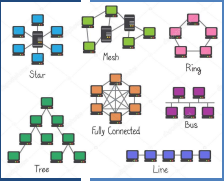


TCSS 558:
APPLIED DISTRIBUTED COMPUTING

Chapter 6 - Coordination

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OBJECTIVES

- Assignment 2 - questions
- Feedback from 3/3
- Chapter 6.2: Vector Clocks
- Chapter 6.3: Distributed Mutual Exclusion
- Class Activity – Causality and Vector Clocks
- Chapter 6.4: Election Algorithms

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MATERIAL / PACE

- Please classify your perspective on material covered in today's class:
 - 1-mostly review, 5-equal new/review, 10-mostly new
 - **Average – 7.6 (-)**
- Please rate the pace of today's class:
 - 1-slow, 5-just right, 10-fast
 - **Average – 6.2 (↑)**

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FEEDBACK FROM 3/3

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SHORT-HAND-CODES FOR MEMBERSHIP
TRACKING APPROACHES

- Include readme.txt or doc file with instructions in submission
- Must document membership tracking method
- **S-1:** Static file membership tracking only = 0 pts
- **T-1:** TCP membership tracking only = +5 pts (*should be dynamic once servers point to membership server*)
- **U-1:** UDP membership tracking only = +10 pts (*automatically discovers nodes with no configuration*)
- **S+T-2:** Static file + TCP membership tracking = +15 pts (*Static file is not reread to refresh membership during operation*)
- **S+U-2:** Static file + UDP membership tracking = +15 pts (*Static file is not reread to refresh membership during operation*)
- **SD+U-2:** Static file + UDP membership tracking = +20 pts (*Static file is periodically reread to refresh membership during operation*)
- **T+U-2:** TCP + UDP membership tracking = 20 pts (*both dynamic*)

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CHAPTER 6 - COORDINATION

- 6.1 Clock Synchronization
 - Physical clocks
 - Clock synchronization algorithms
- 6.2 Logical clocks
 - Lamport clocks
 - Vector clocks
- 6.3 Mutual exclusion
- 6.4 Election algorithms
- 6.6 Distributed event matching (*light*)
- 6.7 Gossip-based coordination (*light*)

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CH. 6.2: LOGICAL CLOCKS

Diagram illustrating logical clocks across three processes (P0, P1, P2) and their events. The events are labeled with their local clock values and process IDs. Arrows indicate message passing between processes.

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VECTOR CLOCKS

- Lamport clocks don't help to determine causal ordering of messages
- Vector clocks capture causal histories and can be used as an alternative
- But what is causality? ...

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WHAT IS CAUSALITY?

Diagram illustrating causality between two events (A and E) across two processes (Proc 1 and Proc 2). Event A occurs at Proc 1, and event E occurs at Proc 2. A message m1 is sent from Proc 1 to Proc 2, indicating a causal relationship between A and E.

- Having a causal relationship between two events (A and E) indicates that event E results from the occurrence of event A.
- When one event results from another, there is a causal relationship between the two events.
- This is also referred to as cause and effect.

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CAUSALITY - 2

- **Disclaimer:**
- Without knowing actual information contained in messages, it is not possible to state with certainty that there is a causal relationship or perhaps a conflict
- Lamport/Vector clocks can help us suggest possible causality
- But we never know for sure...

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CAUSALITY - 3

- Consider the messages:

Diagram illustrating causality between three processes (P1, P2, P3) and their events. The events are labeled with their local clock values and process IDs. Arrows indicate message passing between processes.

