_{\delta} = 1/2$ and $C_{\omega} = 32$. Consider a set $S \subseteq V$ of arbitrary size $|S| = s$. We want to show that the number of vertices in $S^c$ which have at least $C_{\delta}ds/n$ neighbors in $S$ is at least $|S^c| - C_{\omega}n^2/\omega ds$.

Fix a vertex $v \in S^c$. Linearity of expectations implies $E[\deg_S(v)] = \sum_{u \in S} p = ps$. Hence a Chernoff bound (Lemma A.1) gives

$$\Pr[\deg_S(v) \leq (1/2) E[\deg_S(v)]] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{ds}{8n}\right).$$

Hence the probability for the existence of a subset of vertices in $S^c$ of size $C_{\omega}n^2/(ds)$ being bad, i.e., the set has more than $C_{\omega}n^2/\omega ds$ vertices with less than $C_{\delta}ds/n$ neighbors in $S$, can be bounded by

$$\left(\frac{n-s}{C_{\omega}n^2/\omega ds}\right)^{C_{\omega}n^2/(ds)} \exp\left(-\frac{ds}{8n}\right) \leq 2^n \exp(-4n).$$

Taking the union bound over all possible sets $S$, we obtain

$$\Pr[\exists \text{bad } S] \leq 2^n \cdot 2^n \exp(-4n) \leq \left(\frac{4}{e^4}\right)^n. \quad \square$$

We now turn to (P1). We first prove that (P1) holds for dense random graphs. After that we extend it to sparse random graphs, which requires slightly more involved arguments.

Lemma 4.6. Dense random graphs satisfy (P1) with probability $1 - o(1)$.

Proof. Let $C_\alpha > 0$ be an arbitrary constant. Fix a set $S \subseteq V$ of size $s = |S|$ with $1 \leq s \leq C_\alpha(n/d)$. We show that $|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \geq C_\beta ds$ with $C_\beta := 1/(4(C_\alpha + 1))$.

The probability that a vertex $v \in S^c$ is connected to a vertex in $S$ is

$$1 - (1 - p)^s \geq 1 - \exp(-ps).$$

Linearity of expectation and using the fact that $e^{-x} \leq \frac{1}{x+1}$ for any number $x \geq 0$ gives

$$E[|\Gamma(S) \setminus S|] \geq (n-s) \left(1 - \frac{1}{ps+1}\right) = (n-o\left(\frac{n}{\log n}\right)) \frac{ps}{ps+1} \geq \frac{n}{2} \frac{ps}{C_\alpha + 1} = 2C_\beta ds.$$
Applying Chernoff bounds (Lemma A.1), we obtain

\[ \Pr[|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \leq C_\delta ds] \leq \exp(-C_\delta ds/4). \]

It remains to show that this holds for all sets \( S \). First, taking a union bound over all sets of size \( s \), we obtain

\[ \Pr[\exists S \subseteq V: |S| = s, |\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \leq C_\delta ds] \leq n^s \exp(-C_\delta ds/4) \leq n^{-\omega(1)}, \]

where the last inequality uses the assumption \( d = \omega(\log n) \). Finally, a union bound over all possible values of \( s \) yields

\[ \Pr[\exists S \subseteq V: |\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \leq C_\delta ds] \leq \sum_{s=1}^n n^{-\omega(1)} = n^{-\omega(1)}. \]

We now consider sparse random graphs. For this, we need the following three technical lemmas. The first one proves a slightly stronger bound compared to the original lemma in [14, Property P2].

**Lemma 4.7.** Sparse random graphs satisfy with probability \( 1 - o(1) \) that for every subset \( S \subseteq V \) of size \( s = \mathcal{O}(n/d) \) it holds that \( |E(S, S)| = o(s \log n) \).

**Proof.** We assume without loss of generality \( S \neq \emptyset \). We bound the probability for the existence of a set \( S \) of size \( s \) with \( |E(S, S)| \geq s \frac{\log n}{\sqrt{\log n}} \) as follows:

\[
\Pr \left[ \exists S: |E(S, S)| \geq s \frac{\log n}{\sqrt{\log n}} \right] \\
\leq \binom{n}{s} \left( \frac{s}{\log n} \right)^{\frac{s}{\sqrt{\log n}}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{s} \\
\leq n^s \left( \frac{s^2 e}{\frac{s}{\log n} \sqrt{\log n}} \right)^{\frac{s}{\sqrt{\log n}}} p^{\frac{s}{\sqrt{\log n}}} = n^s \left( \frac{s e p \sqrt{\log n}}{\log n} \right)^{s \frac{\log n}{\sqrt{\log n}}} \\
= \exp \left( -s \left( \frac{\log n}{\sqrt{\log n}} \log \left( \frac{\log n}{s e p \sqrt{\log n}} \right) \right) \right) \\
\leq \exp \left( -\Omega(\log n \sqrt{\log n} - \log n) \right) \\
= n^{-\omega(1)},
\]

where in the third inequality we used that \( s = \mathcal{O}(n/d) \) and \( p = \Theta(d/n) \) together imply that \( s e p = \Theta(1) \). Taking the union bound over all values of \( s \) completes the proof. \( \square \)

It is known that in very sparse random graphs, vertices with small degree are rare and far away. To prove (P1) we need the following statement.

**Lemma 4.8.** Sparse and dense random graphs satisfy with probability \( 1 - o(1) \) that no two vertices of degree at most \( d/50 \) are within distance at most 3.

**Proof.** We will prove a slightly stronger statement, that is, there are no two vertices of degree at most \( d/50 \) within distance at most \( \log(n)/(\log \log n)^2 \) with probability \( 1 - o(1) \).

For \( d \leq 2.5 \log n \) we use property P2 of Lemma 1 of Cooper and Frieze [14] which states that no two vertices of degree at most \( \log n/20 \) are within distance at most \( \log(n)/(\log \log n)^2 \) with probability \( 1 - o(1) \).

For \( d \geq 2.5 \log n \) we calculate by Chernoff bounds that the probability that an arbitrary vertex has at most \( d/50 \) neighbors is \( \exp((-49^2 d)/(2 \cdot 50^2)) \leq n^{-1.2} \). Therefore the probability that there exists a vertex with at most \( d/50 \) neighbors is \( n \cdot n^{-1.2} = o(1) \) and the claim is satisfied. \( \square \)
We also need the following simple graph-theoretical lemma. We shall use it later with \( d \) being the average degree, but it holds for \( d \) being an arbitrary number.

**Lemma 4.9.** Let \( d \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( G \) be a graph where no two vertices of degree at most \( d/50 \) are within distance at most 2. Then for any connected \( S \subseteq V \) having at least two vertices, \( \sum_{v \in S} \deg(v) \geq (d/100)|S| \).

**Proof.** Call a vertex *small* if it has degree less than \( d/50 \), otherwise we call it *big*. Let \( T \) be a spanning tree of \( S \). Let \( x \) be any vertex in \( S \) that is not small, i.e., big. For any small vertex \( u \in S \), let \( \pi(u) \) be the unique neighbor of \( u \) that is on the unique path from \( u \) to \( x \) in \( T \). Since two small vertices have distance at least three, \( \pi(u) \) is big, and for different small vertices \( u_1, u_2 \), we have \( \pi(u_1) \neq \pi(u_2) \). Hence \( \pi \) is an injective mapping of small vertices into big vertices. In consequence, \( S \) contains at least \( |S|/2 \) big vertices. Hence \( \sum_{v \in S} \deg(v) \geq (|S|/2)(d/50) = (d/100)|S| \). \( \square \)

Using all three above lemmas, we prove (P1) for sparse graphs.

**Lemma 4.10.** Sparse random graphs satisfy (P1) with probability \( 1-o(1) \).

**Proof.** To prove (P1), let \( C_\alpha > 0 \) be an arbitrary constant and let \( S \subseteq V \) with \( s = |S| \) be a subset with

- \( 3 \leq s \leq C_\alpha \frac{n}{d} \),
- \( |E(S, S)| = o(s \log n) \), and
- \( \sum_{v \in S} \deg(v) \geq s \frac{d}{1000} \).

The last two conditions follow from Lemmas 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9. We show that \( |\Gamma(S) \setminus S| > C_\beta ds \) with \( C_\beta = \min\{1/200, e^{-500}/C_\alpha\} \).

We may assume that all \( \sum_{v \in S} \deg(v) - o(s \log n) \) outgoing edges from \( S \) hit a uniformly chosen vertex among \( V \setminus S \). This is a valid assumption as it may only lead to an underestimation of the number of outgoing edges since a vertex in \( S \) may actually only hit the same vertex once. We call a set \( S \) of size \( s \) *bad* if \( |\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \leq C_\beta ds \). We compute

\[
\Pr[\exists \text{ bad set } S \text{ with } |S| = s] \leq \left( \frac{n}{s} \right) \left( \frac{n-s}{C_\beta ds} \right) \sum_{v \in S} \deg(v) - o(s \log n) \\
\leq \left( \frac{en}{s} \right)^s \left( \frac{en}{C_\beta ds} \right)^{C_\beta ds} \left( \frac{C_\beta ds}{n} \right)^{ds/110} \\
= \left( \frac{en}{s} \right)^s e^{C_\beta ds} \left( \frac{C_\beta ds}{n} \right)^{ds/1100} \left( \frac{C_\beta ds}{n} \right)^{ds/250}.
\]

Plugging in the definition of \( s \) and \( C_\beta \), we observe that the two middle terms of the last expression can together be upper-bounded by 1 since

\[
e^{11000} C_\beta \left( \frac{C_\beta ds}{n} \right) \leq e^{11000} C_\beta C_\alpha \leq e^{11000/200} e^{-500} = e^{-445} < 1.
\]
Hence,

\[
\Pr[\exists \text{bad set } S \text{ with } |S| = s] \leq \left(\frac{en}{s}\right)^s \left(\frac{C_\beta ds}{n}\right)^{ds/250}
= \exp\left(-s \left(\frac{d}{250} \log \left(\frac{n}{C_\beta ds}\right) - \log \left(\frac{en}{s}\right)\right)\right)
\leq \exp\left(-3 \left(\frac{\log n}{250} \log \left(\frac{1}{C_\alpha C_\beta}\right) - \log \left(\frac{en}{3}\right)\right)\right)
\leq n^{-3},
\]

where the second last inequality holds due to our assumptions on \(s, d \geq \log n\) and \(C_\beta \leq e^{-500/C_\alpha}\).

