Robust Leader Election in a Fast-Changing World

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We consider the problem of electing a leader among nodes in a highly dynamic network where the adversary has unbounded capacity to insert and remove nodes (including the leader) from the network and change connectivity at will. We present a randomized algorithm that (re)elects a leader in $O(D \log n)$ rounds with high probability, where $D$ is a bound on the dynamic diameter of the network and $n$ is the maximum number of nodes in the network at any point in time. We assume a model of broadcast-based communication where a node can send only 1 message of $O(\log n)$ bits per round and is not aware of the receivers in advance. Thus, our results also apply to mobile wireless ad-hoc networks, improving over the optimal (for deterministic algorithms) $O(Dn)$ solution presented at FOMC 2011. We show that our algorithm is optimal by proving that any randomized Las Vegas algorithm takes at least $\Omega(D \log n)$ rounds to elect a leader with high probability, which shows that our algorithm yields the best possible (up to constants) termination time.

1 Introduction

Electing a leader among distributed nodes in a dynamic environment is a fundamental but challenging task. Protocols that were developed for static communication networks (cf. [14] and references therein) are not applicable in settings where the network topology is continuously evolving due to mobility and failures of nodes. Real world dynamic networks are continuously evolving, which requires algorithms to function even when the network itself is constantly changing.

In this work, we consider the Dynamic Leader Election problem (cf. Section 2.2), which was introduced as “Regional Consecutive Leader Election” in [4]. Intuitively speaking, we consider a network of (not necessarily fixed) distributed nodes that are required to elect a unique leader among themselves within some bounded time. Since any node (including the leader) can leave the network — due to being out of reach from any other node or by simply crashing — we require nodes to detect the absence of the leader and reelect a new leader as soon as possible.

Dynamic Leader Election is clearly impossible in absence of any guarantees on information propagation between nodes. Similarly to [4, 5], we assume a communication diameter $D$ which bounds the time needed for information propagation between nodes in the network. Intuitively speaking, if some node $u$ sends some information $I$ in round $r$ and some node $v$ remains in the network during rounds $[r, r+D]$, then $v$ is guaranteed to receive the information of $u$. Note that, in contrast to the notion dynamic diameter in undirected dynamic networks (cf. [11]), our communication diameter assumption does not give symmetric guarantees for communication between nodes. In fact, by the time that $v$ receives $I$, node $u$ might have long left the network and thus is unable to receive any information sent by $v$.

In this work, we present a randomized algorithm that provides fast termination bounds even though the dynamic network is designed by an oblivious adversary who knows our algorithm, but is unaware of the outcome of the private coin flips. In essence, the oblivious adversary must commit in advance to...
all changes made to the dynamic network before the algorithm starts executing. Assuming an oblivious adversary is a suitable choice for worst case analysis when the dynamism of network is not under control of a malicious force that is capable of inferring the current state of the nodes in the network but rather caused by mobility and hardware limitations of the participating nodes.

Our system model (cf. Section 2) requires nodes to send messages by broadcasting them to their (current) neighbors in the network. Moreover, the sender of a message does not know its current neighbors. Considering that the adversary can dynamically change the topology of the network and the participating nodes themselves, our assumptions are suitable for modeling real world dynamic networks, including mobile wireless ad-hoc networks (MANETS). In general, care must be taken to account for message loss due to collisions of wireless broadcasts. Similarly to [5], we focus on the algorithmic aspects of the dynamic network model where neighboring nodes can communicate reliably in synchronous rounds, which can be guaranteed by using the Abstract MAC Layer (cf. [12]).

1.1 Our Main Results:

We present asymptotically optimal results for solving Dynamic Leader Election when nodes have access to unbiased private coin flips. Our main contributions are the following:

1. We present a randomized algorithm that guarantees a termination bound of $O(D \log n)$ where $n$ is the maximum number of nodes in the network at any time (cf. Theorem 2). This improves over the deterministic $O(Dn)$ bound of [5]. This result holds even when the dynamic network is designed by an oblivious adversary that knows the algorithm and completely controls the network dynamics, but must commit to its choices in advance without any knowledge of the private random bits used to execute the algorithm.