- P2 receives m1, and subsequently sends m3
- **Causality:** Sending m3 *may* depend on what's contained in m1
- P2 receives m2, receiving m2 is **not** related to receiving m1
- **Is sending m3 causally dependent on receiving m2?**

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VECTOR CLOCKS

- Vector clocks help keep track of **causal history**
- If two local events happened at process P, then the causal history H(p2) of event p2 is {p1,p2}
- P sends messages to Q (event p3)
- Q previously performed event q1
- Q records arrival of message as q2
- Causal histories merged at Q H(q2)= {p1,p2,p3,q1,q2}
- Fortunately, can simply store history of last event, as a vector clock → H(q2) = (3,2)
- Each entry corresponds to the last event at the process

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VECTOR CLOCKS - 2

Each process maintains a vector clock which

- Captures number of events at the local process (e.g. logical clock)
- Captures number of events at all other processes

Causality is captured by:

- For each event at P_i , the vector clock (VC_i) is incremented
- The msg is timestamped with VC_i ; and sending the msg is recorded as a new event at P_i
- P_j adjusts its VC_j choosing the **max** of: the message timestamp – or – the local vector clock (VC_j)

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VECTOR CLOCKS - 3

- P_j knows the # of events at P_i based on the timestamps of the received message
- P_j learns how many events have occurred at other processes based on timestamps in the vector
- These events **"may be causally dependent"**
- In other words:** they may have been necessary for the message(s) to be sent...

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VECTOR CLOCKS EXAMPLE

Local clock is underlined

CAUSALITY

m_2	m_4	$m_2 < m_4$	$m_2 > m_4$	Conclusion
(2,1,0)	(4,3,0)	Yes	No	m_2 may causally precede m_4

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VECTOR CLOCKS EXAMPLE - 2

m_2	m_4	$m_2 < m_4$	$m_2 > m_4$	Conclusion
(4,1,0)	(2,3,0)	No	No	m_2 and m_4 may conflict

- P_3 can't determine if m_4 may be causally dependent on m_2
- Is m_4 causally dependent on m_3 ?**

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VECTOR CLOCKS EXAMPLE - 3

- Provide a vector clock label for unlabeled events

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VECTOR CLOCKS EXAMPLE - 4

TRUE/FALSE:

- The sending of message m_3 is causally dependent on the sending of message m_1 .
- The sending of message m_2 is causally dependent on the sending of message m_1 .

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VECTOR CLOCKS EXAMPLE - 5

Diagram illustrating vector clock states for three processes P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 . The states are represented as points in a 2D space:

- P_1 starts at $(1,0,0)$.
- P_2 starts at $(0,1,1)$.
- P_3 starts at $(0,0,1)$.

Message exchanges are shown as arrows:

- m_1 from P_2 to P_1 .
- m_2 from P_1 to P_2 .
- m_3 from P_1 to P_3 .
- m_4 from P_3 to P_2 .

TRUE/FALSE:

- $P_1 (1,0,0)$ and $P_3 (0,0,1)$ may be concurrent events.
- $P_2 (0,1,1)$ and $P_3 (0,0,1)$ may be concurrent events.
- $P_1 (1,0,0)$ and $P_2 (0,1,1)$ may be concurrent events.

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CH. 6.3: DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION

Diagram illustrating the classification of Distributed Mutual Exclusion Algorithms:

- Distributed Mutual Exclusion Algorithms
 - Token-based Algorithms
 - Single-token Algorithms
 - Multi-token Algorithms
 - Hybrid Algorithms
 - Token-based Algorithms
 - Permission-based Algorithms
 - Permission-based Algorithms
 - Centralized Algorithms
 - Distributed Algorithms

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS

- Coordinating access among distributed processes to a shared resource requires **Distributed Mutual Exclusion**
- Algorithms in 6.3**
 - Token-ring algorithm
 - Permission-based algorithms:**
 - Centralized algorithm
 - Distributed algorithm (Ricart and Agrawala)
 - Decentralized voting algorithm (Lin et al.)

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TOKEN-BASED ALGORITHMS

- Mutual exclusion by passing a “token” between nodes
- Nodes often organized in ring
- Only one token, holder has access to shared resource
- Avoids starvation: everyone gets a chance to obtain lock**
- Avoids deadlock: easy to avoid**

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TOKEN-RING ALGORITHM

- Construct overlay network
- Establish logical ring among nodes

Diagram illustrating the Token-Ring Algorithm. A logical ring is established among nodes 0 through 7. A token is shown circulating from node 0 to node 1.