A union bound over all values for \(s\) proves the claim of Lemma 4.10.

This proves that sparse and dense random graphs satisfy all three properties of expanding graphs with probability \(1 - o(1)\) and therefore also completes the proof of Theorem 4.4.

4.1.3 Strong Expander Graphs

Expander graphs (see Hoory et al. [43] for a survey) are “perfect” networks in the sense that they unite several desirable properties, such as low diameter, small degree and high connectivity. They are therefore attractive for routing [8], load balancing [55] and communication problems such as the rumor spreading task considered here.

In order to define a strong expander graph more formally, we have to introduce a bit of notation. For a \(d\)-regular graph \(G\), its adjacency matrix \(A\) is symmetric and has \(n\) real eigenvalues \(d = \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_n\). Define \(\lambda := \max\{|\lambda_2|, |\lambda_n|\}\). It is well-known that \(\lambda\) captures the expansion of \(G\) in the sense that a small \(\lambda\) implies good expansion (cf. Lemmas 4.13 and 4.14) and vice versa [43, Theorem 2.4].

Definition 4.11 (expander). We call a \(d\)-regular graph \(G = (V, E)\) a strong expander if there is a constant \(C > 0\) (independent of \(d\)) such that \(C < \sqrt{d}\) and \(\lambda(G) \leq C\sqrt{d}\).

We remark that graphs that satisfy the even stronger condition \(\lambda \leq 2\sqrt{d-1}\) are called Ramanujan graphs and the construction of such graphs has received a lot of attention (cf. Hoory et al. [43] for more details). It is known that for any \(d\)-regular graph, \(\lambda \geq 2\sqrt{d-1} - \frac{2\sqrt{d-1}-1}{nd/d}\).

Hence as \(n \to \infty\), the smallest possible value for the constant \(C\) in Definition 4.11 is \(2\sqrt{(d-1)/d}\), in particular, we may assume in the following that \(C > 1\).

We prove the following theorem, which has been used in [16].

Theorem 4.12. Strong expanders are expanding.

We first state two auxiliary lemmas that relate the second largest eigenvalue in absolute value \(\lambda\) to the expansion of \(G\).

Lemma 4.13 (from \([44, 57]\)). For any subset \(S \subseteq V\) of a \(d\)-regular graph \(G\),

\[
|\Gamma(S)| \geq \frac{d^2 |S|}{\lambda^2 + (d^2 - \lambda^2)|S|/n}.
\]

We also need the expander mixing lemma.

Lemma 4.14 (Expander Mixing Lemma, \([43, \text{Lemma 2.5}]\)). For any two subsets \(A, B \subseteq V\) of a \(d\)-regular graph \(G\), we have

\[
|E(A, B)| - \frac{d|A| \cdot |B|}{n} \leq \lambda \cdot \sqrt{|A| \cdot |B|}.
\]
We are now ready to prove Theorem 4.12 that strong expanders are expanding.

**Proof of Theorem 4.12.** (P3) is trivially satisfied as the graph is regular. We first prove (P1) and afterwards (P2).

(P1): Let $S \subseteq V$ be any set of size $s = |S| \leq C_\alpha n^2$, where $C_\alpha \leq d/2$ is an arbitrary constant. Consider first the case $d = \omega(1)$. Then using Lemma 4.13 and $\lambda \leq C\sqrt{d}$ gives

$$|\Gamma(S)| \geq \frac{d^2 s}{\lambda^2 + (d^2 - \lambda^2)s/n} \geq \frac{d^2 s}{C^2 d + d^2 C_\alpha} = \frac{ds}{C^2 + C_\alpha}$$

and therefore

$$|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \geq \left(\frac{1}{C^2 + C_\alpha} - \frac{1}{d}\right) ds.$$

This proves (P1), as the factor in front of $ds$ is at least a constant (since $d = \omega(1)$).

For $d = O(1)$, we use Lemma 4.13 slightly differently to get

$$|\Gamma(S)| \geq \frac{d^2 s}{\lambda^2 + (d^2 - \lambda^2)s/n} = \frac{d^2 s}{\lambda^2 (1 - (s/n)) + d^2 (s/n)} \geq \frac{d^2 s}{C^2 d (1 - (s/n)) + d^2 (s/n)}.$$

Hence,

$$|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \geq \frac{d^2 s}{C^2 d (1 - (s/n)) + d^2 (s/n)} - s = \frac{d - C^2 (1 - (s/n)) - d(s/n)}{C^2 d (1 - (s/n)) + d^2 (s/n)} \cdot ds.$$

The denominator is bounded above by a constant, since $d = O(1)$ and $s \leq n/2$. The numerator is at least a constant, since by assumption $C$ is a constant that is strictly smaller than $\sqrt{d}$. This proves (P1).

(P2): We may assume that $|S| \geq \left\lceil \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds}\right\rceil$, as otherwise $|S| = O\left(\frac{n^2}{ds}\right)$, and (P2) holds trivially by choosing the constant $C_\omega$ sufficiently large, for instance, $C_\omega := 10 \cdot \max\{C^2, 1\}$. Let us now order the vertices in $S^c$ according to the number of neighbors in $S$ in decreasing order. Let $N^-$ be the last $\left\lceil \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds}\right\rceil$ vertices in that list, i.e., the $\left\lceil \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds}\right\rceil$ vertices with the least number of neighbors in $S$ and let $N^+ := S^c \setminus N^-$ be the remaining set of vertices in $S^c$. Observing that $\left\lceil \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds}\right\rceil \leq \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds}$ (since $ds \leq n^2$ and $C \geq 1$) and applying Lemma 4.14, we obtain

$$|E(S, N^-)| \geq d \frac{|S||N^-|}{n} - \lambda\sqrt{|S||N^-|}$$

$$\geq d s \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds} - C\sqrt{d} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds}} = 4C^2 n - \sqrt{6} \cdot C^2 n \geq C^2 n.$$

This implies that the average number of neighbors in $S$ of vertices in $N^-$ is at least

$$\frac{C^2 n}{\gamma \left\lceil \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds}\right\rceil} \geq \frac{ds}{6n},$$

and all vertices $N^+$ must have at least this degree. Hence we have shown that for every subset $S$, at least $|S| - |N^-| \geq n - s - \frac{3}{2} \cdot \gamma \frac{4n^2C^2}{ds} \geq n - s - 6n^2C^2$ vertices in $S^c$ have at least $ds/(6n)$ neighbors in $S$ and property (P2) follows with $C_d = 1/6$ and $C_\omega = 6C^2 > 0$. □
4.1.4 Random Graphs with Fixed Degree Sequence

Definition 4.15 (random graph with fixed degree sequence). Let \(d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n\) be a degree sequence with maximum degree \(\Delta = o(\sqrt{n})\) and \(\Delta/\delta = \mathcal{O}(1)\). Then a random graph with this degree sequence is chosen uniformly at random from the set of all simple graphs with this degree sequence.

Note that a random \(d\)-regular graph is a random graph with fixed degree sequence \(d_1 = d_2 = \cdots = d_n = d\). Random regular graphs have gained increasing interest in the context of peer-to-peer networks, e.g., they appear quite naturally as a limiting distribution of certain graph transformations \([15, 48]\).

For a random graph with fixed degree sequence as defined above, Broder et al. \([9, \text{Lemma 18}]\) showed that \(\lambda = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{d})\) with probability \(1 - \mathcal{O}(n^{-\text{poly}(n)})\) and hence gave the following theorem.

Theorem 4.16. A random graph with fixed degree sequence is expanding with probability \(1 - o(1)\).

4.2 Hypercubes

We now recall the definition of hypercubes.

Definition 4.17 (Hypercube). For any \(d\), a \(d\)-dimensional hypercube \(H = (V, E)\) has \(n = 2^d\) vertices \(V = \{0, 1\}^d\) and edges \(E = \{(u, v) : \|u - v\|_1 = 1\}\).

The \(i\)-th bit of a bitstring \(x \in \{0, 1\}^d\) will be denoted as \(x[i]\). We observe that the hypercube is not expanding.

Theorem 4.18. Hypercubes are not expanding.

Proof. Define \(S := \bigcup_{i=1}^{\log d} L_i\), where \(L_i\) is the set of vertices \(x\) with \(\|x\|_1 = i\). Then \(3 \leq |S| = o(n/\log n)\) and

\[
|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| = |L_{\log(d)+1}| = \left(\frac{d}{\log(d) + 1}\right) = \frac{d - \log d}{\log(d) + 1} \left(\frac{d}{\log d}\right) \leq \frac{d}{\log(d) + 1} |S| = o(d |S|),
\]

which violates (P1).

Hence a separate analysis is needed, and this is given in Section 7.

4.3 \(k\)-ary Trees

For complete \(k\)-ary trees \((k \geq 2)\) it is easy to verify that they are not expanding.

Lemma 4.19. \(k\)-ary trees are not expanding.

Proof. Consider a \(k\)-ary tree and let \(C_\alpha = 1/2\) and \(S\) be the set of vertices which are in the subtree of a fixed children of the root. Then \(|S| \leq (n - 1)/k \leq n/2 \leq C_\alpha (n/d)\), but \(|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| = 1\) violating (P1).

However, it is also not difficult to show the following theorem.

Theorem 4.20. For complete \(k\)-ary trees, the broadcast time of the quasirandom model is \(\mathcal{O}(k \log(n)/\log k)\) with probability 1, while the expected broadcast time of the fully random model is \(\Omega(k \log n)\).

Proof. As a \(k\)-ary tree has a diameter of \(\Theta(\log(n)/\log k)\) and maximum degree of \(k + 1\), plugging these values into the bound of Theorem 3.1, we obtain the first claim.

To see the lower bound for the fully random model, define a path \(P\) of length \(\text{diam}(G)/2\) inductively as follows. Assume that the root \(u_0\) is initially informed. Then let \(P = (u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_i)\) for \(1 \leq i \leq \text{diam}(G)/2\), where \(u_i\) is the vertex which is the last one informed by \(u_{i-1}\). By the coupon collector’s problem, the expected time it takes for \(u_i\) to inform \(u_{i-1}\) is at least \(k \log k\) and therefore, the expected time to inform \(u_{\text{diam}(G)/2 - 1}\) is at least \(\Omega(\text{diam}(G) k \log k) = \Omega(k \log n)\).
5 Quasirandom Rumor Spreading on Expanding Graphs

In this section, we prove our main result that quasirandom rumor spreading informs all vertices in an expanding graph in a logarithmic number of rounds.