2. We show that any randomized algorithm takes at least $\Omega(D \log n)$ rounds to terminate with high probability (cf. Theorem 1). Interestingly, this lower bound holds even if the oblivious adversary does not have any knowledge of the actual algorithm in place.

1.2 Other Related Work

Existing solutions to the Dynamic Leader Election problem [4,5] consider only deterministic algorithms, albeit for the more powerful omniscient adversary that knows the entire execution of the algorithm in advance.

In more detail, [5] proves a lower bound that shows that any algorithm takes at least $\Omega(Dn)$ rounds for termination in the worst case, in the presence of an omniscient adversary. [5] also presents a matching (deterministic) algorithm that guarantees termination in $O(Dn)$ time and improves over the algorithm of [4] by only sending one broadcast per round.

In the context of mobile ad-hoc networks, [15] presents an algorithm for electing a leader in each connected component of a network with a changing topology and proves its correctness for the case when there is a single topology change. In [9], a leader election protocol for asynchronous networks with dynamically changing topologies is described that elects a leader as soon as the topology becomes stable. Several other leader election algorithms for mobile environments are considered in [3,15,9,16,18,20,6].

[8] presents a leader election algorithm in a model where the entire space accessible by mobile nodes is divided into non-intersecting subspaces. Upon nodes meeting in a common subspace, they decide on

*Throughout this paper, “with high probability” means with probability at least $1 - O(\frac{1}{n})$. 
which node continues to participate in the leader election protocol. Moreover, \cite{8} presents a probabilistic analysis for the case where the movement of nodes are modeled as random walks.

The dynamic network model of \cite{2} is similar to the model used in this paper, in the sense that nodes can leave and join the (peer-to-peer) network over time and the topology of the network can undergo some changes. \cite{2} show how to solve almost everywhere agreement despite high amount of node churn, which in turn can be used to enable nodes to agree on a leader. However, \cite{2} assumes that the underlying network topology remains an expander which does not necessarily apply to mobile ad-hoc networks.

There are established lower bounds on time and message complexity for leader election algorithms (cf. \cite{10, 1, 13}) in static synchronous networks. These lower bounds do not apply to our system model and the Dynamic Leader Election, due to the fundamental impact of our additional assumptions, i.e., nodes leaving and joining the network and changes to the communication topology.

Similar to the technique that we use in our leader election algorithm, the work of \cite{19} uses exponential random variables in the context of finding dense subgraphs on dynamic networks.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we describe the dynamic network model that we study and formulate the dynamic leader election problem. We show that any randomized algorithm takes at least \( \Omega(D \log n) \) rounds to terminate with high probability in Section 3. To complement this negative result, we provide an optimal algorithm that terminates in \( O(D \log n) \) rounds with high probability in Section 4.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 System Model

We consider a dynamic network of nodes modelled as a dynamically changing infinite sequence of graphs \( \mathcal{G} = (G^1, G^2, \ldots) \). Each node runs an instance of a distributed algorithm and computation is structured into synchronous rounds. We assume that all nodes have access to a common global clock. Nodes communicate with their neighbors via broadcast communication where a node is restricted to broadcast at most 1 message of \( O(\log n) \) bits per round. The graph \( G^r = (V^r, E^r) \), \( r \geq 1 \), represents the state of the network in round \( r \), i.e., the vertex set \( V^r \) is the set of nodes in the network and the edges \( E^r \) represent the connectivity in the network. The maximum number of nodes in the network at any time is denoted by \( n \), i.e., \( \forall r, |V^r| \leq n \). For two rounds \( r_u \) and \( r_v \) where \( r_u \leq r_v \) we define \( V^{[r_u, r_v]} = \{ v | \forall k \in [r_u, r_v], v \in V^k \} \).

We assume that each node enters the network once and may therefore leave the network at most once. A node that enters the network in round \( r \) and leaves the network at the end of round \( r' \) (\( = \infty \) if the node never leaves) will be in \( V^{[r, r']} \). If \( e = (u, v) \in E^r \), then any message sent in round \( r \) by \( u \) is received by \( v \) in round \( r \) and vice versa. Since communication is broadcast based, node \( v \) does not know that \( u \) is its in round \( r \) until it has received a message from \( u \). In particular, when node \( u \) broadcasts a message in round \( r \), it does not know which nodes will receive this message.

