Comparing Maintenance Strategies for Overlays

Supriya Krishnamurthy, Sameh El-Ansary, Erik Aurell and Seif Haridi

1 Swedish Institute of Computer Science (SICS), Sweden
2 Department of Computational Biology, KTH-Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden
3 IMIT, KTH-Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden
{supriya,sameh,eaurell,seif}@sics.se

Abstract—In this paper, we present an analytical tool for understanding the performance of structured overlay networks under churn based on the master-equation approach of physics. We motivate and derive an equation for the average number of hops taken by lookups during churn, for the Chord network. We analyse this equation in detail to understand the behaviour with and without churn. We then use this understanding to predict how lookups will scale for varying peer population as well as varying the sizes of the routing tables. We then consider a change in the maintenance algorithm of the overlay, from periodic stabilisation to a reactive one which corrects fingers only when a change is detected. We generalise our earlier analysis to understand how the reactive strategy compares with the periodic one.

I. INTRODUCTION

A crucial part of assessing the performance of a structured P2P system (aka DHT) is evaluating how it copes with churn. Extensive simulation is currently the prevalent tool for gaining such knowledge. Examples include the work of Li et al. [10], Rhea et al. [12], and Rowstron et al. [5]. There has also been some theoretical analyses done, albeit less frequently. For instance, Liben-Nowell et al. [11] prove a lower bound on the maintenance rate required for a network to remain connected in the face of a given churn rate. Asnnes et al. [4] give upper and lower bounds on the number of messages needed to locate a node/data item in a DHT in the presence of node or link failures. The value of theoretical studies of this nature is that they provide insights neutral to the details of any particular DHT.

We have chosen to adopt a slightly different approach to theoretical work on DHTs. We concentrate not on establishing bounds, but rather on a more precise prediction of the relevant quantities in such dynamically evolving systems. Our approach is based mainly on the Master-Equation approach used in the analysis of physical systems. We have previously introduced our approach in in [7], [8] where we presented a detailed analysis of the Chord system [13]. In this paper, we show that the approach is applicable to other systems as well. We do this by comparing the periodic stabilization maintenance technique of Chord with the correction-on-change maintenance technique of DKS [3].

Due to space limitations, we assume reader familiarity with Chord and DKS, including such terminology as successors, finger starts and finger nodes etc.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. In Section II we introduce the Master-Equation approach. In Section III we mention some related work. In section IV we begin by briefly reviewing some of our previously published results on predicting the performance of the Chord network as a function of the failed pointers in the system in the case that the nodes use a periodic maintenance scheme. We then show some new results on how this complicated equation can be simplified to get quick predictions for varying number of peers and varying number of links per node. We relegate some of the details of this analysis to Appendix VII. In section V we explain how to use the Master-Equation approach to analyse the reactive maintenance strategy of interest and present our results on how this strategy compares with the periodic case analysed earlier. We summarise our results in Section VI.

II. THE MASTER-EQUATION APPROACH FOR STRUCTURED OVERLAYS

In a complicated system like a P2P network, in which there are many participants, and in which there are many inter-leaved processes happening in time, predicting the state of the network (or of any quantity of interest) can at best be done by specifying the probability distribution function (PDF) of the quantity in the steady state (when the system, though changing continually in time, is stationary on average). For example, one quantity of interest for us when analysing such a network, is the fraction of failed links between nodes, in the steady state. This quantity does not take some deterministic value in the steady state. Instead it is specified by a PDF, which can then be used to determine the average value. The problem is thus to calculate the PDF (and then to understand how it affects the performance of the network, as explained below).

In general this is not an easy task, since the probability is affected by a number of inter-leaved processes in any time-varying system. In [7], [8], we demonstrated how we could analyse a P2P network like Chord [13], using a Master-Equation based approach. This approach is generally used in physics to understand a system evolving in time, by means of equations specifying the time-evolution of the probabilities of finding the system in a specific state. These equations require as an input, the rates of various processes affecting the state of the system. For example, in a peer-to-peer network, these processes could be the join and failure rates of the member nodes, the rate at which each node performs maintenance as
well as the rate at which lookups are done in the network (the latter rate is relevant only if the lookups affect the state of the network in some way). Given these rates, the equation for the time-evolution of the probability of the quantity of interest can be written by keeping track of how these rates affect this quantity (such as the number of failed pointers in the system) in an infinitesimal interval of time, when only a limited number of processes (typically one) can be expected to occur simultaneously.

With this approach, we were able to quantify very accurately the probabilities of any connection in the network (either fingers or successors) having failed. We then demonstrated how we could use this information to predict the performance of the network—the number of hops including time outs which a lookup takes on average — as a function of the rates (of join, failure and stabilization) of all the processes happening in the network, as well as of all the parameters specifying the network (such as how many pointers a node has on average). The analysis was done for a specific maintenance strategy, called periodic maintenance (or eager maintenance).

In this paper, we generalise our approach so as to be able to compare networks using different maintenance strategies. In particular, we compare our earlier results for periodic maintenance with a reactive maintenance strategy proposed in [6]. Combining this with some of our previous results, we are also, as a by product, able to compare the performance of networks specified by different numbers of peers, different number of pointers per node and/or different maintenance strategies. As we show below, which system is better depends both on the value of the parameters as well as the level of churn. The approach we propose is thus a useful tool for the quantitative and fair comparison of networks specified by different parameters and using different algorithms.