- Single token circulated around the nodes of the network
- Node having token can access shared resource
- If no node accesses resource, token is constantly circulated around ring

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TOKEN-RING CHALLENGES

- If token is lost, token must be regenerated
 - Problem:** may accidentally circulate multiple tokens
- Hard to determine if token is lost
 - What is the difference between token being lost and a node holding the token (**lock**) for a long time?
- When node crashes, circular network route is broken
 - Dead nodes can be detected by adding a receipt message for when the token passes from node-to-node
 - When no receipt is received, node assumed dead
 - Dead process can be “jumped” in the ring

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS - 3

- **Permission-based algorithms**
 - Processes must require permission from other processes before first acquiring access to the resource
 - CONTRAST: Token-ring did not ask nodes for permission
- **Centralized algorithm**
 - Elect a single leader node to coordinate access to shared resource(s)
 - Manage mutual exclusion on a distributed system similar to how it mutual exclusion is managed for a single system
 - Nodes must all interact with leader to obtain **"the lock"**

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CENTRALIZED MUTUAL EXCLUSION

Permission granted from coordinator V No response from coordinator

The diagram shows three scenarios of a centralized mutual exclusion algorithm. In the first, process P1 sends a 'Request' to the Coordinator (C), which responds with 'OK', allowing P1 to execute. In the second, P2 sends a 'Request' but receives 'No reply' from C, so P2 blocks. In the third, P1 sends a 'Release' message to C, which then responds with 'OK' to P2, allowing P2 to execute.

- When resource not available, coordinator can block the requesting process, or respond with a reject message
- P2 must **poll** the coordinator if it responds with reject otherwise can wait if simply blocked
- Requests granted permission fairly using FIFO queue
- Just three messages: (request, grant (OK), release)

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CENTRALIZED MUTUAL EXCLUSION - 2

- **Issues**
 - Coordinator is a single point of failure
 - Processes can't distinguish dead coordinator from **"blocking"** when resource is unavailable
 - No difference between CRASH and Block (for a long time)
 - Large systems, coordinator becomes performance bottleneck
 - Scalability: Performance does not scale
- **Benefits**
 - Simplicity: Easy to implement compared to distributed alternatives

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DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM

- Ricart and Agrawala [1981], use total ordering of all events
 - Leverages Lamport logical clocks
- Package up resource request message (AKA Lock Request)
- Send to all nodes
- Include:
 - Name of resource
 - Process number
 - Current (logical) time
- Assume messages are sent reliably
 - No messages are lost

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DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM - 2

- When each node receives a request message they will:
 1. Say OK (If the node doesn't need the resource)
 2. Make **no reply**, queue request (node is using the resource)
 3. If node is also waiting to access the resource: perform a timestamp comparison -
 1. Send OK if requester has lower logical clock value
 2. Make **no reply** if requester has higher logical clock value
- Nodes sit back and wait for all nodes to grant permission
- Requirement: every node must know the entire membership list of the distributed system

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DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM - 3

- Node 0 and Node 2 simultaneously request access to **resource**
- Node 0's time stamp is lower (8) than Node 2 (12)
- Node 1 and Node 2 grant Node 0 access
- Node 1 is not interested in the resource, it OKs both requests

The diagram shows three states of a distributed mutual exclusion algorithm. In (a), Node 0 requests access with timestamp 8, and Nodes 1 and 2 grant access. In (b), Node 2 requests access with timestamp 12, and Nodes 1 and 2 grant access. In (c), Node 0 requests access with timestamp 8, and Nodes 1 and 2 grant access.