The changes in node and edge sets are made by an adversary that is oblivious to the state of the nodes. In other words, the adversary commits to the sequence \( \mathcal{G} \) before round 1 after which it cannot make anymore changes. (Nodes themselves are not aware of this sequence in advance.) Thus, we can view each round as a sequence of three events:

- The network is updated to \( G^r \) (fixed in advance by the adversary). We say that a node survives until \( r \) if it remains in \( V^r \).
- Nodes perform local computation including (private) random coin flips.
- Nodes communicate with their neighbors.
An execution of an algorithm is entirely determined by a sequence $G$ and the outcome of the local coin flips.

So far, we have not imposed any restrictions on how the adversary can modify the node and edge sets. In fact, we do not even require that any particular graph in $G$ be connected. However, we now introduce a weak restriction on the propagation of information among nodes. We say that a node $u$ floods a message $M$ starting in round $r$ if it broadcasts $M$ to its neighbors in every round starting from $r$ as long as it is alive and every other node that receives $M$ continues to flood $M$. We call $D$ the bounded communication diameter of the network and assume that $D$ is common knowledge of all nodes.

As a further convenience, the model allows conditional flooding in which a message $M$ may be flooded until some condition is met. More precisely, a conditionally flooded message comprises of both a message and a condition. When a node receives a conditionally flooded message, it continues to flood the message if and only if the condition is true. Such conditional flooding will be useful in ensuring that beep messages sent by a leader to indicate its presence in the network don’t persist forever in the network. These beep messages can be flooded under the condition $\langle$current beep message is latest and generated in last $D$ rounds$\rangle$, thereby implicitly discarding stale beep messages.

### 2.2 Dynamic Leader Election

Given a synchronous dynamic network $G$, we want to develop an algorithm to elect a leader in bounded time in spite of the churn. Each node $u$ is equipped with a variable $\text{LEADER}_u$ which is initialized to $\bot$. A node $u$ chooses or elects a leader node $v$ by setting $\text{LEADER}_u \leftarrow v$; note that this allows a node $u$ to elect itself as the leader by setting $\text{LEADER}_u \leftarrow u$. The leader election algorithm so developed should satisfy the following conditions:

**Agreement:** If $u$ and $v$ are any two nodes in $G$ such that, $\text{LEADER}(u) \neq \bot$ and $\text{LEADER}(v) \neq \bot$ then $\text{LEADER}(u) = \text{LEADER}(v)$. This implies that at any one round, there is at most one leader in the network.

**Termination:** Any node $u$ without a leader should elect a leader within a bounded number of rounds; formally, this corresponds to assigning $\text{LEADER}_u$. We say that an algorithm has termination time $T$ if every node $u$ that has $\text{LEADER}_u = \bot$ in some round $r$, has set $\text{LEADER}_u \neq \bot$ by some round $r' \leq r + T$, assuming that $u \in V^{[r,r+T]}$.

**Validity:** If some node $u$ elects distinct node $v$ as its leader in round $r$, then $v$ must have been the leader in some round in $[r-D-1,r]$.

**Stability:** If a node $u$ stops considering a node $v$ as its leader, then $v$ has left the network.

We are interested in tight bounds on the termination time $T$. From [5], we know that $T \in \Omega(nD)$ when we require deterministic bounds on $T$. Our interest, however, is to attain termination times that are significantly lower. Towards this goal, we focus on randomized algorithm that provide significantly better bounds on $T$ that hold with high probability of the form $1 - 1/n^{\Omega(1)}$.

### 3 Lower Bound on Termination Time

In this section, we wish to show a lower bound on the termination time $T$ of any randomized algorithm. More precisely, we wish to show that, for any algorithm $A$ that solves dynamic leader election (with
probability 1), the number of rounds until \( \mathcal{A} \) terminates with high probability is at least \( \Omega(D \log n) \), where \( n \) is the most number of nodes in the network at any given time. Recall that we have assumed that our adversary is oblivious in that it is aware of the algorithm used, but is oblivious to the outcomes of coin flips used by the algorithm. In effect, we can assume that the adversary generates \( \mathcal{A} \) before the algorithm starts its execution. In particular, for the purpose of proving the lower bound, the adversary follows the strategy described in Algorithm [1]