**Theorem 5.1.** Let $\gamma \geq 1$ be a constant. The broadcast time of the quasirandom model on expanding graphs is $O(\log n)$ with probability $1 - O(n^{-\gamma})$.

To analyze the propagation process, we decompose it into a forward part (Sections 5.1 and 5.2) and a backward part (Sections 5.3 and 5.4). In the analysis of the forward part, we show that if a vertex is informed at some time, then $O(\log n)$ steps later, only $O(n/d)$ vertices remain uninformed (cf. Theorem 5.2). In the analysis of the backward part, we show that if a vertex is uninformed at some time, then $O(\log n)$ steps earlier, at least $\omega(n/d)$ vertices must be uninformed as well (cf. Theorem 5.7). Combining both yields Theorem 5.1.

We show that all this holds with probability $1 - n - \gamma$ for an arbitrary $\gamma \geq 1$. As Theorem 5.1 is considerably easier to show for $d = O(1)$, we handle this case separately in Section 5.5 and now concentrate on the case $d = \omega(1)$. This makes the proofs of the lemmas of this section slightly shorter. Therefore in this section, apart from the last subsection, we may use the following adjusted property:

(P3') $\quad d = \omega(1)$ and $d = \Omega(\Delta)$. If $d = \omega(\log n)$ then $d = O(\delta)$.

As the precise constants will be crucial in parts of the following proofs, we use the following notation. Constants with a lowercase Greek letter index (e.g., $C_\alpha$ and $C_\beta$) stem from Definition 4.1. Constants without an index or with a numbered index (e.g., $C$ and $C_1$) are local constants in lemmas. $K$ is used to denote a number of time steps.

### 5.1 Forward Analysis

In this section we prove the following theorem.

**Theorem 5.2.** Let $\gamma \geq 1$ be a constant. The probability that the quasirandom model started in a fixed vertex $u$ informs $n - O(n/d)$ vertices within $O(\log n)$ rounds is at least $1 - n^{-\gamma}$.

In our analysis we use the following two notations for sets of informed vertices. Let $I_t$ be the set of vertices that know the rumor after the $t$-th step. Let $N_t \subseteq I_t$ be the set of “newly informed” vertices, that is, those which know the rumor after the $t$-th step, but have not spread this information yet. The latter set will be especially important as these are the vertices which have preserved their independent random choice.

Each of the following Lemmas 5.3–5.6 examines one phase consisting of several steps. Within each phase, we will only consider information spread from vertices that became informed in the previous phase. This is justified by Lemma 2.2.

Let $u$ be (newly) informed at time step 0. To get a sufficiently large set of newly informed vertices to start with, we first show how to obtain a set $N_t$ of size $\Theta(\log n)$ within $t = O(\log n)$ steps. This is simple if $d = \omega(\log n)$—after $c \log n$ rounds, the first vertex has informed exactly $c \log n$ new vertices. Otherwise, we use the fact that (P1) implies that the neighborhoods $\Gamma^k(u)$ grow exponentially with $k$. Since within $\Delta$ steps, $\Gamma^k(u)$ becomes informed if $\Gamma^{k-1}(u)$ was informed beforehand, this yields the claim in this case. The precise statement is as follows.

**Lemma 5.3.** Let $C > 0$ be an arbitrary constant. Then with probability 1 there is a time step $t = O(\log n)$ such that

- $|N_t| \geq C \log n$ and
- $|I_t \setminus N_t| = o(|N_t|)$.
The proof of Lemma 5.3 and all following lemmas can be found in Section 5.2. We now assume that we have a set $N_t$ of size $\Omega(\log n)$. We aim at informing $\Omega(\frac{n}{d})$ vertices. For the very dense case of $d = \Omega(n/\log n)$ this is a trivial statement. Note that in the following argument we can always assume that we have not informed too many vertices as the number of informed vertices can at most double in each time step. The following lemma shows that given a set of informed vertices matching the conditions of (P1), within a constant number of steps the set of informed vertices increases by a factor strictly larger than one.

**Lemma 5.4.** For any constants $\gamma \geq 1$ and $C_\alpha > 0$ there are constants $K \geq 1$, $C_1 > 1$, $C_2 > 1$, and $C_3 \in (3/4, 1)$ such that for all time steps $t$, if

- $C_1 \log n \leq |I_t| \leq C_\alpha \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$ and
- $|N_t| \geq C_3 |I_t|$,

then with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$,

- $|I_{t+K}| \geq C_2 |I_t|$ and
- $|N_{t+K}| \geq C_3 |I_{t+K}|$.

As the precondition of the next Lemma 5.5 is $|I_t| \geq 16 C_\omega (n/d)$, let $C_\alpha = 16 C_\omega$. Then Lemma 5.4 yields a constant $C_2 > 1$ such that applying this lemma at most $\log_{C_2} (16 C_\omega (n/d)) = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ times leads to at least $16 C_\omega (n/d)$ informed vertices, a constant fraction of which is newly informed.

The next aim is informing a linear number of vertices. Note that as long as that is not achieved, (P2) implies that there is a large set of uninformed vertices which have many neighbors in $N_t$. This is the main ingredient of the following Lemma 5.5. It shows that under these conditions, a phase of a constant number of steps suffices to triple the number of informed vertices.

**Lemma 5.5.** For any constant $\gamma \geq 1$ there are constants $K \geq 1$, $C > 1$, and $C_\omega > 0$ such that for all time steps $t$, if

- $\max\{C \log n, 16 C_\omega (n/d)\} \leq |I_t| \leq n/16$ and
- $|N_t| \geq (3/4) |I_t|$,

then with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$,

- $|I_{t+K}| \geq 3 |I_t|$ and
- $|N_{t+K}| \geq (3/4) |I_{t+K}|$.

Applying Lemma 5.5 at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ times, a linear fraction of the vertices gets informed. In a final phase of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ steps, one can then inform all but $\mathcal{O}(n/d)$ vertices as shown in the following Lemma 5.6.

**Lemma 5.6.** For any constants $\gamma \geq 1$ and $C > 0$ there is a $K = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ such that for all time steps $t$, if

- $|N_t| \geq C n$,

then with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$,

- $|I_{t+K}| = n - \mathcal{O}(n/d)$.

Combining all above phases, a union bound gives $|I_{\mathcal{O}(\log n)}| = n - \mathcal{O}(n/d)$ with probability $1 - \mathcal{O}(\log(n) n^{-\gamma})$. As $\gamma$ was arbitrary in all lemmas, Theorem 5.2 follows.
5.2 Proofs of the Lemmas Used in the Forward Analysis

Proof of Lemma 5.3. Let \(u\) be informed at time step 0. If \(d = \omega(\log n)\), then by (P3) \(\delta = \Theta(d)\) and a single phase of \(C \log n\) rounds suffices, that is, we have \(N_{C \log n} = C \log n\), and the lemma follows.

We now describe how to obtain \(C \log n\) newly informed vertices for \(d = \Theta(\log n)\). For this, we choose a \(C_\alpha\) such that \(C_\alpha n/d \geq C \log n\) and get, by (P1) for \(k \geq 3\), as long as \(|\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)| = \Theta(\log n/d)\),

\[
|\Gamma^{\leq k+1}(v)| = |\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)| + |\Gamma^{k+1}(v)| = |\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)| + |\Gamma(\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)) \setminus \Gamma^{\leq k}(v)| \\
\geq (1 + C_\beta d) |\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)|. \tag{1}
\]

Subtracting \(|\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)|\) on both sides yields

\[
|\Gamma^{k+1}(v)| \geq C_\beta d |\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)|.
\]

As \(|\Gamma^{\leq 3}(v)| \geq 3\), by induction,

\[
|\Gamma^k(v)| \geq 3(C_\beta d)^{k-3}
\]

for all \(k \geq 3\) and \(|\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)\| \leq C \log n\). Therefore we can choose a \(k = \Theta(\log \log n/\log d)\) such that \(|\Gamma^k(v)| \geq C \log n\).

We use the delaying and ignoring assumption (cf. Lemma 2.2) to perform \(k\) phases of \(\Delta\) rounds each. Then after these \(t = \Delta k = \Theta(\Delta (\log \log n)/\log d) = \Theta(\log n)\) steps (as \(\Delta = \Theta(d)\) by (P3) and \(d/\log d = \Theta(\log(n)/\log \log n)\)) all vertices in \(\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)\) get informed, but no vertex of \(\Gamma^k(v)\) has been informed. In consequence, we have

\[
|N_t| = |\Gamma^k(v)| \geq C \log n, \tag{2}
\]

\[
|I_t \setminus N_t| = |\Gamma^{\leq k-1}(v)| \leq |\Gamma^k(v)|/(C_\beta d) = o(|N_t|),
\]

where the last equation stems from (P3').

Proof of Lemma 5.4. We choose the following constants:

\[
C_1 := \frac{8 \gamma \Delta^2}{\epsilon_\beta^2} > 1, \quad C_2 := \frac{4 \Delta}{c_\beta d} > 1, \\
C_3 := \left(1 - \frac{C_\beta d}{4 \Delta}\right) \in (3/4, 1), \quad K := \left[\left(\frac{4 \Delta}{c_\beta d}\right)^2\right] \geq 1,
\]

where the \(C_\beta\) is from (P1) and depends on the given \(C_\alpha\). \(K\) and \(C_1\) to \(C_3\) are all \(\Theta(1)\) by (P3). As \(I_t\) is a connected set of appropriate size, (P1) gives

\[
|\Gamma(I_t) \setminus I_t| \geq C_\beta d |I_t|. \tag{3}
\]

Since we are interested in the expansion of \(N_t\) and not of \(I_t\), we calculate

\[
|\Gamma(I_t) \setminus I_t| = \left|\left(\Gamma(I_t) \setminus N_t\right) \cup \left(\Gamma(N_t) \setminus I_t\right)\right| \\
\leq \left|\Gamma(I_t) \setminus N_t\right| \setminus I_t| + \left|\Gamma(N_t) \setminus I_t\right| \\
\leq \Delta |I_t \setminus N_t| + |\Gamma(N_t) \setminus I_t|. \tag{4}
\]

Combining equations (3) and (4) with the assumption \(|I_t \setminus N_t| \leq C_\beta d |I_t|\),

\[
|\Gamma(N_t) \setminus I_t| \geq C_\beta d |I_t| - \Delta |I_t \setminus N_t| \geq 3 C_\beta d |I_t|/4.
\]

We now perform one phase consisting of \(K\) rounds. We compute the size of the resulting sets \(I_{t+K}\) and \(N_{t+K}\) as follows.