- **In case of conflict, lowest timestamp wins!**
 - Node 2 rejects its own request (1@) in favor of node 0 (8)

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CHALLENGES WITH DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM

- **Problem:** Algorithm has N points of failure !
- Where N = Number of Nodes in the system
- **No Reply Problem:** When node is accessing the resource, it does not respond
 - Lack of response can be confused with **failure**
 - **Possible Solution:** When node receives request for resource it is accessing, always send a reply either granting or denying permission (ACK)
 - Enables requester to determine when nodes have died

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CHALLENGES WITH DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM - 2

- **Problem:** Multicast communication required –or- each node must maintain full group membership
 - Track nodes entering, leaving, crashing...
- **Problem:** Every process is involved in reaching an agreement to grant access to a shared resource
 - This approach **may not scale** on resource-constrained systems
- **Solution:** Can relax total agreement requirement and proceed when a **simple majority** of nodes grant permission
 - Presumably any one node locking the resource prevents agreement
 - If one node gets majority of acknowledges no other can
 - Requires every node to know size of system (# of nodes)
- Distributed algorithm for mutual exclusion works best for:
 - Small groups of processes
 - When memberships rarely change

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM

- Lin et al. [2004], decentralized voting algorithm
- Resource is replicated N times
- Each replica has its own coordinator ... (N coordinators)
- Accessing resource requires majority vote:
total votes (m) > N/2 coordinators
- **Assumption #1:** When coordinator does not give permission to access a resource (because it is busy) it will inform the requester

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM - 2

- **Assumption #2:** When a coordinator crashes, it recovers quickly, but will have forgotten votes before the crash.
- Approach assumes coordinators reset **arbitrarily** at any time
- **Risk:** on crash, coordinator forgets it previously granted permission to the shared resource, and on recovery it errantly grants permission again
- **The Hope:** if coordinator crashes, *upon recovery, the node granted access to the resource has already finished before the restored coordinator grants access again* . . .

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM - 3

- With 99.167% coordinator availability (30 sec downtime/hour) chance of violating correctness **is so low** it can be neglected in comparison to other types of failure
- Leverages fact that a new node must obtain a majority vote to access resource, **which requires time**

N	m	p	Violation	N	m	p	Violation
8	5	3 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻¹⁵	8	5	30 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻¹⁰
8	6	3 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻¹⁸	8	6	30 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻¹¹
16	9	3 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻²⁷	16	9	30 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻¹⁸
16	12	3 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻³⁶	16	12	30 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻²⁴
32	17	3 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻⁵²	32	17	30 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻³⁵
32	24	3 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻⁷³	32	24	30 sec/hour	< 10 ⁻⁴⁹

N = number of resource replicas, m = required "majority" vote
p=seconds per hour coordinator is offline

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM - 4

- **Back-off Polling Approach for permission-denied:**
- If permission to access a resource is denied via majority vote, process can poll to gain access again with a **random** delay (**known as back-off**)
- Node waits for a random amount, retries...
- If too many nodes compete to gain access to a resource, majority vote can lead to low resource utilization
 - **No one can achieve majority vote to obtain access to the shared resource**
 - Mimics elections where with too many candidates, where no one candidate can get >50% of the total vote
- Problem Solution detailed in [Lin et al. 2014]

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION
ALGORITHMS REVIEW

- Which algorithm offers the best scalability to support distributed mutual exclusion in a large distributed system?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION
ALGORITHMS REVIEW - 2

- Which algorithm(s) involve blocking when a resource is not available?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION
ALGORITHMS REVIEW - 3

- Which algorithm(s) involve arriving at a consensus to determine whether a node should be granted access to a resource?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION
ALGORITHMS REVIEW - 4

- Which algorithm(s) have N points of failure, where N = Number of Nodes in the system?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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CH. 6.4: ELECTION
ALGORITHMS

The diagram illustrates two scenarios of election algorithms. In the 'Election' scenario, nodes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 are shown. Node 4 is the current coordinator, and nodes 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 are sending 'Election' messages to it. In the 'Coordinator' scenario, node 4 is the coordinator, and nodes 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 are sending 'Coordinator' messages to it. Node 0 is shown as a failed node in both scenarios.