**Algorithm 1** Strategy of the Oblivious Adversary.

1. /* This algorithm produces a sequence of graphs that make up an input instance to the Dynamic Leader Election problem. The adversary equips each node with a unique id chosen uniformly at random from the set \( \{1, \ldots, n^3\} \); once an id has been used for a node, it is removed from this set. */
2. We begin with \( n \) nodes in the network.
3. for \( i = 0, 1, 2 \ldots \) do
4. /* Generating \( G_{i+1} \) to \( G_{i+1}^{D-1} \): */
5. From round \( iD + 1 \) to \( (i + 1)D - 1 \), all nodes are pairwise disconnected.
6. /* Generating \( G_{i+1}^{D} \): */
7. In round \( (i + 1)D \), each node is removed with probability \( 1/2 \). Surviving nodes become a part of \( G_{i+1}^{D} \).
8. New nodes are added to bring the cardinality of nodes in \( G_{i+1}^{D} \) back to \( n \).
9. The \( n \) nodes form a completely connected network in round \( G_{i+1}^{D} \).

The following observation confirms that the adversarial strategy as described in Algorithm [1] is valid according to the modeling assumptions state in Section [2]

**Observation 1.** The number of nodes in each \( G \in \mathcal{A} \) generated by Algorithm [1] is \( n \) and remains so throughout its lifetime. Furthermore, \( \mathcal{A} \) generated by Algorithm [1] has a communication diameter bounded by \( D \) and forms a valid input for the dynamic leader election problem.

We say that a node \( \ell \) is an effective leader if it has executed \( \text{LEADER}(\ell) \leftarrow \ell \) and there exists at least one other node \( u \) that is aware that \( \ell \) has elected itself leader. If no such node \( u \) exists, we say that \( \ell \) is ineffective.

The validity and agreement conditions imply the following Observation [2]

**Observation 2.** Suppose that some node \( \ell \) is an ineffective leader during \([r_1, r_2]\). Then no distinct node can set its \text{LEADER} variable to a value \( \neq \bot \) during \([r_1, r_2]\).

**Lemma 1.** Suppose that there is no leader at the start of round \( iD + 1 \), for any \( i \geq 0 \). Then there will be no effective leader until the end of round \( (i + 1)D - 1 \).

**Proof:** If there is no node that elects itself leader until the end of round \( (i + 1)D - 1 \), we are done. Therefore, let node \( \ell \) elect itself leader in some round in \([iD + 1, (i + 1)D - 1]\). The adversarial strategy (cf. Algorithm [1]), however, ensures that there is no communication going out from \( \ell \) until round \( (i + 1)D \). From Observation [2] it follows that \( \ell \) cannot become an effective leader until the end of round \( (i + 1)D - 1 \). \( \square \)

**Lemma 2.** Consider any \( i > 0 \). If there is no effective leader up until the end of round \( iD - 1 \), then, with probability at least \( 1/2 - \varepsilon \), for any fixed constant \( \varepsilon > 0 \), there will be no leader node at the end of round \( iD \).

\(^1\)The start of round \( r + 1 \) and the end of round \( r \) happen at the exact same point in time.
Proof: At the end of round \( iD - 1 \), there are two possible exhaustive cases. In the first case, there is no leader until the end of round \( iD - 1 \). Since \( A \) is a Las Vegas algorithm, it follows that there can be at most 1 id \( id_1 \) such that a node equipped with \( id_1 \) has nonzero probability of (immediately) becoming the leader upon entering in round \( iD \). (Otherwise, a simple indistinguishability argument provides a contradiction to \( A \) agreeing achievement with probability 1.) According to Algorithm 1, the adversary chooses new ids uniformly at random from at least \( n^4 \) ids (discarding previously used ids). Therefore, the probability of choosing \( id_1 \) for a new node in round \( iD \) is at most \( 1/n^2 \). Now suppose that a node that was present in the network in round \( iD - 1 \) elects itself as the leader in round \( iD \). Since, all such nodes are removed with probability 1/2, the lemma follows for this case.