III. RELATED WORK

In [2], an analysis, very similar in spirit to the one done in this paper, is carried out in the context of P-Grid [1]. An equation is written for system performance in the state of dynamic equilibrium for various maintenance strategies. However for each maintenance strategy, the analysis has to be entirely redone. In contrast, a master equation description provides a foundation for the theoretical analysis of overlays, which does not have to be entirely rebuilt each time any given algorithm is changed. As we show in this paper, we can carry over a lot of our earlier analysis, when the maintenance scheme is changed from a periodic to a reactive one. In addition, the master equation description can be made arbitrarily precise to include non-linear effects as well. And as we show, non linear effects are important when churn is high.

IV. THE LOOKUP EQUATION FOR CHORD

We quantify the performance of the network, by the number of hops required on average from the originator of the query to the node with the answer. This is just the total number of nodes contacted per query (or equivalently, the total number of pointers used per query) including the total number of failed pointers used en route. This latter quantity (which arises because of the churn in the network) is the reason that the hop count per query increases with high dynamism and is hence an important quantity to understand. In the case of the periodic maintenance scheme, this quantity is a function of $(1 - \beta) r$ where $r$ is the ratio of the stabilisation rate to the join (or failure) rate and $1 - \beta$ is the fraction of times a node stabilises its finger, when performing maintenance, as mentioned in Section I. We demonstrate how this quantity can be calculated in Section IV in the context of the reactive maintenance policy, which is a simple generalisation of how it is calculated earlier in [7], [8], for the periodic maintenance scheme. In this section, we briefly review our earlier results on how the performance of the network (as exemplified by the average hopcount per query), can be determined once the fraction of failed pointers is known.

The key to predicting the performance of the network is to write a recursive equation for the expected cost $C_t(r, \beta)$ (also denoted $C_t$) for a given node to reach some target, $t$ keys away from it. (For example, $C_1$ is the cost of looking up the adjacent key which is 1 key away).

The Lookup Equation for the expected cost of reaching a general distance $t$ is then derived by following closely the Chord protocol which is a greedy strategy designed to reduce the distance to the query at every step without overshooting the target. A lookup for $t$ thus proceeds by first finding the closest preceding finger. The node that this finger points to is then asked to continue the query, if it is alive. If this node is dead, the originator of the query uses the next closest preceding finger and the query proceeds in this manner.

For the purposes of the analysis, it is easier to think in terms of the closest preceding start. Let us hence define $\xi$ to be the start of the finger (say the $k^{th}$) that most closely precedes $t$. Hence $\xi = 2^{k-1} + n$ and $t = \xi + m$, i.e. there are $m$ keys between the sought target $t$ and the start of the most closely preceding finger. With that, we can write a recursion relation for $C_{\xi + m}$ as follows:

$$C_{\xi + m} = C_{\xi} [1 - a(m)] + (1 - f_k) a(m) \left[ 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} bc(i, m)C_{m-i} \right] + f_k a(m) \left[ 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} h_k(i) \right]$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\xi/2^{l-1}} bc(l, \xi/2^l) (1 + (i - 1) + C_{\xi, l-i+m}) + O(h_k(k))$$

where $\xi_i \equiv \sum_{m=1}^{l-1} \xi/2^m$ and $h_k(i)$ is the probability that a node is forced to use its $k-i^{th}$ finger owing to the death of its $k^{th}$ finger.

The probabilities $a, bc$ can be derived from the internode interval distribution [7], [8] which is just the distribution of distances between adjacent nodes. Given a ring of $K$ keys and $N$ nodes (on average), where nodes can join and leave independently, the probability that two adjacent nodes are a distance $x$ apart on the ring is simply $P(x) = \rho^{x-1} (1 - \rho)$ where $\rho = \frac{2}{K}$. Using this distribution, its easy to estimate.
the probability that there is definitely at least one node in an interval of length \( x \). This is: \( a(x) \equiv 1 - \rho^x \). The probability that the first node encountered from any key is at a distance \( i \) from that key is then \( b_i \equiv \rho^i (1 - \rho) \). Hence the conditional probability that the first node from a given key is at a distance \( i \) given that there is at least one node in the interval is \( bc(i, x) \equiv b(i)/a(x) \).

The probability \( h_k(i) \) is easy to compute given the probability \( a \) as well as the probabilities \( f_k \)'s of the \( k \)-th finger being dead.

\[
h_k(i) = a(\xi/2^i)(1 - f_{k-i})
\]

\[
	\times \Pi_{s=1, i-1}(1 - a(\xi/2^s) + a(\xi/2^s)f_{k-s}), i < k \quad (2)
\]

\[
h_k(k) = \Pi_{s=1, k-1}(1 - a(\xi/2^s) + a(\xi/2^s)f_{k-s})
\]

Eqn 2 accounts for all the cases in which a node may have to use its \( k - i \)-th finger instead of its \( k \)-th finger. This can happen because the intervening fingers were either dead or not distinct (fingers \( k \) and \( k - 1 \) are not distinct in this case). The probabilities \( h_k(i) \) satisfy the constraint \( \sum_{i=1}^{K} h_k(i) = 1 \). \( h_k(k) \), is the probability that a node cannot use any earlier entry in its finger table, in which case it has to fall back on its successor list instead. We indicate this case by the last term in Eq. 1 which is \( O(h_k(k)) \). In practice, the probability for this is extremely small except for targets very close to \( n \). Hence this does not significantly affect the value of general lookups and we ignore it for the moment.

