

# Fundamental Control Algorithms in Mobile Networks \*

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## Abstract

In this work we propose simple and efficient protocols for counting and leader election in mobile networks. For mobile networks with fixed base stations we provide a new and very efficient protocol for counting the number of mobile hosts. The main part of the work concentrates on *ad-hoc networks* (no fixed subnetwork). We provide a *model* for these networks and leader election (and a special form of counting) protocols for both named and anonymous mobile hosts. In this work we define two protocol classes, the *Non-Compulsory* protocols, which do not affect the motion of the hosts and the *Compulsory*, which determine the motion of some or all the hosts. By assuming that the mobile hosts move as if each one is doing a continuous random walk on their allowable space  $S$  of motions, and by assuming a universal time, we show that our leader election protocol terminates (with high probability and also on the average) in time asymptotically *linear* to the size of the space  $S$ , measured as its volume divided by the volume of the sphere defined by the range of transmission of each mobile host. We also provide a simple but very efficient Compulsory (forced random walks) Las Vegas protocol for leader election in ad-hoc networks, which also allows counting, with termination detection. Our analysis techniques for the meeting time of concurrent random walks extend the known facts and are tight. They may be used as an analysis tool in the design of many other distributed protocols. This is the first algorithmic and characterization work, to our knowledge, for ad-hoc networks.

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## 1 Introduction

A new computing environment which is referred as *mobile* or *nomadic* computing has already created an entire new class of distributed applications and new massive markets, ranging from personal computing to consumer electronics. A wide variety of information servers are (or will be) accessible to mobile computers. New information infrastructures, like the "information superhighway", organized in a highly decentralized and distributed way, are expected to emphasize the nomadic approach (see [14]).

Mobile computing is characterized by four constraints (see [21]):

- Mobile elements are resource-poor relative to static elements.
- Mobility is inherently hazardous (concerning physical security loss or damage).
- Mobile connectivity is highly variable in performance and reliability.
- Mobile elements rely on a finite energy source.

The above constraints complicate the design of mobile information systems and require the redesign of traditional approaches to information access and to some fundamental distributed computing problems.

Until now, two basic system models have been proposed for mobile computing. The "fixed backbone" mobile system model assumes two distinct sets of entities in a mobile network: a large number of mobile hosts, and relatively fewer, but more powerful, fixed hosts ([2]). All fixed hosts and the communication paths between them constitute the *static* or *fixed* network. The geographical area that is served by the fixed network is divided into smaller regions called cells. Each cell is served by a fixed host. A fixed host communicates with the mobile hosts within its cell via a wireless medium. Host mobility is represented in this model as migration of mobile hosts between cells.

The "*ad-hoc*" system model assumes that mobile hosts can form networks without participation of the fixed infrastructure. The structure of an *ad-hoc* mobile network is highly dynamic. Routing tables may change frequently due to changing communication conditions and power levels (see [3]). Such networks arise in rapid-deployment situations, like emergency services at a disaster site, or military operations in a remote area or business situations such as meetings held in venues without network infrastructure (see [14]). We are aware of recent work which focuses on the Frequency Assignment problem for mobile networks. Our team has contributed to that work ( see e.g. [12], [13] and

[20]). Our present work presumes that frequency allocation issues are handled by some lower-level, suitable protocols.

On the contrary, in this work we deal with two fundamental problems of network control, the problems of process or node counting and the leader election problem. Both problems were extensively studied in the case of networks consisted only of static hosts. In the case of mobile networks these problems preserve their importance, since they are building blocks for solution to more complicated problems, and can be used both by the control (i.e. routing, data management) and the application level (i.e. sales and inventory applications, see [14]) of the network.

In our work, we deal both with mobile networks with fixed wired infrastructure and with ad-hoc networks. In the first case we give an efficient protocol for counting the number of mobile hosts, that has a total cost of  $O(m)C_{wireless} + O(n^2)C_{fixed}$ , where  $m$  and  $n$  are correspondingly the number of mobile hosts and the fixed nodes, and  $C_{wireless}$  and  $C_{fixed}$  are the costs of wireless and fixed network message exchange. Our protocol is based on the well known *Echo* algorithm ([18]) and it moves successively most of the network activity on the static portion of it, as it is proposed by the *two tier* principle (see [2]).