In the second case, there is a leader \( \ell \) but other nodes are unaware. The leader \( \ell \) is removed in round \( iD \) with probability 1/2 before it gets a chance to inform other nodes that it is the leader. \( \square \)

**Theorem 1.** Let \( A \) be a randomized Las Vegas algorithm that achieves dynamic leader election. The probability that \( A \) terminates in at most \( iD \) rounds is at most \( 1 - \frac{1}{2^{i+1}} \). In particular, algorithm \( A \) requires \( \Omega(D\log n) \) rounds to guarantee termination with high probability.

**Proof:** Let \( A_i \) be the event that \( \bigcap_{\nu=0}^{iD-1} \nu \neq \emptyset \), i.e., some node remains in the network until round \( iD \). According to the adversarial strategy (cf. Algorithm 1) we have \( \Pr[A_i] = 2^{-i} \). Let \( B_{\ell} \) denote the event that there is no leader at the end of round \( iD \). Note that, if some node \( u \) has remained in the network and there is no leader in round \( iD \), then, by validity and stability, \( u \) has not set LEADER(\( u \)) at any point up to round \( iD \). Inductively applying Lemmas 1 and 2 shows that \( \Pr[B_{\ell}] \geq (1/2 - \varepsilon)^i \geq 4^{-i}, \) for any \( i > 0 \). In other words, the probability that some node (that remained in the network) has not yet set its leader variable at any point during \( [1,iD] \) is \( \Pr[A_i \cap B_{\ell}] \geq \frac{1}{2^{i+1}}. \) \( \square \)

### 4 Randomized Dynamic Leader Election

We now present a randomized algorithm for solving dynamic leader election that terminates with high probability in \( O(D\log n) \) rounds. The algorithm must be designed to maintain a leader as long as it is in the network and elect a new leader when the current leader leaves the network. The high level framework of the algorithm is as follows. When an elected leader is in the network, the leader floods out timestamped beep messages every round that are heard by all other nodes. When a node has heard beep messages with timestamp in the last \( D \) rounds, it assumes that the leader is still around. Otherwise, it can conclude that the leader has left the network and sets their leader variable to \( \perp \). A new election process then starts afresh during which the nodes elect a new leader. Algorithm 2 presents the detailed pseudo code.

Given the framework described above, we can focus on the leader election process which starts when the leader has left the network and a new leader must be elected. In general, all nodes are aware of the current round number and the leader election process will start at the next round number that is of the form \( 2iD + 1 \) for some integer \( i \). Given that our emphasis is on the leader election process, we will assume for simplicity that the leader election process starts at round number 1. Our algorithm operates in phases with each phase consisting of \( 2D \) rounds. The first phase is rounds 1 through \( 2D \) and the second phase is from rounds \( 2D + 1 \) through \( 4D \), and so on. In general, a round number of the form \( 2iD + 1 \) is the start of a new phase, and that phase ends in round \( 2(i+1)D \). Since all nodes see a common clock, the round numbers in which new phases begin is common knowledge.

In each phase, the network attempts to elect a leader. We say that the network is *successful* in a phase if a leader is elected (i.e., sets its own leader variable to itself) in the first \( D \) rounds and the leader
Algorithm 2 High level framework of the leader election algorithm.

1: for every round at every node $u$ do
2:   if leader = $u$ then
3:      Generate and flood a BEEP message every round under the condition that only the latest BEEP message is propagated and BEEPS older than $D$ rounds are discarded.
4:   else if the node $u$ has entered the network in the current round then
5:      Wait passively until one of the two events occur:
6:         If for a full phase (i.e., all 2D rounds of a phase) $u$ has not heard a beep timestamped in the last $D$ rounds then
7:            Become an active participant of the leader election process (Algorithm 3) starting from the next phase.
8:      else /* $u$ has received a beep message: */
9:         Set leader variable to the id contained in the latest beep message.
10:   else
11:      if no BEEP message from last $D$ rounds was heard then
12:         Start the election process (Algorithm 3) starting from the next phase.

stays in the network till the end of the phase. In a successful phase, the leader announces its leadership via timestamped beep messages sent out in (every round of) the second half of the phase. This ensures that the current leader election process has terminated. During a phase if either (i) no node elects itself as leader or (ii) if the elected leader leaves the network before the end of the phase, then we say that the network failed in that phase. In a failed phase, there is no guarantee that the leader election process would have terminated.