The cost for general lookups is

\[
L(r, \beta) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{K-1} C_i(r, \beta)}{K}
\]

The lookup equation is solved recursively numerically, using the expressions for \( a, bc, h_k(i) \) and \( C_1 \). In Fig. 1 we have plotted the theoretical prediction of Equation 1 versus what we get from simulating Chord. Here we have used \( N \sim 1000 \) and \( K = 2^20 \). As can be seen the theoretical results match the simulated results very well.

In Fig. 2 we also show the theoretical predictions for some larger values of \( N \).

On general grounds, it is easy to argue from the structure of Equation 1 that the dependence of the average lookup on churn comes entirely from the presence of the terms \( f_k \). Since \( f_k \sim f \) is independent of \( k \) for large fingers, we can approximate the average lookup length by the functional form

\[
L(r, \beta) = A + Bf + Cf^2 + \cdots
\]

The coefficients \( A, B, C \) etc can be recursively computed by solving the lookup equation to the required order in \( f \). They depend only on \( N \) the number of nodes, \( 1 - \rho \) the density of peers and \( b \) the base or equivalently the size of the finger table of each node. The advantage of writing the lookup length this way is that churn-specific details such as how new joinees construct a finger table or how exactly stabilizations are done in the system, can be isolated in the expression for \( f \). If we were to change our stabilization strategy, as we will demonstrate below, we could immediately estimate the lookup length by plugging in the new expression for \( f \) in the above relation.

Another advantage of having a simple expression such as the above, is that if we can estimate \( A, B, C \cdots \) accurately, we can use the expression for \( L \) to estimate the churn (or the value of \( r \)) in the system, hence using a local measure to estimate a global quantity. The logic in doing so is the inverse of the reasoning we have used so far. So far, we have used the churn as the input for finding \( f_k \) and hence \( L \). But we can also reverse the logic and try and estimate churn, if we know the value of the average lookup length \( L \). If \( L \) has the above simple expression, then given \( A \) and \( B \) to \( O(f) \), we have \( f = \frac{L - A}{B} \). From the expression for \( f \) (see section V for how to evaluate \( f \)), we can now get the value of \( r \). Hence any peer can make an estimate of the churn that the system is facing if it knows how long its lookups are taking on average, and if it has an estimate of \( N \).

To get \( A \), we need to consider Eqn 1 with no churn (all \( f_k \)'s set to zero). In Appendix VII we study the lookup equation 1 in some detail to understand the behaviour without churn and
obtain the value of $A$ for any base $b$. This is useful on several counts. First, the value of $A$ is needed to predict the lookup costs as explained above. Secondly, if $b$ changes (a system of base $b$ has a finger table of size $M = (b - 1)\log_b(K)$), all else remaining the same, the only major change in the lookup cost is due to the change in $A$. So estimating $A$ precisely has the benefit that we can predict the lookup cost for any base $b$. Thirdly, the analysis confirms that Equation [1] does indeed reproduce well known results for the lookup hop count in Chord, such as for example, that the average lookup cost is $0.5 + \log(N)$ without churn [13].

Increasing the base beyond this does not seem to improve the cost. The discrepancy between this finding and ours is due to the details of the periodic maintenance scheme which we use. In our case, we have taken the simplest scenario in which each node needs to stabilise $M$ fingers and the order in which this is done is random. In practice only $\sim \log N$ stabilisations need be done by each node. In addition, in [9], finger stabilisations are done only if the finger is pinged and found to be dead.

V. ‘Correction-on-Change’ Maintenance Strategy

In this section, we analyse a different maintenance strategy using the master-equation formalism. The strategy we have analysed so far is periodic stabilisation of successors as well as fingers. We now consider a strategy where a node periodically stabilises its successors but does not do so for its fingers. Instead, for maintaining its fingers, it relies on other nodes for updates [6]. Whenever a node $n$ detects that its first successor $n,s_1$ is wrong (failed or incorrect), it sends out messages to all the nodes that are pointing to its wrong first successor, so that they can update their affected finger. The node sending...
messages can either do so by broadcasting these messages to all affected nodes simultaneously, or by scheduling messages periodically at some rate. We analyse the latter option in this paper, since it provides a more intuitive and broader framework for the comparison of the two schemes.

For a system with $id$-size $K$, there are of the order of $M = \log_2 K$ fingers pointing to any node (there can be more than this if node spacings are smaller than average). However, as we argue below, for our purpose this is not important. Of course, not all $M$ of these fingers are distinct. Several of these fingers belong to node $n$ itself. However to keep the analysis simple (and in keeping with the spirit of our analysis of the periodic stabilisation scheme), we assume that every node that detects a wrong successor needs to send out exactly $M$ messages (even if some of these ‘messages’ are sent to itself).