Let \(v \in \Gamma(N_t) \setminus I_t\). Then there is a \(u \in N_t\) such that \((u, v) \in E\). The probability that \(u\) contacts \(v\) within this time interval is \(\min\{K/\deg(u), 1\} \geq K/\Delta\) (as \(\Delta = \omega(1)\) by (P3')), which
naturally is a lower bound for \( v \) becoming contacted by an arbitrary vertex of \( N_t \). By linearity of expectation, the expected number of vertices becoming contacted is at least

\[
\mathbb{E}[|N_{t+K}|] \geq K |\Gamma(N_t) \setminus I_t|/\Delta \geq 3 C_\beta K d |I_t|/(4 \Delta).
\]

As every vertex can only contact at most \( K \) vertices in this time interval, Azuma’s inequality (cf. Lemma A.2) gives a probabilistic lower bound on the number of newly informed vertices. More precisely,

\[
\Pr \left[ |N_{t+K}| \leq \frac{C_\beta K d |I_t|}{2 \Delta} \right] \leq \exp \left( -\frac{C_\beta^2 d^2 |I_t|^2}{8 \Delta^2 |N_t|} \right) \leq n^{-C_\gamma C_\beta^2 d^2/(8 \Delta^2)} = n^{-1}.
\]

It remains to check that \( |N_{t+K}| \geq \frac{C_\beta K d |I_t|}{2 \Delta} \) implies the two parts of the claim. First,

\[
|I_{t+K}| \geq |N_{t+K}| \geq \frac{C_\beta K d}{2 \Delta} |I_t| \geq \frac{4 \Delta}{C_\beta d} |I_t| = C_2 |I_t|.
\]

For the second part, observe that

\[
|N_{t+K}| \geq \frac{C_\beta K d |I_t|}{2 \Delta} \geq \frac{C_\beta K d (|I_{t+K}| - |N_{t+K}|)}{2 \Delta} = \frac{C_\beta K d}{2 \Delta} |I_{t+K}| - \frac{C_\beta K d}{2 \Delta} |N_{t+K}|.
\]

Rearranging yields

\[
|N_{t+K}| \geq \frac{C_\beta K d}{2 \Delta + C_\beta K d} |I_{t+K}| \geq \frac{C_\beta \left( \frac{3 \Delta}{C_\beta d} \right)^2 d}{2 \Delta + C_\beta \left( \frac{3 \Delta}{C_\beta d} \right)^2 d} |I_{t+K}|
\]

\[
= \frac{9 \Delta}{2 C_\beta d^2 + 9 \Delta} |I_{t+K}| \geq \left( 1 - \frac{C_\beta d}{4 \Delta} \right) |I_{t+K}|.
\]

Proof of Lemma 5.5. We choose \( C := 512 \gamma^2 \Delta^2 > 1 \), \( K := \left[ \frac{16 \gamma \Delta}{C_\delta \gamma d^2} \right] \geq 1 \), and \( C_\omega > 0 \) according to (P2).

By property (P2), the number of vertices in \( N_t^c \) which have at least \( C_\delta d |N_t|/n \) neighbors in \( N_t \) is at least \( |N_t^c| - \frac{C_\delta n^2}{d |N_t|^2} \). Therefore, the number of vertices in \( I_t^c \) which have at least \( C_\delta d (|N_t|/n) \) neighbors in \( N_t \) is at least

\[
|N_t^c| - |I_t| - \frac{C_\delta n^2}{d |N_t|^2} \geq n - 2 |I_t| - n/12 \geq 19n/24 \geq 3n/4,
\]

where the first inequality is due to \( 16 C_\omega (n/d) \leq |I_t| \leq 4/3 |N_t| \).

We call a vertex \( v \in I_t^c \) good if it has at least \( C_\delta d (|N_t|/n) \) neighbors in \( N_t \). The probability that a good vertex gets informed in a phase of \( K \) rounds (again using \( K \leq \Delta = o(1) \) by (P3')) is at least

\[
1 - \left( 1 - \frac{K}{\Delta} \right)^{C_\delta d (|N_t|/n)} \geq 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{K C(d|N_t|/n)}{\Delta} \right) \geq 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{16 \gamma |N_t|}{n} \right)
\]

\[
\geq 1 - \left( \frac{1}{16 \gamma |N_t|/n + 1} \right)^{\frac{1}{16 \gamma |N_t|/n + 1} \frac{3n}{(16 \gamma |N_t|/n + 1)^2}} = \frac{\gamma |N_t|}{(16 \gamma |N_t|/n + 1)^2} \geq 6 |N_t|.
\]

By linearity of expectation,

\[
\mathbb{E}[|N_{t+K}|] \geq \frac{16 \gamma |N_t|}{10 \gamma |N_t| + n} \geq \frac{16 \gamma |N_t|}{10 \gamma |N_t|/1 + n} \geq \frac{\gamma |N_t|}{16 \gamma |N_t|/n + n} \geq 6 |N_t|.
\]

Azuma’s inequality (cf. Lemma A.2) gives

\[
\Pr \left[ |N_{t+K}| \leq 4 |N_t| \right] \leq \exp \left( -\frac{2 (|N_t|^2)}{|N_t| K^2} \right) = \exp \left( -\frac{8 |N_t|}{K^2} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \exp \left( -\frac{|N_t| C_\delta^2 d^2}{128 \gamma^2 \Delta^2} \right) \leq \exp \left( -\frac{3 C \log(n) C_\delta^2 d^2}{512 \gamma^2 \Delta^2} \right) = n^{-1}.
\]
Therefore with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$,
\[ |N_{t+K}| \geq 4|N_t| \geq 3|I_t| = 3|I_{t+K}| - 3|N_{t+K}| \]
and after rearranging,
\[ |N_{t+K}| \geq \frac{3}{4}|I_{t+K}|. \]
This proves the first claim. The second claim follows from
\[ |I_{t+K}| \geq |N_{t+K}| \geq 4|N_t| \geq 3|I_t|. \]

Proof of Lemma 5.6. Let $X \subseteq N^c_t$ be the set of vertices in $N^c_t$ that have at least $C_\delta d|N_t|/n$ neighbors in $N_t$. By (P2),
\[ |X| \geq (n - |N_t|) - \frac{C_\omega n^2}{d|N_t|} \geq n - |N_t| - \Theta\left(\frac{n}{d}\right). \]
Let $v \in X$ and consider a phase of $K := \lceil \frac{2^\gamma n}{C_\delta |N_t|} \log n \rceil$ rounds. Note that $K = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ by (P3).

If $K \geq \Delta$, $v$ becomes informed in this phase with probability 1. Otherwise, the probability that $v$ will not be informed in this phase is at most
\[ \Pr[v \notin N_{t+K}] \leq \left(1 - \frac{K}{\Delta}\right)^{C_\delta |N_t|d/n} \leq \exp(-2\gamma \log n) = n^{-2\gamma}. \]
Taking the union bound over all vertices in $X$, we obtain that all vertices in $X$ get informed with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$. The claim follows.

5.3 Backward Analysis

The forward analysis has shown that within $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ steps, at most $\mathcal{O}(n/d)$ vertices stay uninformed. We now analyze the reverse. The question here is how many vertices have to be uninformed at time $t - \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ if there is an uninformed vertex at time $t$. We will show that this is at least $\omega(n/d)$. To formalize this, recall that $U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)$ is the set of vertices that reach the vertex $w$ within the time interval $[t_1, t_2]$ (using the usual meaning of “reach” as defined on page 6). We will prove the following theorem.

**Theorem 5.7.** Let $\gamma \geq 1$ be a constant. If the quasirandom rumor spreading process does not inform a fixed vertex $w$ until some time $t$, then there are $\omega(n/d)$ uninformed vertices at time $t - \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ with probability at least $1 - n^{-\gamma}$.

To prove Theorem 5.7, we fix an arbitrary vertex $w$ and a time $t$. Ignoring some technicalities, our aim is to prove a lower bound on the number of vertices which have to be uninformed at times before $t$ to keep $w$ uninformed at time $t$. We first show that the set of uninformed vertices at time $t - \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ is at least of logarithmic size.

For $d = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ this follows from (P1) as all vertices of $\Gamma^{\mathcal{O}(\log \log n / \log d)}(w)$ (and there are at least $\Omega(\log n)$ of these) reach $w$ within $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ steps. For $d = \omega(\log n)$, a simple Chernoff bound shows that enough vertices of $\Gamma(w)$ contact $w$ within $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ steps. This is summarized in the following lemma. The proofs of all three lemmas of this section can be found in the following Section 5.4.

**Lemma 5.8.** Let $\gamma \geq 1$ and $C \geq 1$ be constants, $w$ a vertex, and $t_2 = \Omega(\log n)$ a time step. Then with probability $1 - 2n^{-\gamma}$ there is a time step $t_1 = t_2 - \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ such that
\[ |U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)| \geq C \log n. \]
We now know that within a logarithmic number of time steps, there are at least $c \log n$ vertices which have reached $w$. Very similarly to Lemmas 5.4 and 5.5 in the forward analysis, we can increase the set of vertices that reach $w$ by a multiplicative factor by going back a constant number of time steps. The following lemma again mainly uses (P1). For the very dense case of $d = \Omega(n/\log n)$, there is nothing to show.

**Lemma 5.9.** For any constant $\gamma \geq 1$ there is a constant $K$ such that for all vertices $w$ and time steps $t_1, t_2$, if

$$\log n \leq |U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)| = O(n/d),$$

then with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$,

$$|U_{[t_1 - K, t_2]}(w)| \geq 4|U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)|.$$

Using Lemma 5.9 at most $O(\log n)$ times, we obtain a set of vertices that reach $w$ of size $\Omega(n/d)$. If these are $\omega(n/d)$ vertices, we are done. Otherwise, the following Lemma 5.10 shows that a phase consisting of $O(\log n)$ steps suffices to get to this point. This is the only lemma which substantially uses (P3').