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ELECTION ALGORITHMS

- Many distributed systems require one process to act as a coordinator, initiator, or provide some special role
- Generally any node (or process) can take on the role
 - In some situations there are special requirements
 - Resource requirements: compute power, network capacity
 - Data: access to certain data/information
- Assumption:
 - Every node has access to a "node directory"
 - Process/node ID, IP address, port, etc.
 - Node directory may not know "current" node availability
- Goal of election: at conclusion all nodes agree on a coordinator

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ELECTION ALGORITHMS

- Consider a distributed system with N processes (*or nodes*)
- Every process has an identifier $id(P)$
- Election algorithms attempt to locate the highest numbered process to designate as coordinator

Algorithms:

- Bully algorithm
- Ring algorithm
- Elections in wireless environments
- Elections in large-scale systems

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BULLY ALGORITHM

- When **any** process notices the coordinator is no longer responding to requests, it initiates an election
- Process P_k initiates an election as follows:
 - P_k sends an ELECTION message to all processes with higher process IDs ($P_{k+1}, P_{k+2}, \dots, P_{N-1}$)
 - If no one responds, P_k wins the election and becomes coordinator
 - If a "higher-up" process answers (P_{k+n}), it will take over and run the election. P_k will quit sending ELECTION messages.
- When the higher numbered process receives an ELECTION message from a lower-numbered colleague, it responds with "OK", indicating it's alive, and it takes over the election.

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BULLY ALGORITHM - 2

- The higher numbered process then holds an election with **only** higher numbered processes (nodes).
- Eventually **all** processes give up except one, and the remaining process becomes the new coordinator.
- The coordinator announces victory by sending all processes a message stating it is starting as the coordinator.
- If a higher numbered node that was previously down comes back up, it holds an election, and ultimately takes over the coordinator role.
- The process with the "biggest" ID in town always wins.
- Hence the name, **bully algorithm**

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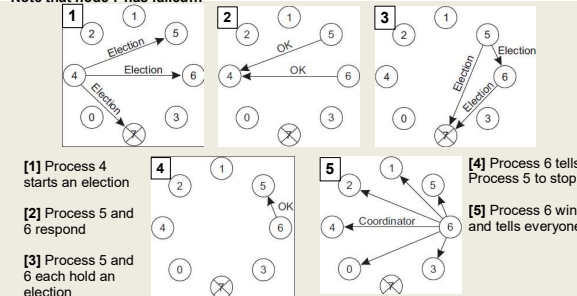
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BULLY ALGORITHM - 3

Note that node 7 has failed...



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BULLY ALGORITHM - 4

- Every node knows who is participating in the distributed system
 - Each node has a group membership directory
- First process to notice the leader is offline launches a new election
- GOAL: Find the highest number node that is running
 - Loop over the nodes until the highest numbered node is found
 - May require multiple election rounds
- Highest numbered node is always the "**BULLY**"

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RING ALGORITHM

- Election algorithm based on a network of nodes in logical ring
- Does not use a token**
- Any process (P_k) starts the election by noticing the coordinator is not functioning
 - P_k builds an **election message**, and sends to its successor in the ring
 - If successor is down, successor is skipped
 - Skips continue until a running process is found
 - When the **election message** is passed around, each node adds its ID to a **separate active node list**
 - When **election message** returns to P_k , P_k recognizes its own identifier in the **active node list**. Message is changed to **COORDINATOR** and "**electd(P_k)**" message is circulated.
 - Second message announces P_k is the NEW coordinator

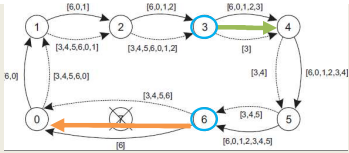
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RING: MULTIPLE ELECTION EXAMPLE



- **PROBLEM:** Two nodes start election at the same time: P_3 and P_6
- P_3 sends **ELECT(P_3)** message, P_6 sends **ELECT(P_6)** message
 - P_3 and P_6 both circulate ELECTION messages at the same time
- Also circulated with ELECTION message is an **active node list**
- Each node adds itself to the **active node list**
- Each node votes for the highest numbered candidate
- P_6 wins the election because it's the candidate with the **highest ID**

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ELECTIONS WITH WIRELESS NETWORKS

- Assumptions made by traditional election algorithms not realistic for wireless environments:
 - >>> Message passing is reliable
 - >>> Topology of the network does not change
- A few protocols have been developed for elections in ad hoc wireless networks
- Vasudevan et al. [2004] solution handles failing nodes and partitioning networks.
 - Best leader can be elected, rather than just a random one