The main contribution of this work concentrates on ad-hoc networks. We extend the existing model in two directions. First we give a graph theoretic concept of the movement of mobile hosts in the three-dimensional space. Under the new model the space of motions  $S$  can be mapped to a graph  $G(V, E)$ ,  $|V| = n, |E| = \epsilon$ . In this graph,  $n$  approximates the ratio between the volume of space  $S$  and the space occupied by the transmission range of a mobile host and  $\epsilon = O(n)$ . Second we propose and distinguish two classes of mobile ad-hoc protocols. *Non Compulsory* protocols do not affect the natural movement of the mobile host. *Compulsory* protocols require the hosts to perform certain moves in order to ensure the correct protocol execution. The sense of orientation directly affects Compulsory protocols and thus it is seriously considered by the new model.

We present a Non Compulsory protocol for leader election and a special form of counting (where the leader finally knows the number of the hosts). This protocol does not include termination detection. We analyze the performance of the protocol by assuming that the hosts are performing concurrent random walks on  $G$  and also that there is a universal time not necessarily known to the hosts and we show that the execution time of the protocol is linearly bounded (on the average) on  $n$ . Our results are asymptotic in nature. Our analysis also extends the known results ([5]) for meeting times in coalescing random walks. Based on this result, we present Las Vegas Compulsory protocols for leader election and counting for ad hoc networks where the mobile hosts have no sense of orientation. These protocols force the hosts to perform random walks on  $G$ . In this case we provide a termination detection mechanism if the size of the space  $S$  is known and we show how our protocols can be applied to the case of anonymous mobile networks (where the hosts do not have distinct identities). Finally, we study the behavior of the steady state of the Markov chain induced by the random walks of the hosts on  $G$  and we show that it follows the behavior of the chain studied by Saloff-Coste and Diaconis in [11]. Our analytic results do not take into account details of the structure of the graph  $G$ . However, our methods show how more knowledge of the structure can tighten the results.

To our knowledge, there is no related previous work es-

pecially in the case of ad-hoc networks. However, random walks is a powerful tool and has been extensively studied and used by many researchers in the past. Among the others we refer Israeli and Jalfon ([15]), who provided a solution for the token management problem on general graphs, introducing the tool of random walks. Anagnostou and El-Yaniv in [4] presented a self-stabilizing randomized protocol for the Unique Naming problem, using random walks. Their protocols work properly even under a powerful scheduler that besides controlling processor activations, knows at any stage the results of any bounded number of future random choices that will be made by the processors and in addition, it can bias by any constant all future random choices. Spirakis and Tampakas in [22], and Spirakis et al in [23] proposed and studied the pursuit-evasion problem in distributed environments. Their protocols also made use of accidental meetings of random walks.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: In Section 2 we present a counting protocol for mobile networks with fixed base station infrastructure. In Section 3 we present the new graph theoretic model for ad-hoc networks. We describe the basic Non Compulsory protocol for leader election and we study its performance. Then we describe the termination detection mechanism and we give Compulsory protocols for leader election and counting. Finally, in Section 4 we present simulation results verifying the protocol performance.

## 2 Mobile networks with fixed base stations

### 2.1 The system model

A host that can move while retaining its network connections is a *mobile host* ([9]). The geographical area that is served by the fixed base station network is divided into smaller regions called *cells*. Each cell has a base station also referred to as the *Mobile Service Station (MSS)* of the cell. All mobile hosts that have identified themselves with a particular MSS are considered to be *local* to the cell of this MSS. At any instance of time, a mobile host belongs to *only one* cell. When a mobile host enters a new cell it sends a  $\langle join \rangle$  message to the new MSS. Each MSS is connected to the service stations of neighboring cells by a fixed high bandwidth network. The communication between a mobile host and its MSS is based on the use of low-bandwidth wireless channels. The following notation has been proposed in [1] for the description of the cost of messages exchanged in the network:

- $C_{fixed}$ : The cost of sending a point-to-point message between any two fixed hosts.
- $C_{wireless}$ : The cost of sending a message from a mobile host to its local MSS over a wireless channel (and vice versa). An extra cost may incur in order to allocate the wireless channels ([19], [20]).
- $C_{search}$ : The cost (messages exchanged among the MSSs of the fixed network) to locate a mobile host and forward a message to its current local MSS. We consider that  $C_{search} = aC_{fixed}$  where  $a$  depends on the location management strategy used (e.g. [6], [10]).