To find out where the nodes that point to $n_s1$ are located, $n$ needs to do a lookup. For example, to find the node with the $k^{th}$ finger pointing to $n_s1$, $n$ can do a lookup for the id $n - 2^k - 1$. On obtaining the first successor (lets call it node $p$) of this id, it would immediately know if the $k^{th}$ finger of $p$ indeed needs to be updated. We think of each lookup as a ‘correction message’. If there is more than one node that needs its $k^{th}$ successor updated (because for example, the successors of $p$ also happen to point to $n_s1$), $n$ could leave the responsibility of informing these other nodes to $p$. We could take into account the probability that a correction action leads to more than $M$ messages. But for the moment we ignore this point (We could argue that once it is $p$’s responsibilities to check that its successors know about $n_s1$, it could piggyback this information when it does a successor stabilisation, which does not affect the number of messages sent).

Whenever a node receives a message updating its information about a finger, it immediately corrects the appropriate entry in its routing table.

In the following, we demonstrate how we can analyse such a strategy. We would like to ultimately compare its performance to periodic stabilisation in the face of churn. To make such a comparison meaningful, we need to quantify the concept of ‘maintenance-effort’ per node, and compare the two schemes at a given level of churn and at the same value of the maintenance effort per node. We elaborate on this a little later in Section V.B.

Another point to note is how to quantify system performance. We have previously done it in terms of lookup hops. But a more correct way might be to ask for the latency for consistent lookups (since some of the lookups could be inconsistent). However we have checked that, within our analytical framework, this does not change the results qualitatively.

### A. Analysis of the Correction-on-change strategy

To generalise the analysis to meet the situation when some nodes are sending messages while others are not, we say that a node can be in state $S_1$ or $S_2$. In state $S_1$, a node can stabilise its first successor at rate $\alpha \lambda_s$, fail at rate $\lambda_f$ and assist in joins at rate $\lambda_j$ as before. In state $S_2$, a node can stabilise its first successor at rate $a\lambda_s$, fail at rate $\lambda_f$, assist in joins at rate $\lambda_j$ and in addition, send correction messages (which is essentially equivalent to doing one lookup) at rate $\lambda_M = c \lambda_s$.

As we show in Section V.B if we want to compare the two maintenance strategies in a fair manner then the most general values that these parameters can take is $\alpha = 1$ and $c + \alpha = 1$.

Let $N_{S_i}$ be the number of nodes in state $S_1$ and $N_{S_2}$ the number of nodes in state $S_2$. Clearly $N_{S_1} + N_{S_2} = N$, the total number of nodes in the system.

We can further partition $S_2$ into $S_2^1, S_2^2, S_2^3, \ldots, S_2^{M}$. $S_2^1$ is the state of the node which has yet to send its first correction message, $S_2^2$ the state of the node which has sent its first correction message but is yet to send its second, etc.

Consider the gain and loss terms for $N_{S_1}$. These are summarised in Table I.

| $N_{S_1}(t + \Delta t)$ | Probability of Occurrence |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| $N_{S_1}(t) - 1$        | $c_{1,1} = (\lambda_f N_{S_1}) \Delta t$ |
| $N_{S_1}(t) + 1$        | $c_{1,2} = (\lambda_f N_{S_1}) \Delta t$ |
| $N_{S_2}(t) + 1$        | $\lambda_M N_{S_1} \Delta t + \lambda_f N_{S_1} \Delta t + \lambda_j N_{S_1} \Delta t = 1 - (c_{1,1} + c_{1,2} + c_{1,3} + c_{1,4})$ |

TABLE I

Gain and Loss terms for $N_{S_1}$, the number of nodes in state $S_1$.

Term $c_{1,1}$ is the probability that an $S_1$ node is lost because it failed. Term $c_{1,2}$ is the probability that a join occurs thus adding to the number of $S_1$ nodes in the system (since a new joinee is always an $S_1$-type node). Term $c_{1,3}$ is the probability that an $S_2^M$ node sent its last message at rate $\lambda_M$ and converted into an $S_1$ node. The last term $c_{1,4}$ is the probability that an $S_1$-type node did a stabilisation at rate $\alpha \lambda_s$, found a wrong first successor with probability $w_1$ and hence converted into an $S_2$ node. $w_1$ is the fraction of wrong successor pointers of an $S_1$-type node.

Defining $\lambda_s / \lambda_f = r$ and $\lambda_M / \lambda_f = cr$ the steady state equation predicted by table II is:

$$P_{S_1}(1 + crw_1) = 1 + crP_{S_2^M}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $P_{S_1} = N_{S_1}/N$.

We can write a similar equation $N_{S_2}$ which however does not give us any new information since $N_{S_1} + N_{S_2} = N$.

Writing a gain-loss equation for each of the $N_{S_2^i}$’s in turn, we obtain,

$$P_{S_2^i} = P_{S_2^i} \frac{P_{S_1}(arw_1 - arw_1')}{1 + cr + arw_1'} + \frac{arw_1'}{1 + cr + arw_1'}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

and

$$P_{S_2} = P_{S_2} \left( \frac{cr}{1 + cr + arw_1'} \right)^{i-1}$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

, for $2 \leq i \leq M$.