**Lemma 5.10.** Let $\gamma \geq 1$ be a constant, $w$ a vertex, and $t_1, t_2$ time steps such that

$$|U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)| = \Theta(n/d).$$

Then with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$,

$$|U_{[t_1 - O(\log n), t_2]}(w)| = \omega(n/d).$$

This finishes the backward analysis and shows that $\omega(n/d)$ vertices have to be uninformed to keep a single vertex uninformed for $O(\log n)$ steps. Together with the forward analysis, which proved that only $O(n/d)$ vertices remain uninformed after $O(\log n)$ steps, this finishes the proof of Theorem 5.1 for $d = \omega(1)$.

### 5.4 Proofs of the Lemmas Used in the Backward Analysis

**Proof of Lemma 5.8.** Consider first the case that $d = O(\log n)$. In this case, we choose, as in the proof of Lemma 5.3, a constant $C_\alpha$ such that $C_\alpha n/d \geq C \log n$ and apply (P1). By equation (2) from page 17, there exists a $k = O(\log \log(n)/\log d)$ such that

$$|\Gamma^{\leq k}(w)| \geq |\Gamma^{\leq i}(w)| \geq C \log n.$$

Since within $\Delta$ rounds each vertex has contacted all neighbors, we have $\Gamma^{\leq i}(w) \subseteq U_{[t_2 - i\Delta, t_2]}(w)$ for $i \geq 1$ and therefore $\Gamma^{\leq k}(w) \subseteq U_{[t_2 - k\Delta, t_2]}(w)$. As $k\Delta = O(\log n)$, we see that $|U_{[t_2 - O(\log n), t_2]}(w)| \geq C \log n$ with probability 1.

In the remaining case $d = \omega(\log n)$ we estimate the number of neighbors of $w$ which reach $w$ in the previous $K := [4C^2\gamma \Delta \log(n)/\delta]$ steps. Note that $K = O(\log n)$ by (P3). For each neighbor $u \in \Gamma(w)$, define a random variable $X(u)$, which is one if $u$ contacts $v$ within the time interval $[t_2 - K, t_2]$, and zero otherwise. Then for each $u \in \Gamma(w)$, $\Pr[X(u) = 1] \geq K/\Delta$. We define $X := \sum_{u \in \Gamma(w)} X(u)$. Linearity of expectation gives $\E[X] \geq K \delta/\Delta \geq 4C^2 \gamma \log n$. Since $\{X(u) : u \in \Gamma(w)\}$ is a set of independent random variables, we obtain by a Chernoff bound that

$$\Pr[X \leq C \log n] \leq \Pr[X \leq \frac{1}{4} \E[X]] \leq \exp \left(-\frac{3}{4}\left(\frac{9}{32}C^2 \gamma \log n\right)^2/2\right) \leq \exp \left(-\frac{9}{32}\right) 4C^2 \gamma \log n \leq n^{-\gamma},$$

where we used the assumption $C \geq 1$. This implies that with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$, we have

$$|U_{[t_2 - O(\log n), t_2]}(w)| \geq C \log n.$$

$\square$
Proof of Lemma 5.9. Let $S := U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)$ and let $|S| \leq C_\alpha (n/d)$ for a constant $C_\alpha$. As $S$ is a connected set, (P1) gives

$$|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \geq C_{\beta} d |S|,$$

for a suitable constant $C_{\beta}$. Let $K = \left\lceil \frac{8\gamma n \log n}{d} \right\rceil = O(1)$ (by (P3)). As every vertex $u \in \Gamma(S) \setminus S$ has at least one edge to a vertex $v \in S$, the probability that a vertex $u \in \Gamma(S) \setminus S$ contacts a $v \in S$ in the interval $[t_1 - K, t_1 - 1]$ is at least $K/\Delta$ and $S' := U_{[t_1 - K, t_2]}(w)$. By linearity of expectation, the expected number of vertices in $S' \setminus S$ is at least

$$E[|S' \setminus S|] \geq K|\Gamma(S) \setminus S|/\Delta \geq C_{\beta} K d |S|/\Delta.$$

A simple application of the Chernoff bound gives

$$\Pr \left[ |S' \setminus S| \leq \frac{C_{\beta} K d |S|}{2\Delta} \right] \leq \exp \left( -\frac{C_{\beta} K d |S|}{8\Delta} \right) \leq n^{-\frac{C_{\beta} K d}{8\Delta}}.$$

Hence with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma},$

$$|S'| \geq \frac{C_{\beta} K d |S|}{2\Delta} \geq 4\gamma |S| \geq 4 |S|.$$

Proof of Lemma 5.10. Let $S := U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)$ with $|S| \leq C_\alpha (n/d)$ for a constant $C_\alpha$. Also let $K := \left\lceil \frac{8\gamma n \log n}{C_{\alpha} d |S|} \right\rceil$ and $S' := U_{[t_1 - K, t_2]}(w)$. Note that $K = O(\log n)$ by (P3). We examine a phase of $K$ steps.

As $S$ is a connected set, (P1) gives, as in the proof of Lemma 5.9, $|\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \geq C_{\beta} d |S|$. If $K \geq \Delta$, the lemma immediately follows from the observation

$$|S'| = |\Gamma^{<1}(S)| = \Theta(d |S|) = \Theta(n) = \omega(n/d).$$

The last equality is based on $d = \omega(1)$ as given by (P3').

We now assume $K \leq \Delta$. As every vertex $u \in \Gamma(S) \setminus S$ has at least one edge to a vertex $v \in S$, the probability that a vertex $u \in \Gamma(S) \setminus S$ contacts a $v \in S$ in the interval $[t_1 - K, t_1 - 1]$ is at least $K/\Delta$. By linearity of expectation, the expected number of vertices in $S' \setminus S$ is at least

$$\frac{K}{\Delta} |\Gamma(S) \setminus S| \geq \frac{C_{\beta} K d |S|}{\Delta} \geq \frac{8\gamma n \log n}{d}.$$

Again, a Chernoff bound gives

$$\Pr \left[ |S' \setminus S| \leq \frac{4\gamma n \log n}{d} \right] \leq \exp \left( -\frac{\gamma n \log n}{d} \right) \leq n^{-\gamma}.$$

Hence $|S'| \geq |S' \setminus S| = \Omega(n \log(n)/d) = \omega(n/d)$ with probability $1 - n^{-\gamma}$ for $K \leq \Delta$.

5.5 Analysis for Graphs with Constant Degree

It remains to show that the quasirandom model also works well on expanding graphs with constant degree $d = O(1)$. To do this, we apply Theorem 3.1 to see that for any graph the quasirandom model succeeds in $\Delta \cdot \text{diam}(G)$ steps. The corresponding bound for the fully random model is $O(\Delta \cdot \text{diam}(G) + \log n))$ with probability $1 - n^{-1}$ [31, Theorem 2.2].

Naturally, the diameter of expanding graphs can be bounded easily as follows (cf. [43, p. 455] for a related result). Plugging Lemma 5.11 into the upper bound of $\Delta \cdot \text{diam}(G)$ yields Theorem 5.1 for $d = O(1)$.

Lemma 5.11. For any expanding graph $G$ with $d = O(1)$, $\text{diam}(G) = O(\log n)$. 

\[ \]
Proof. Fix two vertices $v$ and $w$. We show that $\Gamma^{\leq O(log n)}(v) \cup \Gamma^{\leq O(log n)}(w) \neq \emptyset$. As $G$ is connected, $|\Gamma^{\leq \delta}(v)| \geq 3$. Now we choose $C_\alpha = d/2$ (which is valid since $d$ is a constant) and proceed as in the proof of Lemma 5.3. By (P1) we again get equation (1) for $k \geq 3$, and therefore by induction

$$|\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)| \geq (1 + C_{\beta}d)^{k-3}$$

for all $k$ with $k > 3$ and $|\Gamma^{\leq k-1}(v)| \leq n/2$. Therefore we can choose a $k$ such that $|\Gamma^{\leq k}(v)| \geq n/2$ and $k = O(log n)$. As analogously $|\Gamma^{O(log n)}(w)| \geq n/2$, we can conclude that there is a path of length $O(log n)$ from $v$ to $w$. \qed

6 Lower Bounds for the Fully Random Model on Sparse Random Graphs

In this section, we discuss lower bounds for the fully random model on sparse random graphs. They will show that the quasirandom model is superior on such graphs. Feige et al. [31] proved the following bound.

**Theorem 6.1** ([31, Theorem 4.1]). Let $p = (log n + f(n))/n$, where $f(n) = o(1)$ and $f(n) = \Omega(log \log n)$. Then for almost all random graphs $G(n, p)$, the broadcast time of the fully random model is $\Omega(log^2 n)$ with probability at least $n^{-1}$.

Theorem 6.1 stems simply from the fact that with high probability such graphs contain a vertex having constant degree with all neighbors having logarithmic degree. While the expected time to inform such a vertex, given that all its neighbors are informed, is logarithmic, we need $\Omega(log^2 n)$ rounds to do so with probability at least $n^{-1}$. The following result shows that we need $\omega(log n)$ rounds with probability $1 - o(1)$ (see also Table 2 for a survey).

**Theorem 6.2.** Let $p = (log n + f(n))/n$, where $f(n) = o(1)$ and $f(n) \leq C \log \log n$ for some constant $C \geq 1$. Then for almost all random graphs $G(n, p)$, the broadcast time of the fully random model is $\Omega(log(n) \log \log n)$ with probability $1 - o(1)$.

Proof. Fix an arbitrary vertex $v$. Then for any $x \geq 1$ we have,

$$Pr[\deg(v) \leq x] \geq Pr[\deg(v) = x] = \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^x (1 - p)^{n-1-x} \geq \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^x \left(\frac{log n}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{log n + C \log \log n}{n}\right)^{n-1}.$$ 

Now, using the fact that $(1 - \frac{1}{n})^{n-1} \geq e^{-1}$ twice gives

$$Pr[\deg(v) \leq x] \geq \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^x \left(\frac{log n}{n}\right)^x e^{-log n - C \log \log n} \geq e^{-1} \left(\frac{log n}{n}\right)^x e^{-log n - C \log \log n}.$$
We now argue that with high probability, we have sufficiently many vertices of this small degree. The basic idea is to inspect the degree of the vertices in a careful manner. First, in order to verify whether a vertex $v_1$ has degree larger than $x$ or not, we only have to expose at most $x+1$ edges incident to $v_1$. Then, the next vertex we pick will be a vertex for which we have not exposed any edge so far. Using this way of exposing the vertices allows us to use a Chernoff bound and conclude that there are enough vertices of small degree.