### 2.2 Notation, definitions and the problem

Let  $G(V, E)$ , where  $|V| = n$  and  $|E| = \epsilon = O(n^2)$ , be the graph which describes the fixed part of the network (the

network of the MSSs). Each vertex models an MSS. There exists an edge between two vertices if and only if the corresponding MSSs communicate directly (point-to-point) in the fixed network. Let  $m$  be the number of mobile hosts (we assume that usually  $m \gg n$ ). We define by  $D$  the diameter of  $G$ . Based on the above notation, the search cost  $C_{search}$  is approximately  $O(D)$ . A message sent from a mobile host to another mobile host incurs a cost  $2C_{wireless} + C_{search}$ . This means that any algorithm based on the communication between mobile hosts requires a large number of messages to be exchanged over the fixed network and the wireless channels.

Suppose that  $m$  mobile hosts are moving throughout a fixed base station mobile network. One of the mobile hosts (the initiator of the algorithm) wants to find the size of the mobile network (the number of the mobile hosts,  $m$ ). This is called the *Counting Problem*.

### 2.3 Assumptions

We assume that the communication between the MSSs is based on the *asynchronous timing* model. An operational mobile host responds to messages broadcasted by its local MSS immediately. Each mobile host has its own distinct identity. The number of mobile hosts does not change during protocol execution.

### 2.4 The protocol

A guiding principle for the design of distributed protocols in the case of fixed base station networks was presented in ([2]) and is called the *two tier* principle. The main idea is that the computation and communication costs of an algorithm should be based on the static portion of the network, if possible. This leads to avoid locating a mobile participant and lowers the total search cost of the algorithm.

The application of this simple principle on the design of distributed algorithms for mobile hosts has been studied in [2] in the case of a classical algorithm for mutual exclusion in distributed systems (Le Lann's token ring, [16]). In this section we propose and study the behaviour of a protocol based on this principle that solves the counting problem in a mobile network with fixed base stations.

The proposed counting scheme is based on the execution of the *Echo* protocol. The protocol executed by the mobile hosts is presented in Figure 1. As can be seen, the execution is started by the *initiator* mobile host which broadcasts a  $\langle count \rangle$  message. Afterwards, the initiator itself does not respond to any  $\langle count \rangle$  message. The mobile hosts receive  $\langle count \rangle$  messages from their local MSS and respond with  $\langle count.me \rangle$  messages in order to be counted by the MSS. The main part of the execution is based on the fixed part of the network (the MSSs) and is described as follows:

1. In the first phase, the initiator MSS (the MSS serving the initiator) broadcasts a  $\langle count \rangle$  message in its cell and then spreads along the base station network the request for counting by using the *Echo* algorithm. The algorithm starts by sending  $\langle count.tok \rangle$  messages to all neighboring MSSs.
2. After a base station has been informed about the execution of a counting protocol (by receiving a  $\langle count.tok \rangle$  message) in the network it behaves as follows: It broadcasts a  $\langle count \rangle$  message to its cell

```

int size=0; the final size of the network
boolean counted=false; a flag indicating if the host
has been counted
the initiator mobile host:
begin
  broadcast  $\langle count \rangle$ ;
  on receive  $\langle size, s \rangle$ 
    size=s;
end
the other mobile hosts:
begin
  on receive  $\langle count \rangle$ 
    if (not counted)
      begin
        broadcast  $\langle count.me \rangle$ ;
        counted=true;
      end
  on receive  $\langle size, s \rangle$ 
    size=s;
end

```

Figure 1: The counting protocol executed by the mobile hosts in a fixed base station network

and waits to collect answers from mobile hosts in this cell. The MSS also forwards a  $\langle count.tok \rangle$  message to its neighbors in order to continue the execution of the *Echo*. By receiving a  $\langle count.me \rangle$  message it increases  $size_p$ , the number of counted mobile hosts in its cell. If a base station receives a  $\langle join \rangle$  message (from a mobile host joining its cell) it broadcasts again a  $\langle count \rangle$ .