Here $w_1$ is the fraction of $S_1$ nodes with wrong pointers and $w_1'$ is the fraction of $S_2$ nodes with wrong pointers. We have made a simplification here in assuming that the fraction of wrong pointers of $S_2$ nodes is the same, irrespective of the state of the $S_2$ node. In practice (especially if $\alpha = 0$), this will not be the case. However for the parameter ranges we are interested in ($r > 1$), this is not crucial.
TABLE II
GAIN AND LOSS TERMS FOR $W_T$: THE TOTAL NUMBER OF WRONG FIRST SUCCESSOR POINTERS IN THE SYSTEM.

| Change in $W_T$ | Probability of Occurrence |
|-----------------|---------------------------|
| $W_T(t + \Delta t) = W_T(t) + 1$ | $c_{2.1} = (\lambda_N \Delta t)(1 - w)$ |
| $W_T(t + \Delta t) = W_T(t) + 1$ | $c_{2.2} = (\lambda_N \Delta t)(1 - w)^2$ |
| $W_T(t + \Delta t) = W_T(t) - 1$ | $c_{2.3} = (\lambda_N \Delta t)$ |
| $W_T(t + \Delta t) = W_T(t)$ | $c_{2.4} = (\alpha \lambda N \Delta t) N_{S_1} w_1 + (\alpha \lambda N \Delta t) N_{S_2} w'_1$ |
| $W_T(t + \Delta t) = W_T(t)$ | $1 - (c_{2.1} + c_{2.2} + c_{2.3} + c_{2.4})$ |

TABLE III
GAIN AND LOSS TERMS FOR $W'_1$: THE NUMBER OF WRONG FIRST SUCCESSOR POINTERS OF $S_2$-TYPE NODES.

| Change in $W'_1$ | Probability of Occurrence |
|-----------------|---------------------------|
| $W'_1(t + \Delta t) = W'_1(t) + 1$ | $c_{2.1} = \lambda_N N_{S_2} \Delta t (1 - w')$ |
| $W'_1(t + \Delta t) = W'_1(t) + 1$ | $c_{2.2} = \lambda_N N_{S_2} (1 - w')^2 \nu_{S_2}$ |
| $W'_1(t + \Delta t) = W'_1(t) - 1$ | $c_{2.3} = \lambda_N N_{S_2} (w'_3 \nu_{S_2} + w'_1 \nu_{S_2} \nu_{S_1}) \Delta t$ |
| $W'_1(t + \Delta t) = W'_1(t) - 1$ | $c_{2.4} = \alpha \lambda_N N_{S_2} w'_1 \nu_{S_2} \Delta t$ |
| $W'_1(t + \Delta t) = W'_1(t)$ | $c_{2.5} = \lambda_M N_{S_2} \nu_{S_2} \Delta t$ |
| $W'_1(t + \Delta t) = W'_1(t)$ | $1 - (c_{2.1} + c_{2.2} + c_{2.3} + c_{2.4} + c_{2.5})$ |

Clearly $\sum_{i=1}^{M} P'_{S_2} = P_{S_2}$. A quantity of interest in our analysis is

$$P_{S'_{M}} / P_{S_2} = 1 - \frac{(1 - g_1^{M-1})}{1 - g_1^M} \tag{6}$$

where $g_1 = \frac{ue}{(1 + er + au'w'_1)}$.

To solve for $P_{S_1}$ etc., we need to solve for $w_1$ and $w'_1$.

However, consider first the equation for $W'_1$ — the total number of wrong successor pointers in the system (irrespective of whether the pointer belongs to an $S_1$ or an $S_2$ type node. The gain and loss terms for $W'_1$ are shown in table III. $w = W'_1/N$ is the fraction of wrong successor pointers in the system.

This gives the following equation

$$(3 + ar)w_1 P_{S_1} + (3 + ar)w'_1 P_{S_2} = 2 \tag{7}$$

The gain and loss terms $W'_1$, the number of $S_2$ nodes with wrong successor pointers — are written in much the same way except for a few small changes. Table III details the changes that occur in $W'_1$ in time $\Delta t$.

The terms here are much the same as derived earlier except that now we have to keep track of whether the node that is failing (in terms $c_{2.2}$ and $c_{2.3}$) is an $S_1$ or an $S_2$ type node. In addition term $c_{2.5}$ is the probability that an $S_2$-type node has a wrong successor pointer, but sends a message and hence turns into an $S_1$ node with a wrong pointer.

Table III gives us the following equation for $w'_1$ in the steady state

$$2 = w'_1 \left(3 + ar + cr \frac{P_{S'_{M}}}{P_{S_2}}\right) + (w_1 - w'_1) P_{S_1} \tag{8}$$

We can write a similar equation for $w_1$ which however does not contain any new information since $w_1$ and $w'_1$ satisfy equation 7.

So in effect we have three equations, Eqn. 3, Eq. 7 and 8 for three unknowns $P_{S_1}$, $w_1$ and $w'_1$. In practice this set of equations is very hard to solve exactly because of the appearance of terms such as $g_1^M$ in Eq. 6.