More precisely, start with an arbitrary vertex $v_1 \in V$. In the first iteration, we check sequentially for all vertices $u \in V$ whether $\{v_1, u\} \in E$ until we know whether $\deg(v_1) \leq x$ holds or not. While we may have to check up to $n - 1$ vertices $u$ whether $\{v_1, u\}$ exists, we will never expose more than $x + 1$ edges. This holds because after we have found $x + 1$ edges incident to $v_1$, the event $\deg(v_1) \leq x$ does not hold. Then in the second iteration, we pick a new vertex $v_2 \neq v_1$ for which we have not exposed the existence of any edge (but we may already know that $\{v_2, v_1\} \notin E$). Again, we sequentially check for all vertices $u \in V$ whether $\{v_2, u\} \in E$ holds until we know whether $\deg(v_2) \leq x$ holds or not. Observe that we can continue in this manner as long as there is a new vertex $v_i$ for which we have not exposed the existence of any edge. Since in each iteration at most $x + 1$ edges are exposed, the number of vertices with no exposed edge is reduced by at most $x + 2$ per iteration. As a consequence, the whole procedure can be run for at least $n/(x + 2)$ iterations. In each iteration $1 \leq i \leq n/(x + 2)$, we have

$$
\Pr[\deg(v_i) \leq x] \geq e^{-1} \left( \frac{\log n}{x} \right)^x e^{-\log n - C \log \log n},
$$

by the same reasoning as above.

Let $X$ be the number of vertices with degree at most $x$. By the arguments above, it follows that $X$ is stochastically larger (cf. Definition A.3 for a definition of stochastically larger) than the sum of $n/(x + 2)$ independent Bernoulli-random variables each of which has success probability $e^{-1} \left( \frac{\log n}{x} \right)^x e^{-\log n - C \log \log n}$. Therefore, it follows by a Chernoff bound (Lemma A.1) that

$$
\Pr[X \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[X]] \leq e^{-(1/2)^2 \mathbb{E}[X]/2}. \quad (5)
$$

Now choose $x : = (\log n)^{\varepsilon}$ for an arbitrary constant $0 < \varepsilon < 1$. By the above, we obtain

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] \geq \frac{n}{(\log n)^{\varepsilon}} + 2 e^{-1} \left( \frac{\log n}{(\log n)^{\varepsilon}} \right)^{(\log n)^{\varepsilon}} e^{-\log n - C \log \log n}
$$

$$
\geq \frac{1}{3} (\log n)^{\varepsilon} - e^{-(1-\varepsilon)(\log n)^{\varepsilon}} = (\log n)^{\Omega((\log n)^{\varepsilon})}.
$$

Plugging this into equation (5), we obtain

$$
\Pr[X \leq (\log n)^{\Omega((\log n)^{\varepsilon})}] = o(1).
$$

By [14, Lemma 1, Property 2] we know that for almost all random graphs, any two vertices with a degree of less than $\log n/20$ have a distance of at least $\log n/(\log \log n)^2$ from each other. Hence, all neighbors of vertices in $X$ have a degree of more than $\log n/20$. In particular, the time until a vertex $u \in X$ gets contacted by a fixed neighbor $v \in N(u)$ is stochastically larger than a geometric random variable with parameter $\log n/20$. Hence the time until $u$ gets contacted by any of its neighbors is stochastically larger than the minimum of $\deg(u) \leq x = (\log n)^{\varepsilon}$ independent such geometric variables. Since any two vertices in $X$ have a distance of at least three, these times are independent for all $u \in X$.

Now recall that $R(G)$ is the random variable describing the runtime of the fully random model. Further, let $\text{Geo}(p)$ be the geometric distribution defined by $\Pr[\text{Geo}(p) = i] = p \cdot (1 - p)^{i}$ for any
integer $i \geq 0$. Denoting with $\succeq$ “stochastically larger” and using Lemma A.5, we obtain
\[
\mathcal{R}(G) \succeq \max_{u \in X} \min_{v \in N(x)} \{ \text{Geo}(20/\log n) \}
\succeq \max_{u \in X} \left\{ \text{Geo} \left( 1 - \prod_{v \in N(x)} (1 - 20/\log n) \right) \right\}
\succeq \max_{u \in X} \left\{ \text{Geo} \left( 1 - (1 - 20/\log n)^{(\log n)^r} \right) \right\}
\succeq \max_{i=1}^{(\log n)^{\Omega((\log n)^r)}} \left\{ \text{Geo} \left( 1 - e^{-20(\log n)^{r-1}} \right) \right\}.
\]
Hence
\[
\Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) \leq t] \leq \Pr \left[ \text{Geo} \left( 1 - e^{-20(\log n)^{r-1}} \right) \leq t \right] \left( \log n \right)^{\Omega((\log n)^r)}
= \left( 1 - \left( e^{-20(\log n)^{r-1}} \right)^t \right) \left( \log n \right)^{\Omega((\log n)^r)}
\leq \exp \left( -e^{-20(\log n)^{r-1}t} (\log n)^{\Omega((\log n)^r)} \right).
\]
Setting $t = c \log n \log \log n$ with a sufficiently small constant $c$ finally gives
\[
\Pr[\mathcal{R}(G) \leq t] \leq \exp \left( -(\log n)^{-20c(\log n)^r} (\log n)^{\Omega((\log n)^r)} \right)
= \exp \left( -(\log n)^{\Omega((\log n)^r)} \right).
\]

7 Quasirandom Rumor Spreading on Hypercubes

In this section we analyze the quasirandom model on hypercubes. We prove that the quasirandom model informs all vertices in $O(\log n)$ rounds with high probability. This extends a corresponding runtime bound of $O(\log n)$ for the fully random model in [31]. The difficulty in our analysis is that the hypercube is not an expanding graph (cf. Theorem 4.18), and also an application of the bound of Theorem 3.1 yields only a much weaker upper bound of $O(\log^2 n)$.

We now state and prove our runtime bound for the quasirandom model on hypercubes. Finally, we will also examine the failure probability more closely to reveal that there is again a slight superiority of the quasirandom model over the fully random model (Section 7.4).

Theorem 7.1. The broadcast time of the quasirandom model on the hypercube is $O(\log n)$ with probability $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$.

Similarly to the proof for expanding graphs in Section 5, the analysis consists of a forward part and backward part. While the analysis of the forward part borrows several concepts from the analysis of the fully random model [31], the idea of analyzing the process in reversed order was not used in [31].

The forward part informs sufficiently many vertices in $O(\log n)$ time. The backward part shows that if there is an uninformed vertex, then $O(\log n)$ steps earlier every ball of small radius in the hypercube contains at least one uninformed vertex. To prove that one of these uninformed vertices gets informed eventually, we need a third part in between, which we call coupling. A graphical illustration of our proof can be found in Figure 1 on page 28.

To formally prove Theorem 7.1, we assume that the following three lemmas hold. We state them here and prove them in the remainder of this section. Recall that $n = 2^d$. 

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Lemma 7.2. The probability that the quasirandom rumor spreading process started in a fixed vertex $s$ informs $2^{d/6}$ vertices in $3d$ steps is at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$.

Let $s = 0^d$ be initially informed. By Lemma 7.2, at least $2^{d/6}$ vertices get informed in $3d$ with probability at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$. Now fix an arbitrary vertex $w \in V$. Recall that $U_{[t_1, t_2]}(w)$ is the set of vertices that reach the vertex $w$ within the time interval $[t_1, t_2]$ (cf. definition on page 6).

Lemma 7.3. For any vertex $w$ and $t_2 = 1033d$, with probability at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$, there is for every vertex $v$ a vertex $u(v) \in U_{[6d, t_2]}(w)$ with $\text{dist}(u, v) \leq d/256$.

By applying Lemma 7.3, there is with probability at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$ for each $v \in I_{3d}$ a vertex $u(v) \in U_{[6d, t_2]}(w)$ with $\text{dist}(u, v) \leq d/256$.

Lemma 7.4. Let $s$ be the initially informed vertex and $w$ be an arbitrary vertex. Assume that the following two conditions hold:

- there are at least $2^{d/6}$ informed vertices at step 3d and
- there is for every vertex $v$ a vertex $u(v) \in U_{[6d, t_2]}(w)$ with $\text{dist}(u, v) \leq d/256$ and $t_2 = 1033d$.

Then with probability $1 - e^{-\text{poly}(n)}$, at least one vertex in $U_{[6d, t_2]}(w)$ is informed at step 6d.

Now if the two former conditions hold, Lemma 7.4 implies that a vertex in $U_{[6d, t_2]}(w)$ gets informed with (conditional) probability at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$. By definition this implies that the vertex $w$ gets informed at step $t_2$. Taking the union bound over the success of the forward and backward part (Lemma 7.2 and Lemma 7.3), it follows that at step $t_2$ the vertex $w$ gets informed with probability at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$. Taking the union bound over all possible vertices $w \in V$ yields Theorem 7.1.

7.1 Proof of the Forward Analysis

In this section we prove Lemma 7.2.

Proof of Lemma 7.2. By symmetry we may assume that $s = 0^d$ is initially informed. Let $L_i$ be the set of vertices with $||x||_1 = i$. Note that after two phases of $d$ steps each, we have $I_{2d} = \{s\} \cup L_1 \cup L_2$.