3. After the completion of the *Echo*, all of the MSSs have been informed about the execution of a counting algorithm in the network and have broadcasted a  $\langle count \rangle$  message in their cell.
4. The initiator base station starts a second execution of the *Echo* algorithm by sending a  $\langle size.tok, 0 \rangle$  message to its neighbors. This execution aims to collect the  $size_p$  variables from all MSSs to the initiator. After completing the execution of the second *Echo* (by receiving answers from all children and sending its  $size_p$  variable to its parent), an MSS stops to broadcast  $\langle count \rangle$  messages when a new mobile host joins its cell.
5. After the second completion of the *Echo* the initiator MSS knows the total number of mobile hosts in the network (it is its  $\langle size_p \rangle$  variable).
6. The initiator base station broadcasts a  $\langle size, size_p \rangle$  message in its cell and then starts the third execution of the *Echo* by sending a  $\langle inform.tok, size_p \rangle$  message to its neighbors. Upon receiving such a message, an MSS broadcasts a  $\langle size, size_p \rangle$  message to its cell and forwards an  $\langle inform.tok, size_p \rangle$  message to its neighbors in order to continue the execution. If a base station receives a  $\langle join \rangle$  message, it broadcasts the  $\langle size, size_p \rangle$  again. After the third completion of the *Echo*, all the MSSs have broadcasted the size of the mobile network in their cells. The initiator starts a fourth execution of the *Echo* to inform

the MSS about the completion of the counting. After the completion of the fourth *Echo* an MSSs stops to broadcast  $\langle size \rangle$  messages when a new mobile host joins its cell.

Note that with slight variations the basic protocol mechanism can be applied to elect a unique leader among the mobile hosts.

**Lemma 2.1** *The two tier protocol counts the number of mobile hosts correctly.*

**Proof:** It is easy to see that a mobile host cannot be counted twice even if it moves throughout the network during the execution of the protocol (it will respond only to one  $\langle count \rangle$  message). The major problem when executing a distributed protocol by using the MSSs is to inform all of the mobile hosts to participate in the execution. A faulty behavior may arise as follows. Suppose that MSSs  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  complete the execution of the MSS protocol at time  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  respectively, where  $t_2 \gg t_1$ . It is possible that a mobile host starts moving from the cell of  $S_2$  towards the cell of  $S_1$  at time  $t'_1 < t_1$  and appears at the cell of  $S_2$  at time  $t'_2$ , where  $t_1 < t'_2 < t_2$ . In this case the mobile host will not participate in the algorithm even if it is willing to do so. The solution to the problem is to maintain each MSS active (transmit  $\langle count \rangle$  and receive  $\langle count\_me \rangle$  messages) until all other MSSs are informed of the protocol execution (have received  $\langle count\_tok \rangle$  messages).

We consider an MSS as *notified* if it has received a  $\langle count\_tok \rangle$  message and therefore collects answers and broadcasts  $\langle count \rangle$  messages in its cell. If a mobile host travels from an MSS  $S_2$  which is *not notified* to an MSS  $S_1$  which is *notified*,  $S_1$  is still waiting to collect answers (the execution of the first *Echo* has not been completed yet since  $S_2$  is *not notified*) and therefore the mobile host will receive a  $\langle count \rangle$  from  $S_1$  and reply to  $S_1$  with a  $\langle count\_me \rangle$  message.  $\square$

**Lemma 2.2** *The two tier protocol has a total cost of  $mC_{wireless} + 8|E|C_{fixed}$  and it is completed in time  $8D$ .*

**Proof:** By the nature of the *Echo* algorithm which is executed four times the protocol needs  $8|E| = O(n^2)$  messages to be exchanged in the fixed network yielding a total cost of  $mC_{wireless} + 8|E|C_{fixed}$  which approximately is still  $O(m)C_{wireless} + O(n^2)C_{fixed}$ . The protocol is completed in time  $8D$ .  $\square$

### 3 Ad hoc mobile networks

#### 3.1 The system model

An ad hoc mobile network ([14]) is a collection of mobile hosts with wireless network interfaces forming a temporary network without the aid of any established infrastructure or centralized administration. In an ad hoc network two hosts that want to communicate may not be within wireless transmission range of each other, but could communicate if other hosts between them are also participating in the ad hoc network and are willing to forward packets for them.