In the following we will solve the set of equation to $O(1/r)$ by expanding Eq. 6 to first order in $w'_1$. In this case,

$$P_{S'_{M}} / P_{S_2} = \frac{1}{M} \left(\frac{M - 1}{2M}\right) \frac{1 + aw'_1}{cr} \tag{9}$$

We can now solve the set of three coupled equations to get a quartic equation for $w'_1$ as a function of $a, r, M$ and $r$. Only one of the roots of the quartic equation is a true solution satisfying all the conditions above. The details of the calculations though straightforward are tedious and not shown here.

To calculate the cost of lookups, we still need to calculate the probability that a finger is dead. The loss and gain terms for this calculation are almost exactly the same as carried out earlier, in [7], [8] (except for term $c_{3.2}$) and are shown in table IV.

The term $c_{3.2}$ is the probability that a message is sent ($\lambda_M N_{S_2}$) times the probability that a $k^{th}$ pointer gets this message (with probability $f_k/\sum f_k$ since only nodes with wrong pointers get the messages), times the probability that the message is not outdated ($1 - w'_1$), times the probability that the predecessor of the node which has to receive the message has a correct successor pointer. This last quantity is denoted by $A(w_1, w'_1) = 1 - (w_1 P_{S_1} + w'_1 P_{S_2})$, since the predecessor could have been an $S_1$ or an $S_2$ type node.

An estimate for $\sum f_k$ is simply $\sim MN_{S_2}/N$. Substituting this in term $c_{3.2}$, this term becomes $\lambda_M N \Delta t (f_k/M)(1 - w'_1) A(w_1, w'_1)$.

Solving for $f_k$ in the steady state, and substituting for $w'_1$, we get $f_k$ as a function of the parameters. As mentioned earlier a quick and precise estimate of the lookup length is then obtained by taking $L = A(1 + f + 3 f^2)$.

B. Comparison of Correction-on-change and Periodic Stabilisation

In order to compare how the two strategies perform under churn, we need to make sure that we are comparing lookup latencies for the same number of total maintenance messages sent.

Let us assume that the maximum rate for sending messages per node is $C$. In the case of periodic stabilisation, this implies that the rate of doing successor stabilisations $\lambda_{s_1}$ and finger stabilisations $\lambda_{s_2}$ must in total not exceed $C$. This implies that $\lambda_{s_1}/C + \lambda_{s_2}/C \leq 1$. If we assume that all nodes always
send messages up to their maximum capacity, then clearly $\lambda_s/C + \lambda_s/C = 1$. Suppose we define $r \equiv C/\lambda_j$ and $r \equiv \lambda_s/\lambda_j$. Then for a given value of $r$, $r_1 + r_2 = r$. Hence if finger stabilisations are done at rate $(1 - \beta)r$, the successor stabilisations need to be done at rate $\beta r$, where the parameter $\beta$ can be varied from 0 to 1.

In the case of correction-on-change, we need to impose the same maximum rate $C$ no matter which state the nodes are in. In this case, let $\lambda_{S_1}$ be the rate of successor stabilisation in state $S_1$, $\lambda_{S_2}$ the rate of successor stabilisation in state $S_2$ and $\lambda_{S_3}$ be the rate of sending messages in state $S_2$. Clearly $\lambda_{S_1} = C$ and $\lambda_{S_2} + \lambda_{S_3} = C$. Defining $r$ as before, we get $\lambda_{S_1}/\lambda_j = r$ and $\lambda_{S_2}/\lambda_j + \lambda_{S_3}/\lambda_j = r$. Hence comparing with our parameters $\alpha = 1$ and $a + c = 1$.

In Fig. 5 we have plotted the function $L = A(1 + f + 3f^2)$ with the value of the lookup length without churn $A = 5.846$ for $N = 1000$ nodes, for $a = 0$ (and $c = 1$) and for $\beta = 0.4$. $f$ is calculated separately for the two maintenance techniques.

As can be seen, correction-on-change is better than periodic stabilisation when churn is low but not when churn is high. On comparing lookup lengths for several different $\alpha$, it becomes evident (see yFig. 5) that $\alpha \sim 0.2$ is the optimum value for the correction-on-change strategy.

So interestingly, for nodes in state $S_2$, it is not the best strategy to increase $c$ as much as possible. Its a better strategy to spend some of the bandwidth on maintaining a correct successor.

VI. SUMMARY

In summary, we have demonstrated the usefulness of the master-equation approach for understanding churn in overlay networks. Our analysis can take into account most details of the algorithms used by these networks, to provide predictions for how the performance depends on the parameters. There are several directions in which we can extend the present analysis. One of the more important ones is to model congestion on the links. This could affect the performance of the two compared maintenance strategies differently. The periodic case may not be as affected as much as the reactive case, which could suffer from congestion collapse.

Acknowledgments We would like to thank Ali Ghodsi for several very useful discussions.

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THEORY AND SIMULATION FOR THE LOOKUP COST WITHOUT CHURN FOR A KEY SPACE OF SIZE $K = 2^{14}$ FOR VARYING $N$. PLOTTED AS REFERENCE IS THE CURVE $0.5 \log_2(N)$. NOTE THAT ON THE $Y$ AXIS WE HAVE ACTUALLY PLOTTED $L - 1$ FOR CONVENIENCE.