When a new node enters the network, it starts out as a passive participant because it will be unaware of whether a leader is present or not. If a passive participant hears a beep message with timestamp within last $D$ rounds, it will appropriately update its leader variable and cease to be passive. Alternatively, when a passive participant has been in the network for a full phase (i.e., all 2D rounds of some phase) without receiving such a message, it knows that a leader election process is still underway and becomes active starting from the next phase. When a node is passive, it will not be a candidate for becoming a leader, but, nevertheless, it participates in the algorithm by forwarding messages.

At the start of a new phase, each active node $u$ draws a random number from the exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda = 2^{p_u}$, where $p_u$ is the number of phases spent by that node in the current election process. We assume that the random numbers are generated with sufficient precision such that no two generated random numbers are equal. Each node then creates a message comprising its exponentially distributed random number and its unique id; we call this its rank message. Given two rank messages, we say that the rank message containing the smaller random number is the smaller rank message. The algorithm aims to elect the node that generated and flooded the smallest rank message as the leader. Towards this goal, each node broadcasts its rank message, but a node will only continue to send a message $m$, if $m$ is the smallest rank message it has encountered so far in the current phase.

\footnote{For simplicity, our description assumes that the exponential random numbers are generated by each node and the generated number is explicitly represented in the rank message. This explicit representation could blowup the number of bits in the rank messages. We note that exponential random numbers are typically generated from uniformly distributed random numbers. So instead of passing exponential random numbers explicitly, we can pass them implicitly by just passing the uniformly distributed random numbers, with the exponential random numbers computed at the destinations. An added advantage is that it is easy to see that $O(\log n)$ bits of the uniform random numbers is sufficient to ensure that two (implied exponential) random numbers will be equal with probability at most $1/n^k$ for any fixed $k$.}
Lemma 3. With probability at least \(1 - \frac{1}{n^k}\) for any fixed constant \(k\), \(O(\log n)\) sized rank messages are sufficient to ensure that there is at most one node \(\ell\) that survives the first \(D\) rounds of the phase and does not receive a rank message smaller than its own rank in the current phase.

Proof: We will argue under the condition that no two rank messages are equal (which happens with probability at most \(1/n^k\)). We only need to show that there cannot be two nodes \(\ell_1\) and \(\ell_2\) that satisfy the condition for \(\ell\) stated in the observation. Without loss of generality, suppose \(\ell_1\) generated the smaller random number and the corresponding rank message was flooded. Since both nodes remain in the network for \(D\) rounds, node \(\ell_2\) must have received that smaller rank message, thus leading to a contradiction. □

If this node \(\ell\) does not exist, then the phase has failed. If \(\ell\) exists, then, by comparing its own rank message with the smallest rank message, it can clearly detect that it is \(\ell\) and it elects itself the leader. In every subsequent round until \(\ell\) is removed from the network, \(\ell\) sends out a beep message containing its (unique) id and a timestamp to indicate its presence in the network. The beep messages are conditionally flooded with the condition <current beep has the latest time stamp amongst received beeps and the time stamp is within last \(D\) rounds>. Every other node therefore floods the latest beep message it has heard. Furthermore, if a node receives a beep message with a timestamp within the last \(D\) rounds, it sets its leader variable to \(\ell\)'s id. See Algorithm 3 for the detailed pseudo code.

Lemma 4. With high probability, Algorithm 2 guarantees agreement, validity, and stability.

Proof: Validity and stability conditions are quite straightforward. Validity holds because a node (that is not a leader) sets its leader variable only after hearing a beep message with timestamp in the last \(D\) rounds. Stability, similarly, holds because a node must have heard a beep timestamped within the last \(D\) rounds if the node was still in the network. Therefore, when it has not heard a beep with a timestamp in the last \(D\) rounds, it can safely conclude that the leader has left the network.