Consider some time-step $t \geq 2d$. Assume that all initially-contacted neighbors of $I_t \cap L_i$ are still to be chosen u.a.r. for $i \geq 2$. Notice that the number of edges between $I_t \cap L_i$ and $L_{i+1}$ is $|E(I_t \cap L_i, L_{i+1})| = \sum_{v \in L_{i+1}} |\deg_{I_t \cap L_i}(v)| = |I_t \cap L_i| (d - i)$. Our goal is to show that a large set of vertices in $L_{i+1}$ will be informed after a phase of 4 additional steps. The probability that a vertex $v \in L_{i+1}$ is still uninformed after this phase is

$$\Pr[v \notin I_{t+4}] \leq \prod_{u \in I_t \cap L_i \setminus L_i} \left(1 - \frac{4}{d}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{4}{d}\right)^{\deg_{I_t \cap L_i}(v)}.$$

By linearity of expectations we get

$$E[|I_{t+4} \cap L_{i+1}|] = \sum_{v \in L_{i+1}} \Pr[v \in I_{t+4}] \geq \sum_{v \in L_{i+1}} 1 - \left(1 - \frac{4}{d}\right)^{\deg_{I_t \cap L_i}(v)} \geq \sum_{v \in L_{i+1}} 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{4 \deg_{I_t \cap L_i}(v)}{d}\right).$$

Let us now assume that $1 \leq i \leq d/4 - 1$. Then since $\deg_{I_t \cap L_i}(v) \leq i + 1$ for $v \in L_{i+1}$ and $1 + \frac{x}{d} \geq e^x$ for any $-1 \leq x \leq 0$, we get

$$E[|I_{t+4} \cap L_{i+1}|] \geq \sum_{v \in L_{i+1}} \frac{2 \deg_{I_t \cap L_i}(v)}{d} = 2 \frac{d}{d} |I_t \cap L_i| (d - i) = 2 \frac{d - i}{d} |I_t \cap L_i|. $$
Since any vertex of $|I_t \cap L_i|$ can only inform at most 4 vertices within 4 steps, an application of Azuma’s inequality (cf. Lemma A.2) gives, for any constant $0 < \varepsilon \leq 2/3$,

$$\Pr \left( |I_{t+4} \cap L_{i+1}| \leq (2 - \varepsilon) \frac{d - i}{d} |I_t \cap L_i| \right) \leq \exp \left( -\frac{(\varepsilon \frac{d - i}{d} |I_t \cap L_i|)^2}{16 |I_t \cap L_i|} \right) = \exp(-\Omega(d^2)) = n^{-\Omega(\log n)},$$

as long as $|I_t \cap L_i| \geq \frac{d(d-1)}{2}$ holds. Observe that if the condition $|I_t \cap L_i| \geq \frac{d(d-1)}{2}$ holds initially, then $|I_{t+4} \cap L_{i+1}| \geq (2 - \varepsilon) \frac{d - i}{d} |I_t \cap L_i|$ implies that $|I_{t+4} \cap L_{i+1}| \geq \frac{d(d-1)}{2}$, since $(2 - \varepsilon) \frac{d - i}{d} \geq (2 - \varepsilon)^\frac{3}{2} \geq 1$ by definition of $i$ and $\varepsilon$.

Recall that we first spent $2d$ steps in the first two phases to inform $L_2$ completely. Then in the analysis above, we spent, for each level $i$ with $2 \leq i \leq d/4 - 1$, a phase of exactly 4 steps. Hence the total time consumption is

$$2d + (d/4 - 2) \cdot 4 \leq 3d.$$

Now taking the union bound over all levels $2 \leq i \leq d/4 - 1$, with probability $1 - \frac{d}{4} - 1) n^{-\Omega(\log n)} = 1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$ it holds that

$$|I_{4d} \cap L_{d/4}| \geq \frac{d(d-1)}{2} \prod_{i=2}^{d/4-1} (2 - \varepsilon) \frac{d - i}{d} = \frac{d(d-1)}{2} (2 - \varepsilon)^{d/4 - 2} \prod_{i=2}^{d/4-1} \left( 1 - \frac{i}{d} \right).$$

We now use the fact that $(1 - x)^{1/x}$ is non-increasing in $0 < x < 1$, implying $(1 - x) \geq 4^{-x}$ for any $x \leq 1/4$. Plugging this into the previous inequality yields

$$|I_{4d} \cap L_{d/4}| \geq (2 - \varepsilon)^{d/4} 4^{-\sum_{i=2}^{d/4-1} \frac{i}{d}} \geq (2 - \varepsilon)^{d/4} 4^{-d/32} \geq 2^{d/6},$$

if $\varepsilon > 0$ is a sufficiently small constant.

\Box

### 7.2 Proof of the Backward Analysis

In this section we prove Lemma 7.3. We shall use the notation that $x[j]$ denotes the $j$-th bit of a vertex $x \in V$.

**Proof of Lemma 7.3.** We will now analyze the propagation of the rumor in the reverse order. Due to the symmetry of $H$, we may restrict our attention to the case $w = 1^d$.

Let us first consider the case where $v = 0^d$. So we have to show that $U_{[6d, \ell_2]}(w)$ contains a vertex $u$ such that $\text{dist}(0^d, u) \leq d/256$ with probability at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$. In order to achieve such a large success probability, we will construct $d/512$ vertex-disjoint paths that start from a vertex in $\Gamma(w)$ and move towards the vertex $v$. For each neighbor of $w$ which differs from $w$ in one of the last $d/512$ bits, we associate a path starting from that vertex and moving towards the vertex $v$. The disjointness is ensured by not allowing the path to change any of the last $d/512$ bits.

First note that $U_{[\ell_3 - d, \ell_2]}(w) \supseteq \Gamma(w)$, since within a time interval of $d$ steps, every neighbor of $w$ contacts $w$. Let $\mathcal{J} := [(511/512) d, d]$. For each $j \in \mathcal{J}$, we define a set of vertices

$$V(j) := \{ x \in [0, 1]^d \text{ with } x[j] = 0 \text{ and } x[i] = 1 \text{ for } i \in [(511/512) d, d] \setminus \{j\} \}.$$

For each $j \in \mathcal{J}$ we consider a path $P(j) = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_\ell) \subseteq V(j)$ of length $\ell := (255/256) d$ which is defined inductively as follows:

- The first vertex of $P(j)$ is defined by $v_1 \in \Gamma(w) \cap V(j)$.
• If \( s_i \) denotes the time-step when \( P(j) \) has reached the vertex \( v_i \), then \( P(j) \) is extended to a vertex \( v_{i+1} \in \Gamma(v_i) \cap V(j) \) with \( \|v_{i+1}\|_1 = d - i - 1 \) such that \( v_{i+1} \) is the last vertex before time-step \( s_i \) that contacts \( v_i \).

Fix an arbitrary \( j \in J \) and consider the path \( P(j) \). Recall that \( v_1 \in U_{\{t_2 - d, t_2\}}(w) \). Fix any \( i \) with \( 1 \leq i \leq \ell \) and consider the vertex \( v_i \). Note that there are \( d - i - (1/512)d \) vertices \( u \in \Gamma(v_i) \cap V(j) \) with \( \|u\|_1 = \|v_i\|_1 - 1 \). Let us denote by \( \Delta_i(v_i) \) the waiting time (going back in time) until such a fixed vertex \( u \) contacts \( v_i \), in symbols,

\[
\Delta_i(u, v_i) := s_i - \max\{s \leq s_i - 1 : u \in U_{\{s, s_i\}}(v_i)\}.
\]

Note that \( \Delta_i(u, v_i) \) is a uniform random variable in \( \{1, \ldots, d\} \). In particular, the distribution is the same for every \( u \) and since the initially-contacted neighbors are chosen independently and uniformly at random, \( \{\Delta_i(u, v_i) : u \in \Gamma(v_i) \cap V(j), \|u\|_1 = \|v_i\|_1 - 1\} \) is a set of mutually independent random variables. The waiting time \( \Delta_i \) until the first vertex \( u \in \Gamma(v_i) \cap V(j) \) with \( \|u\|_1 = \|v_i\|_1 - 1 \) contacts \( v_i \) satisfies

\[
\Delta_i := \min_{u \in \Gamma(v_i) \cap V(j)} \Delta_i(u, v_i).
\]

To bound this random variable, let \( X_{i,u} \sim \text{Geo}(1/d) \), that is, a geometric random variable with parameter \( 1/d \). By Lemma A.5, the minimum of \( d - i - (1/512)d \) independent geometric random variables with parameter \( 1/d \) is itself a geometric random variable \( X_i \) with parameter

\[
1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{d}\right)^{d - i - (1/512)d} \geq 1 - \exp(-1/512) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{1/512 + 1} = \frac{1}{513}.
\]

Hence with “\( \preceq \)” denoting “stochastically smaller than” we obtain by Lemma A.4 that

\[
\Delta_i = \min_{u \in \Gamma(v_i) \cap V(j)} \Delta_i(u, v_i) \preceq \min_{u \in \Gamma(v_i) \cap V(j)} X_{i,u} = X_i.
\]

Hence the time \( \Delta(j) := \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \Delta_i \) until we reach the end of \( P(j) \) is stochastically smaller than \( \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} X_i \), where the \( X_i \)'s are independent geometric random variables with parameter \( 1/513 \).

Let us first note that \( \mathbb{E}[X_j] \leq 513 \) and therefore with \( X := \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} X_i \),

\[
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \mathbb{E}[X_i] \leq 513d.
\]

Now we apply a Chernoff bound for a sum of independent geometric random variables (Lemma A.6 with \( \varepsilon := 1 \)) to obtain

\[
\Pr[X \geq 1026d] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{1}{4}\ell\right),
\]

and since \( \Delta(j) \preceq X \),

\[
\Pr[\Delta(j) \geq 1026d] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{1}{4}\ell\right).
\]

Hence with probability \( 1 - \exp(-\frac{1}{4}\ell) \), the endpoint of a path \( P(j) \) for a fixed \( j \) contacts \( w \) within the time interval \( [6d, t_2] \).
where we have used the inequality

\[ \sum_{i=0}^{m} \binom{n}{i} \leq \left( \frac{e}{m} \right)^{m} \]

for every vertex \( v \) exactly \( \sum_{k=0}^{d/64} \binom{d}{k} \) vertices with distance at most \( d/64 \) to \( u \). Hence there is subset \( I_{3d}' \subseteq I_{3d} \) such that two vertices in \( I_{3d}' \) have distance at least \( d/64 \) from each other which is of size

\[ \frac{2^{d/6}}{\sum_{k=0}^{d/64} \binom{d}{k}} \geq \frac{2^{d/6}}{(64e)^{d/64}} \geq \frac{2^{d/6}}{(28)^{d/64}} = 2^{d/24}, \]

where we have used the inequality \( \sum_{i=0}^{m} \binom{n}{i} \leq \left( \frac{e}{m} \right)^{m} \).

By our second condition in Lemma 7.4, there is for each vertex \( v \in I_{3d}' \) at least one vertex \( u = u(v) \in U[w_{d/2},w_{d/2}](w) \) such that \( \text{dist}(u,v) \leq d/256 \).