VII. APPENDIX

Equation (1) with the churn-dependent terms set to zero becomes:

$$C_{\xi+m} = C_{\xi} [1 - a(m)] + a(m) + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} b(i) C_{m-i-\xi}$$

After some rewriting of this, it is easily seen that the cost for any key $i + 1$ can be written as the following recursion relation:

$$C_{i+1} = \rho C_i + (1-\rho) + (1-\rho)C_{i+1-\xi(i+1)}$$

Here we have used the definition of $a$ and $b$ from the internode-interval distribution and the notation $\xi(i + 1)$ refers to the start of the finger most closely preceding $i + 1$. For instance, for $i + 1 = 4$, $\xi(i + 1) = 2$ and for $i + 1 = 11$, $\xi(i + 1) = 8$ etc.

We are interested in solving the recursion relation and computing $L = \frac{1}{\rho} \sum_{i=1}^{K} C_i$. To do this, we decompose this sum into the following partial sums:

$$s_0 = C_1 = 1$$
$$s_1 = C_2$$
$$s_2 = C_3 + C_4$$
$$s_3 = C_5 + C_6 + C_7 + C_8$$
... 
$$s_M = C_{2^{M-1}+1} + \ldots + C_{K-1}$$

Substituting the expressions for the $C$’s in the above, we find:

$$s_0 = 1$$
$$s_1 = \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} [C_1 - C_2] + 1 + s_0$$
$$s_2 = \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} [C_2 - C_4] + 2 + [s_0 + s_1]$$
$$\ldots$$
$$s_i = \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} [C_{2i-1} - C_{2i}] + 2^{i-1} + \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} s_j$$

By substituting serially the expressions for $s_j$ (where $0 \leq j \leq i - 1$), the expression for $s_i$ (for $i \geq 2$) becomes:

$$s_i = \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} [2^{i-2}C_1 - C_{2i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-2} s^{j-2-j} C_{2^j}] + 2^{i} + (i - 1)2^{i-2}$$

Hence

$$\sum_{i=0}^{M} s_i = -\rho + [2^{M+1} - 1] + M2^{M-1} - [2^M - 1]$$
$$+ \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} \left[ (2^{M-1} - 1)C_1 - \sum_{i=2}^{M-1} C_{2^i} - C_{K-1} (2^{M-3} - 1)C_4 - \ldots \right]$$

Therefore

$$\sum_{i=0}^{M} s_i = -\rho + 2^M + M2^{M-1}$$
$$+ \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} \left[ (2^{M-1} - 1)C_1 - \sum_{i=2}^{M-1} C_{2^i} - C_{K-1} \right]$$
$$\sum_{j=2}^{M-2} (2^{M-j} - 1)C_{2^{j-1}}$$
The equation for the average lookup length without churn is thus,

\[ L = \frac{\sum s}{K} = \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} \left[ \frac{2^{M-1} - 1}{K} C_1 - \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=2}^{M-1} C_i - \frac{1}{K} C_{K-1} \right] \]

\[ + \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} \left[ \frac{2}{K} C_2 - \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=2}^{M-1} C_i - \frac{1}{K} C_{K-1} \right] \]

\[ - \sum_{j=2}^{M-2} \frac{2^{M-j} - 1}{K} C_{2j-1} \]  

(17)

If we can take the limit \( K \to \infty \), we can throw away some of the terms.

\[ \lim_{K \to \infty} L = 1 + \frac{1}{2} M + \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} \left[ \frac{C_1}{2} - \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M-1} C_i + \frac{C_2}{K} - \frac{1}{K} C_{K-1} \right] \]

\[ - \sum_{j=2}^{M-2} \frac{2^{M-j} - 1}{K} C_{2j-1} \]  

\[ \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2} M + \rho \left[ \frac{C_1}{2} - \frac{C_2}{4} - \frac{C_4}{8} - \ldots - \frac{C_{2M-3}}{2^{M-3}} \right] \]

(18)

Since \( C_1 = 1 \), we can write

\[ L = 1 + \frac{1}{2} M - \frac{\rho}{2(1 - \rho)} \left[ \frac{C_2 - 1}{2} + \frac{C_4 - 1}{4} + \ldots + \frac{C_{2M-3} - 1}{2^{M-3}} \right] \]

(19)

From the recursion relation for the \( C_i \)'s, it is easy to see that

\[ (C_i - 1) = (1 - \rho) g_{i-1}(\rho) + (1 - \rho)^2 g_{i-2}(\rho) + \ldots \]

(20)

where the \( g_i \)'s are functions only of \( \rho \).

Hence if \((1 - \rho) \) is small \((\frac{\rho}{K} \to 0)\), we need only compute the \( C_i \)'s to first order \((1 - \rho)\) to get the leading order effect and second order \((1 - \rho)\) to get the correction etc.

Hence in general the, the expression for \( L \) is:

\[ L = 1 + \frac{1}{2} M - \frac{\rho}{2} \left[ e_1(\rho) + (1 - \rho) e_2(\rho) + (1 - \rho)^2 e_3(\rho) + \ldots \right] \]

(21)

Where \( e_1(\rho) = \sum_{i=1}^{M-3} g_{i-1}(\rho) \) etc.