Suppose that  $m$  mobile hosts equipped with wireless transmitters and receivers are moving in a geographical area forming an ad hoc network. Suppose further that these hosts want to execute a simple distributed protocol such as *leader*

*election*. One way to perform this is to utilize an underlying routing protocol (see [3]), which delivers (if possible) a message from one mobile host to another, regardless of their position. This scheme, in the case of increased mobility of the hosts, could lead to a situation where most of the computational and battery power of the hosts is consumed for the routing protocol.

The other way is to design protocols dedicated to solve specific problems in ad hoc networks. These protocols can be divided in two major categories. *Non-Compulsory* protocols are the ones whose execution does not affect the movement of the mobile hosts. On the other hand, *Compulsory* protocols are the ones that require the hosts to perform certain moves in order to ensure the correct protocol execution. Non-Compulsory protocols try to take advantage of the mobile hosts natural movement by exchanging information whenever mobile hosts meet incidentally. Compulsory protocols force the mobile hosts to move according to a specific scheme in order to meet the protocol demands (i.e. meet more often, spread in a geographical area, etc.). Furthermore, Compulsory protocols can be categorized into three cases according to the sense of orientation of the mobile hosts. In the first case the mobile hosts have *no sense of orientation*. In the second case each mobile host has an *individual sense of orientation* while in the third case the mobile hosts have a *common sense of orientation*.

#### 3.2 A graph theoretic model for ad hoc networks

In real world applications, the most usual case is that the mobile hosts are moving in a two-dimensional space on the surface of a geographical area. The model that we propose is more general and suites also the case of hosts moving in the three-dimensional space. Suppose that in the three-dimensional space a mobile host has a transmission range represented by a sphere  $tr$  centered at itself. This means that any message broadcasted by this host can be received by any other host inside  $tr$ . We approximate this sphere by a regular polyhedron  $tc$  with volume  $V(tc)$ , where  $V(tc) < V(tr)$ . The size  $tc$  can be chosen in such a way that its volume  $V(tc)$  is the maximum that preserves  $V(tc) < V(tr)$ , and if a mobile host inside  $tc$  broadcasts a message, this message is received by any other host in  $tc$ . If, for example,  $tc$  is a cube, and given that the hosts are moving in the space  $S$ ,  $S$  is divided into consecutive cubes of volume  $V(tc)$ . The graph  $G(V, E)$ ,  $|V| = n$ ,  $|E| = \epsilon$ , which corresponds to a quantization of  $S$  is constructed in the following way: a vertex  $u \in V$  represents a cube of volume  $V(tc)$ . An edge  $(u, v) \in E$  if the corresponding cubes are adjacent. A host can move anywhere in  $S$  but at any instance of time it is inside a specific cube  $tc$ . Thus, at any time instance, a host resides in only one vertex of  $G$ . If the host knows the distance that it has covered, it can determine the change of its position from one cube to another (from a vertex of  $G$  to another vertex). If a mobile host resides on a vertex  $u$  and broadcasts a message, this message will be received by all other hosts residing also on  $u$ . The number of vertices  $n$ , actually approximates the ratio between the volume of space  $S$ ,  $V(S)$ , and the space occupied by the transmission range of a mobile host  $V(tr)$ . In the extreme case where  $V(S) \approx V(tr)$  (the transmission range of the hosts approximates the space that they are moving), then  $n = 1$ . Given the transmission range  $tr$ ,  $n$  depends linearly on the volume of space  $S$  regardless of the choice of  $tc$ , and  $n = O(\frac{V(S)}{V(tr)})$ . Since the edges of  $G$  represent neighboring

polyhedra each node is connected with a constant number of neighbors, which yields that  $\epsilon = O(n)$ . In our example where  $tc$  is a cube,  $G$  has maximum degree of six (6) and  $\epsilon \leq 6n$ .

### 3.3 Definition of the problem

Suppose that  $m$  mobile hosts are moving in a space  $S$ . The hosts want to elect a unique leader. This means that starting from a configuration where all mobile hosts are in the same state, a configuration should be reached where exactly one host is the *leader* while all other hosts are in a state *lost*. Furthermore, the leader should know the size of the mobile network,  $m$ .

### 3.4 Assumptions

We assume that the transmission delay while broadcasting a radio message is negligible (i.e. the message will be received by all other hosts in its range immediately). Each mobile host has its own distinct identity, i.e. the ad-hoc mobile network is *named* and the number of mobile hosts does not change during protocol execution. In a later section we present a protocol for the case of *anonymous* ad-hoc mobile networks. Finally we assume that the mobile hosts are able to measure the distance that they cover when they move.