Let \( \Phi: I_{3d}' \rightarrow U[w_{d/2},w_{d/2}](w) \) be a function that assigns each vertex \( v \in I_{3d}' \) a vertex \( u = u(v) \in U[w_{d/2},w_{d/2}](w) \) such that \( \text{dist}(u,v) \leq d/256 \). Using the fact that two vertices in \( I_{3d}' \) have distance at least \( d/64 \) from each other, we observe that \( \Phi \) is an injective function.

Let us now fix a pair of vertices \( v \in I_{3d}' \) and \( \Phi(v) = U[w_{d/2},w_{d/2}](w) \). Note that the set of all shortest paths between \( v \) and \( \Phi(v) \) form a subcube \( H' = H'(v,\Phi(v)) \) whose dimension is equal to the distance between \( v \) and \( \Phi(v) \). Now choose a pair of vertices \( v' \in H' \cap I_{3d} \) and \( w' \in H' \cap U[w_{d/2},w_{d/2}](w) \) such that \( \text{dist}(v',w') \) is minimized. Our aim is to lower bound the probability that \( v' \) reaches \( u' \) within the time interval \([3d,6d]\).
First let us assume that \( \text{dist}(v', u') \leq 3 \). In this case, \( u' \) is informed within \( 3d \) steps with probability \( 1 \). Otherwise, we have \( \text{dist}(v', u') \geq 4 \). In this case, let \( v'' \in \Gamma(v') \) and \( u'' \in \Gamma(u') \) be two vertices such that \( \text{dist}(v'', u'') = \text{dist}(v', u') - 2 \). Note that \( v'' \in I_{4d} \) and \( u'' \in U_{[5d, t_2]}(w) \). By our construction, every vertex on a shortest path between \( v'' \) and \( u'' \) (except \( u'' \)) has distance at least one to \( I_{4d} \) and distance at least two to \( U_{[5d, t_2]}(w) \). Hence for each vertex on such a shortest path, the initially-contacted neighbor is still chosen uniformly at random and independently of all other vertices.

Similarly to the proof of Lemma 7.3, we lower bound the probability that there exists a path \( P = P(v) = (v_1 = v'', v_2, \ldots, v_{\text{dist}(v'', u'')} = u'') \) which satisfies the following two conditions for any \( 1 \leq i < \text{dist}(v'', u'') \):

- \( v_{i+1} \) is closer to \( u'' \) than \( v_i \) and
- \( v_i \) informs \( v_{i+1} \) at step \( 4d + i \).

Note that once the rumor has reached a vertex \( v_i \) for the first time, the vertex \( v_i \) forwards it to a vertex \( v_{i+1} \) closer to \( u'' \) with probability at least \( (\text{dist}(v'', u'') - i + 1)/d \). Repeating this argument gives the following lower bound for the existence of \( P \):

\[
\prod_{i=1}^{\frac{d}{256}} \frac{1}{d} = \left( \frac{d}{256} \right)! \geq \frac{d^{\frac{d^2}{256}}}{(768d)^{d/256}} \geq (2-10^{-2})^{d/256} \geq 2^{-d/25},
\]

where we have used the fact that \( n! \geq (n/3)^n \) for any integer \( n \) in the left inequality.

Our next claim is that \( \{ P(v) \text{ exists: } v \in I_{4d}' \} \) is a set of mutually independent events. In order to prove this, let us consider two arbitrary vertices \( v_1, v_2 \in I_{4d}' \), \( v_1 \neq v_2 \). Recall that by definition of \( I_{4d}' \), \( \text{dist}(v_1, v_2) \geq d/64 \). Since every vertex on a shortest path between \( v_i \) and \( \Phi(v_i) \) has a distance of at most \( d/256 \) to \( v_i \), it holds by the triangle inequality that the two paths \( P(v_1) \) and \( P(v_2) \) always have a distance of at least \( d/128 \) from each other, which proves the claimed independence.

Using this, we can lower bound the probability that at least one \( P(v) \) exists by

\[
1 - \left( 1 - 2^{-d/25} \right)^{2^d/24} \geq 1 - \exp \left( -2^{d/(24 \cdot 25)} \right) = 1 - \exp \left( -\text{poly}(n) \right).
\]

If there is a \( v \in I_{4d}' \) for which \( P(v) \) exists, then we know that there is a vertex \( v''(v) \in I_{4d}' \) which reaches a vertex \( u''(v) \in U_{[5d, t_2]}(w) \) within the time interval \( [3d, 6d] \). This implies that \( u(v) \in U_{[5d, t_2]}(w) \) is informed at step \( 6d \), and as a consequence, \( w \) will become informed at step \( t_2 \).

### 7.4 Failure Probability

We now examine the probabilities in the runtime bounds for the hypercube more closely. Recall that the runtime bound of \( O(\log n) \) for the quasirandom model holds with probability at least \( 1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)} \). In the fully random model, however, a fixed vertex remains uninformed for \( x \) steps with probability at least \( (1 - 1/d)^{dx} \geq 4^{-x} \). Hence the runtime of the fully random model is at least \( \rho \cdot \log n \) with probability at least \( n^{-2\rho} \) for any value of \( \rho \geq 1 \). Hence if \( \rho = (c/2) \log_2 n \) for some constant \( c > 0 \), this shows that the time for the fully random model to inform all \( n \) vertices with probability at least \( 1 - n^{-c\log_2 n} \) is at least \( (c/2)(\log_2 n)^2 = \Omega(\log(n))^2 \). This should be compared with our upper bound of \( O(\log n) \) for the quasirandom model, which holds with probability at least \( 1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)} \).

### 8 Conclusion and Outlook

In this paper, we proposed and investigated a quasirandom analogue of the classical push model for spreading a rumor to all vertices of a network.
We showed that for many network topologies, after $\Theta(\log n)$ iterations all vertices are informed with probability $1 - O(\text{poly}(n))$. Hence the quasirandom model achieves asymptotically the same bounds as the random one, or even better ones (e.g. for random graphs with $p$ close to $\log(n)/n$).

This work is also interesting from the methodological point of view. Our proofs show, in particular, that the difficulties usually invoked by highly dependent random experiments can be overcome. From the general perspective of using randomized methods in computer science, our results, as a number of other recent results, can be viewed as suggesting that choosing the right dose of randomness might be a fruitful topic for further research.

An interesting open problem is to analyze the quasirandom push model on other graph classes. A natural candidate would be the class of regular graphs with constant conductance, for which it is known that the classical push model spreads a rumor in $O(\log n)$ rounds [11, 39]. Another interesting target are preferential attachment graphs. Here [25] have shown that the fully random push-pull model has a broadcast time of $\Theta(\log n)$, whereas the variant with contactees chosen uniformly at random from all neighbors except the previous contactee has a broadcast time of only $\Theta(\log n/\log \log n)$. Since the quasirandom protocol automatically avoids the previous contactee, it seems likely that it also has this superior broadcast time.

Note however that it is not true that the quasirandom model always performs at least as good as the fully random model. For instance, consider the graph consisting of two cliques of size $n/2 - 1$ and an extra vertex which is connected to all other $n/2 - 2$ vertices. On this graph the fully random model spreads a rumor in $O(\log n)$ rounds with high probability, whereas the quasirandom model needs $\Omega(n)$ rounds with probability at least $1/4$ for appropriately chosen lists.

References


A Probabilistic Tail Bounds Used for our Analysis

As our analysis heavily relies on probabilistic tails bounds, we summarize them here for reference. The following bound can be found, e.g., in the textbook of Mitzenmacher and Upfal [50].

Lemma A.1 (Chernoff bounds for sums of Bernoulli variables). Let \( X_i, 1 \leq i \leq n, \) be independent random variables. Let \( X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i, 0 < p < 1 \) and \( \delta > 0. \) If \( \Pr[X_i = 1] = p \) and \( \Pr[X_i = 0] = 1 - p \) for all \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}, \) then

\[
\Pr[X \leq (1 - \delta) E[X]] \leq \exp\left(-\delta^2 \frac{E[X]}{2}\right),
\]

\[
\Pr[X \geq (1 + \delta) E[X]] \leq \exp\left(-\min\{\delta, \delta^2\} \frac{E[X]}{3}\right).
\]

We also use the following concentration bound, which is also called the method of bounded differences [49, Lemma 1.2].

Lemma A.2 (Azuma’s inequality). Let \( X_i : \Omega_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, 1 \leq i \leq n, \) be mutually independent random variables. Let \( f : \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Omega_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) satisfy the Lipschitz condition

\[
|f(x) - f(x')| \leq c_i
\]

where \( x \) and \( x' \) differ only in the \( i \)-th coordinate, \( 1 \leq i \leq n. \) Let \( Y \) be the random variable \( f(X_1, \ldots, X_n). \) Then for any \( t \geq 0, \)

\[
\Pr[Y > E[Y] + t] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i^2}\right).
\]

We shall also use the concept of stochastic domination between random variables.

Definition A.3. A random variable \( X \) is stochastically smaller than \( Y, \) if for all \( k \in \mathbb{R}, \)

\[
\Pr[X \geq k] \leq \Pr[Y \geq k].
\]

In this case, we also write \( X \preceq Y. \)

We list two obvious facts about stochastic domination.

Lemma A.4. Let \( X_1, X_2 \) be two independent random variables and let \( Y_1, Y_2 \) be two additional independent random variables with \( X_1 \preceq Y_1 \) and \( X_2 \preceq Y_2. \) Then,

\[
\bullet \ X_1 + X_2 \preceq Y_1 + Y_2 \quad \text{and}
\]

\[
\bullet \ \min\{X_1, X_2\} \preceq \min\{Y_1, Y_2\}.
\]

We continue with a simple fact about the geometric distribution.

Lemma A.5. Let \( X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \) be \( n \) independent geometric random variables each with parameter \( 0 < p < 1. \) Then \( X := \min_{i=1}^{n} X_i \) is a geometric random variable with parameter \( (1 - (1 - p)^n). \)

We use the following standard Chernoff bound for sums of geometric random variables from [28, Problem 3.6].

Lemma A.6 (Chernoff bound for sums of geometric variables). Let \( Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n \) be independent geometric random variables, each with parameter \( p > 0. \) Let \( Y := \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i. \) Then for any \( \varepsilon > 0, \)

\[
\Pr\left[Y \geq \left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{p}\right) n\right] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2(1 + \varepsilon)} n\right).
\]