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VASUDEVAN ET AL. WIRELESS ELECTION

1. Any node (**source**) (P) starts the **election** by sending an ELECTION message to immediate neighbors (any nodes in range)
2. Receiving node (Q) designates sender (P) as parent
3. (Q) Spreads election message to neighbors, **but not to parent**
4. Node (R), receives message, designates (Q) as parent, and spreads ELECTION message to neighbors, **but not to parent**
5. Neighbors that have already selected a parent immediately respond to R.
 - If **all** neighbors already have a parent, R is a leaf-node and will report back to Q quickly.
 - When reporting back to Q, R includes metadata regarding battery life and resource capacity
6. Q eventually acknowledges the ELECTION message sent by P, and also indicates the most eligible node (based on battery & resource capacity)

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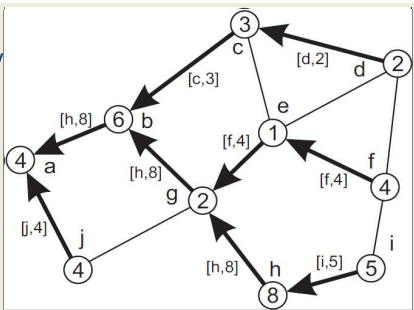
WIRELESS ELECTION - 2
SOURCE NODE: [A]

Node [A] initiates election: find the highest capacity

Election messages propagated to all nodes

Each node reports to its parent node with best capacity

Node A then facilitates Node H becoming leader



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WIRELESS ELECTION - 3

- When multiple elections are initiated, nodes only join one
- Source node tags its ELECTION message with unique identifier, to uniquely identify the election.
- With minor adjustments protocol can operate when the network partitions, and when nodes join and leave

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ELECTIONS FOR LARGE-SCALE SYSTEMS

- Large systems often require several nodes to serve as coordinators/leaders
- These nodes are considered **"super peers"**
- **Super peers** must meet operational requirements:
 1. Network latency from **normal nodes** to **super peers** must be low
 2. **Super peers** should be evenly distributed across the overlay network (ensures proper load balancing, availability)
 3. Must maintain set ratio of **super peers** to **normal nodes**
 4. **Super peers** must not serve **too many normal nodes**

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ELECTIONS FOR DHT BASED SYSTEMS

- DHT-based systems use a bit-string to identify nodes
- Basic Idea:** Reserve fraction of ID space for super peers
- Reserve first $\log_2(N)$ bits for super-peer IDs
- m =number of bits of the identifier
- k =# of nodes each node is responsible for (Chord system)
- Example:**
- For a system with $m=8$ bit identifier, and $k=3$ keys per node
- Required number of super peers is $2^{(k - m)} \cdot N$, where N is the number of nodes
 - In this case $N=32$
 - Only 1 super peer is required for every 32 nodes**

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SUPER PEERS IN AN M-DIMENSIONAL SPACE

- Given an overlay network, the idea is to position superpeers throughout the network so they are evenly disbursed
- Use tokens:**
- Give N tokens to N randomly chosen nodes
- No node can hold more than (1) token
- Tokens are “repelling force”. Other tokens move away
- All tokens exert the same repelling force
- This automates token distribution across an overlay network

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OVERLAY TOKEN DISTRIBUTION

- Gossiping protocol is used to disseminate token location and force information across the network
- If forces acting on a node with a token exceed a **threshold**, token is moved away
- Once nodes hold token for awhile they become superpeers

Diagram illustrating overlay token distribution. It shows four nodes: A, B, C, and D. Node B is labeled "Token-holding node". Node C is a "Normal node". Node A exerts a "Repulsion force of A on C" on node C. Node C is moving towards node D, labeled "Resulting movement by which the token at C is passed to another node". Node D is labeled "Node D will become token holder". A legend indicates that a circle with a dot represents a "Normal node".

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QUESTIONS

A large blue question mark icon inside a circle, set against a blue background.

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