We now focus on the agreement condition. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that two nodes have their leader variables set to two different nodes \(\ell_1\) and \(\ell_2\). They have both been leaders in the last \(D\) rounds, which is not sufficient time for one leader to have left the network and another to have been elected leader. Therefore, they both considered themselves leaders in some round \(r\). This implies that either (i) they both elected themselves leaders in the same phase (which is not possible as a consequence of Lemma 3) or (ii) one of them (say \(\ell_1\) without loss of generality) was elected leader in a phase prior to the other. Since \(\ell_1\) is still in the network, it must have been sending beep messages every round since its election, which implies that another election process would not have started until round \(r\). Thus \(\ell_2\) could not have elected itself as leader. Thus no node can consider \(\ell_2\) as leader without violating the validity constraint, thereby leading to a contradiction. □

We would now like to show that the termination time of any node \(u\) that is without a leader is in \(O(D \log n)\) with high probability of the form \(1 - O(1/n)\). Towards this goal, we argue based on a node \(u\) whose leader variable is set to \(\bot\) either because it has just entered the network or has not heard a beep message in the last \(D\) rounds. We now state several assumptions, all made without any loss of generality.

1. We assume that \(u\) is active; it only takes one phase for it to turn active.
2. We assume that we are at the start of the first phase in which \(u\) is active and does not have a leader.
3. If \(u\) leaves the network within \(O(D \log n)\) rounds, then the termination claim holds vacuously. Therefore, we assume \(u\) remains in the network for at least \(kD \log n\) rounds for some sufficiently large constant \(k > 0\) that we will fix later.
4. Finally, we assume that at time step \(kD \log n\), no node has been active and without a leader for longer than \(u\). If such a node existed, then we would base our analysis on that node rather than \(u\).
Algorithm 3 Protocol executed by every node $u$ in a phase of the leader election process.

First $D$ rounds of the phase:
1: Let $p_u$ denote the number of phases that $u$ has been active in the current leader election process.
2: Generate a random number drawn from the exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda_u = 2^{p_u}$.
3: Broadcast a rank message containing $u$’s id and the generated random number.
4: During the first $D$ rounds, $u$ broadcasts the smallest rank message encountered so far.

At the end of first $D$ rounds of the phase:
5: if the smallest rank message was generated by $u$ then
6: Node $u$ concludes that it is the unique node $\ell$ (cf. Lemma 3)
7: Set leader variable to self.
8: Generate and flood a BEEP message every round under the condition that only the latest BEEP message is propagated and BEEPs older than $D$ rounds are discarded.
9: Exit the leader election process and return to Algorithm 2.
else
11: Node $u$ knows it is not $\ell$.

Second $D$ rounds of the phase:
12: /* The following code is executed only by non-$\ell$ nodes */
13: for each round of the second $D$ rounds of the phase do
14: if at least one BEEP was received then
15: $B \leftarrow$ the BEEP with the latest time stamp among the set of BEEPs received so far in this phase.
16: /* Since BEEPs are designed to be discarded in $D$ rounds, $B$ must have been generated in the current phase. */
17: Set leader variable to the id contained in $B$.
18: Broadcast $B$.
19: Exit the leader election process and return to Algorithm 2.

Our goal now is to show that, within these $kD \log n$ rounds, $u$ elects a leader with high probability.

For analysis purposes, color the nodes in the graph in round $1 + (k-4)D \log n$ blue. In particular, $u$ is colored blue. The focus of our analysis will be the $2\log n$ phases from round $1 + (k-4)D \log n$ to round $kD \log n$; we call these $2\log n$ phases critical. Our next lemma shows that the probability with which a non-blue node produces the smallest random number during any one of these critical phases is very small. Before we state the lemma, we recall a fundamental property of the minimum value of $m$ exponential random numbers (cf. Chapter 8 in [17]). Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m$ be $m$ exponential random variables with parameters $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_m$, respectively. The probability that $X_i$, $i \in [m]$, is the smallest among all the $m$ random variables is given by:

$$\Pr(\min\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m\} = X_i) = \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \ldots + \lambda_m}.$$

Lemma 5. Given that $k$ is a sufficiently large constant, the probability that a non-blue node draws the smallest random number in any one of the critical phases is at most $1/n^7$, where $\gamma$ is a constant depending only on $k$.