### 3.5 The protocol

The proposed protocol executed by the mobile hosts is presented in Figure 2. This protocol is *Non-Compulsory*. The hosts should know in advance (e.g. from hardware) the type and the dimensions of the polyhedron that is used for the quantization of  $S$  in order to be able to determine whether they have covered enough distance to reach a new vertex of  $G$ .

Each mobile host keeps a local counter which counts the other mobile hosts that it has met. At the beginning this counter is equal to one (the mobile host knows the existence of itself only). Two hosts can meet at any point of  $S$  but they transmit information related to the protocol only when they reach a new vertex (i.e. when they enter into a new polyhedron). In this manner we reduce the number of broadcasts needed by the protocol and therefore the battery power consumed for message transmissions. When two or more mobile hosts meet on a vertex  $u$  of  $G$  they exchange their identities. The winner is the one with the higher identity. The winner receives the counter of the loser and adds this to its local counter. It continues to participate in the protocol execution (it remains in state *participate*). The mobile host that lost, changes its state into *inactive* and no longer responds to messages concerning the protocol execution.

The protocol uses messages of size  $O(\log m)$  bits since the only information carried by each message is a counter. If the given bandwidth of radio communication enables the transmission of messages of size  $O(m \log m)$  bits, the hosts may also exchange lists of identities. Each mobile host may keep a local list of mobile hosts that it has defeated (initially this list contains only itself). When two hosts meet, the winner concatenates its local list with the list transmitted by the loser. In this way, the final winner will know not only the size of the mobile network but also the identities of the hosts that move inside  $S$ .

```

boolean my_state=participate; the state of the mobile
host regarding the protocol (participate or inactive)
int my_id; the identity of the mobile host
int counter=1; the local counter of the host

on arriving at a new vertex u of  $G$ 
if (my_state  $\neq$  inactive) then
begin
  broadcast  $\langle$  host, my_id  $\rangle$ ;
  on receive  $\langle$  host, i  $\rangle$  decide_on(i);
end

on being on a vertex u and receive  $\langle$  host, i  $\rangle$ 
if (my_state  $\neq$  inactive) then
begin
  broadcast  $\langle$  host, my_id  $\rangle$ ;
  decide_on(i);
end

procedure decide_on(id)
if (id  $>$  my_id) then
begin
  broadcast  $\langle$  my_counter, counter  $\rangle$ ;
  my_state=inactive;
end
else
begin
  receive  $\langle$  my_counter, k  $\rangle$ ;
  counter=counter+k;
end;

```

Figure 2: The Non-Compulsory leader election protocol executed by the mobile hosts in the ad hoc network

### 3.6 The correctness of the protocol

As can be seen from the previous section, in order for the protocol to be executed correctly the mobile hosts are required to meet and exchange information. If this is not the case, the protocol may never elect a unique leader. Another observation is that the protocol does not include any type of termination detection mechanism. Note that these weaknesses are common for all Non-Compulsory protocols. For example, suppose that the hosts are spread in different remote areas of  $S$  in such a way that communication among them is impossible. If they do not move beyond these areas, there is no way to execute globally any protocol and provide termination detection mechanisms. In a later section we present a *Las Vegas* variation of this simple protocol and a variation which includes termination detection if the size of space  $S$  is known to the mobile hosts.

In this section we assume that the hosts move in such a way that the total number of mobile hosts that participate in the protocol execution decreases in time and there exists a time instance  $t$  where only one mobile host is still in state *participate* (the one with the highest identity). This mobile host is the final winner and the size of the mobile network is contained in its *counter* variable.

A mobile host transfers its knowledge about the network size whenever it meets another host and loses (if its identity is smaller than the winner's identity). This is done by transmitting its counter to the winner. This happens only once, since after that, the host is *inactive* and no longer responds

to messages concerning the protocol. Thus, a host cannot be counted twice. The *counter* variable of a mobile host contains its current knowledge about the size of the network (i.e. the sum of the counters of all other hosts it has met plus itself).

**Lemma 3.1** *If at some time instance  $t$ ,  $m_k$  is the only mobile host in state "participate" then the counter of  $m_k$  contains the size of the mobile network.*

A complete proof of this rather intuitive lemma can be found in the full version of the paper.