We evaluate this expression numerically by solving recursion relation (11) and compare it with simulations done at zero churn. As can be seen the prediction of the equation is very accurate (Figure 7).

Let us now compute \( e_1(\rho) \) to see what the leading order effect is. We now need to solve recursion relation (11) only to order \((1 - \rho)\), which gives:

\[ C_2 - 1 = (1 - \rho) \]

\[ C_4 - 1 = (1 - \rho) \left[ 1 + \rho + \rho^2 \right] \]

\[ C_8 - 1 = (1 - \rho) \left[ 1 + \rho + \rho^2 + \ldots + \rho^6 \right] \]

\[ C_i - 1 = (1 - \rho) \left[ 1 + \rho + \rho^2 + \ldots + \rho^{i-2} \right] \]

Therefore,

\[ L = 1 + \frac{1}{2} M + \rho \left[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1 + \rho + \rho^2}{4} + \ldots \right] \]

Consider the expression inside the brackets. We are computing this in the approximation \( \frac{N}{K} = \epsilon \to 0 \), i.e. \( \rho = 1 - \epsilon \), therefore \( \rho^x = (1 - \epsilon)^x \approx e^{-\epsilon x} \).

If \( x > \frac{K}{N} \), then \( \rho^x \to 0 \), therefore if \( x > \frac{K}{N} \), then \( \rho^x \to 0 \). Hence, the terms inside the brackets become:

\[ \sum_{j=1}^{T} \frac{2^j - 1}{2^j} + (2^T - 1) \sum_{j=T+1}^{M-3} \frac{1}{2^j} \]

(24)

Where \( T = \ln_2 K - \ln_2 N \) and we have put \( \rho^x \approx 1 \) for \( x < \frac{K}{N} \) and \( \rho \to 0 \) for \( x > \frac{K}{N} \). This is clearly an overestimation and so we expect the result to over estimate the exact expression.

Expression (24) becomes:

\[ T - \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{M-3} \right] - \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{M-3-T} \right] \approx T \]

Therefore:

\[ L = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \ln_2 K - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \ln_2 K - \ln_2 N \right] \]

\[ \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2} \ln_2 N \]

(25)

Which is the known result for the average lookup length of Chord.

Another important parameter in the performance of DHTs in general is the base. By increasing the base, the number of fingers per node increases which leads to a shorter lookup path length. The effect of varying the base has been studied in [3], [10]. So far, we have considered in this analysis base-2 Chord. We can likewise carry out this analysis for any base.

In general, we have base- \( b \) with \((b - 1) \log_b(K) \) fingers per node. Consider as an example \( b = 4 \). Here we can define the the partial sums again in the following manner:

\[ \Delta_0 = s_0 = C_1 = 1 \]

\[ \Delta_1 = s_1 + s_2 + s_3 \]

\[ \Delta_2 = s_4 + s_5 + s_6 \]

\[ \ldots \]

(26)

Where

\[ s_1 = C_2 = \rho C_1 + (1 - \rho) + (1 - \rho) C_1 \]

\[ s_2 = C_3 = \rho C_2 + (1 - \rho) + (1 - \rho) C_1 \]

\[ s_3 = C_4 = \rho C_3 + (1 - \rho) + (1 - \rho) C_1 \]

\[ s_4 = C_5 + C_6 + C_7 + C_8 \]

\[ s_5 = C_9 + C_{10} + C_{11} + C_{12} \]

\[ s_6 = C_{13} + C_{14} + C_{15} + C_{16} \]

\[ \ldots \]

(27)

Therefore

\[ \Delta_0 = C_1 \]

\[ \Delta_1 = \rho [\Delta_1 + C_1 - C_4] + 3(1 - \rho) + 3(1 - \rho) [\Delta_0] \]

\[ \Delta_2 = \rho [\Delta_2 + C_4 - C_{16}] + 12(1 - \rho) + 3(1 - \rho) [\Delta_0 + \Delta_1] \]

\[ \ldots \]

(28)
In general for a base $b$, define $B \equiv b - 1$ and $b^M = K$. Then we have:

$$\Delta_j = \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} \left[ C_{b-1} - C_{b^j} \right]$$

$$+ B(B + 1) j^{-1} + B [\Delta_0 + \Delta_1 + \cdots + \Delta_{j-1}]$$

(29)

Following much the same procedure as before, we find

$$L = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{j=0}^{M} \Delta_j$$

$$\approx 1 + \frac{B}{B + 1} M - \frac{B}{B + 1} \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} \left[ \frac{C_b - 1}{B + 1} + \frac{C_{b^2} - 1}{(B + 1)^2} + \cdots \right]$$

(30)

for $K \to \infty$ as the analogue of (19). Again we can simplify and slightly overestimate the sum by assuming that $\rho^x \approx 0$ for $x > \frac{K}{N}$ and $\rho^x \approx 1$ for $x < \frac{K}{N}$. Then we get:

$$L \approx 1 + \frac{b - 1}{b} \frac{\text{ln}_2 N}{\text{ln}_2 b}$$

(31)

This is the analogue of Eq. (25) for any base $b$. 