Proof: Recall that we have assumed $u$ will remain in the network until round $kD \log n$. To maximize the probability that a non-blue node is chosen as leader, we must consider the case when all blue nodes
other than $u$ are replaced by non-blue nodes starting from the first critical phase. Such non-blue nodes can generate exponential random numbers with parameters at most $2^{2\log n} = n^2$ during the $2\log n$ critical phases because they could have entered the network in the first critical phase or sometime thereafter. Node $u$ on the other hand will generate exponential random numbers with a parameter no less than $2^{(k-4)/2} = n^{(k-4)/2}$. Using Equation 1, we see that a non-blue node $v$ will draw the smallest random number in a critical phase with probability at most

$$\frac{n^2}{n^{(k-4)/2} + (n-1)n^2} < \frac{1}{n^{k-4}/2 - 1}.$$ 

Using the union bound over all non-blue nodes and over all critical phases, we can conclude that the probability that a non-blue node will draw the smallest random number in any of the critical phases is at most $1/(n^{k-4}/2 - 1) \leq 1/n^\gamma$ for any constant $\gamma$ provided $k$ is sufficiently large. In particular, when $k \geq 14$, the probability is at most $1/n$. □

In light of Lemma 5, we condition the rest of our analysis on the event that a blue node generates the smallest random number in every critical phase — an event that occurs with probability $(1 - 1/n)$ when $k \geq 14$. Recall that we defined a phase to be successful if a leader was elected in that phase and the leader remained in the network till the end of the phase; otherwise, the phase is said to be a failure. Our goal now is to show that regardless of the strategy employed by the adversary, with high probability, there will be a critical phase that is successful.

**Lemma 6.** Regardless of the strategy employed by the oblivious adversary, at least $\log n$ (out of the $2\log n$) critical phases are each successful with probability at least $1/2$.

**Proof:** Define the following time-varying function

$$\Psi(r) = \frac{\sum_{b \in B(r)} 2^{p_b}}{2^{p_u}},$$

where $B(r)$ is the set of blue nodes in round $r$ and $p_b$ is the number of phases that node $b$ has been active in the current leader election process at the start of round $r$. We now state three properties of $\Psi$.

1. Recall that no node has been active in the current leader election process for longer than $u$. Therefore, the value of $\Psi$ at the start of the first critical phase is no more than $n$.
2. Since (i) the number of blue nodes cannot increase and (ii) $p_u \geq p_b$ for every $b \in B$ at all times in the critical phases, $\Psi$ decreases monotonically with respect to time.
3. However, since we have assumed that $u$ is in the network till the end of round $kD \log n$, $\Psi$ is always at least 1.

Consider any particular critical phase. Let $B_{\text{start}}$ be the set of blue nodes in the start of the phase in consideration and $B_{\text{end}}$ be the set of blue nodes at the end of the phase. Let $\Psi_{\text{curr}}$ be the value of $\Psi$ at the start of the current phase in consideration and $\Psi_{\text{next}}$ be the value of $\Psi$ at the start of the phase immediately succeeding the current phase in consideration. Suppose the adversary enforces a strategy of removing nodes such that the probability of success is less than $1/2$. Since we are conditioning on the event that only blue nodes generate the smallest random numbers, applying Equation 1 the probability that the phase in consideration is a success is given by

$$\frac{\sum_{b' \in B_{\text{end}}} 2^{p_{b'}}}{\sum_{b \in B_{\text{start}}} 2^{p_b}} < \frac{1}{2}.$$  (2)
where $p_b$ is the number of phases in which $b$ has been active in the current leader election process at the start of the phase in consideration.

\[
\Psi_{\text{next}} = \left( \sum_{b \in B_{\text{end}}} 2^{p_b} \right)^{1/2} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{b \in B_{\text{end}}} 2^{p_b} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{\Psi_{\text{curr}}}{2}. \quad \text{(by Equation 2)}
\]

Thus, $\Psi$ reduces by a factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ in each phase in which the adversary employs a strategy to reduce the probability of success to less than $\frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, it follows that the number of critical phases that are successful with probability at least $\frac{1}{2}$ is at least $\log n$. □

Clearly, the probability that none of those critical phases with success probability at least $\frac{1}{2}$ will be successful is at most $\frac{1}{n}$. Removing the conditioning that only blue nodes generate the smallest random numbers and no two random numbers generate the same exponentially distributed random numbers, we get the following result.

**Theorem 2.** Algorithm 2 solves dynamic leader election and terminates in $O(D \log n)$ rounds with high probability.

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