### 3.7 Protocol analysis using the random walk assumption

#### 3.7.1 Preliminaries

The Non-Compulsory nature of the protocol makes the analysis of the protocol performance impossible. In order to be able to carry out this analysis we make the following assumption: We assume that the movement of each mobile host is a random walk on the graph  $G$ . We also assume that all random walks are concurrent and that there is a global time  $t$ , not necessarily known to the hosts. We are then able to apply powerful mathematical tools that allow us to analyze the protocol's performance. The random walk of a mobile host on  $G$  induces a continuous time Markov chain  $M_G$  as follows: The states of  $M_G$  are the vertices of  $G$ . Let  $s_t$  denote the state of  $M_G$  at time  $t$ . Given that  $s_t = u$ ,  $u \in V$ , the chance that  $s_{t+dt} = v$ ,  $v \in V$ , is  $p(u, v)dt$  where

$$p(u, v) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{d(u)} & \text{if } (u, v) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $d(u)$  is the degree of vertex  $u$ .

We denote by  $Pr_i[\cdot]$  and  $E_i[\cdot]$  the probabilities and expectations for the chain started at state  $i$  (the random walk of the mobile host has begun from vertex  $i$ ) and by  $Pr_\mu[\cdot]$  the probability for the chain started at time 0 from any vertex with distribution  $\mu$  (the initial distribution of the Markov chain). Let

$$T_i = \min\{t \geq 0 : s_t = i\}$$

be the first hitting time on state  $i$  (the first time that the mobile host visits vertex  $i$ ). We denote by  $M_{i,j}$  the first meeting time of two mobile hosts that started their walk from  $i$  and  $j$  respectively. Finally, let  $C_f$  be the time that only one mobile host is still in state *participate* (and thus its counter variable contains the size of the network).

According to our model, a broadcasted message may be received not only by hosts residing on the same node of  $G$  but also by hosts residing on neighboring nodes. The analysis focuses on the worst case scenario where a broadcasted message is received only by hosts residing on the same node (since the reception of a message by hosts residing on neighboring nodes speeds up the protocol execution). We first consider the case where  $m = n$ . We assume that at the beginning of the protocol execution (at time 0) there exists one mobile host on each vertex of  $G$ . We remove this assumption later.

#### 3.7.2 A first upper bound on the execution time of the protocol

We follow the analysis of the *voter model* as described by Aldous and Fill in [5]. We order the vertices of  $G$  as  $i_1, \dots, i_n$  by giving the lower label  $i_1$  to the vertex occupied by the mobile host which is the final winner and by assigning the other labels arbitrarily to the remaining vertices. Recall that when two hosts meet only one continues to participate in the protocol execution. According to this construction,

$$C_f \leq \max_j M_{i_1, j}$$

since the time  $C_f$  is less than the maximum time required for the winner to meet any other host. Let  $m^* \equiv \max_{i,j} E_i[M_{i,j}]$ .

**Lemma 3.2**  $Pr[M_{i,j} > t] \leq \exp(-\lfloor \frac{t}{cm^*} \rfloor)$

**Proof:** Starting from time 0, divide the time axis into equal time intervals of size  $s$ . For any initial distribution  $\mu$ , any  $s > 0$  and any integer  $k \geq 1$ ,

$$Pr_\mu[M_{i,j} > ks \mid M_{i,j} > (k-1)s] = Pr_\theta[M_{i,j} > s]$$

for some initial distribution  $\theta$  (due to the memoryless property of the Markov chain). By definition

$$Pr_\theta[M_{i,j} > s] \leq \max_i Pr_i[M_{i,j} > s]$$

By applying the Markov inequality  $Pr[x > t] \leq \frac{E[x]}{t}$ ,

$$\max_i Pr_i[M_{i,j} > s] \leq \frac{\max_{i,j} E_i[M_{i,j}]}{s}$$

and finally

$$\max_i Pr_i[M_{i,j} > s] \leq \frac{m^*}{s}$$

By induction on  $k$ ,

$$Pr_\mu[M_{i,j} > \lambda s] \leq \left(\frac{m^*}{s}\right)^\lambda$$

implying (by substituting  $\lambda s = t$ ) that

$$Pr_\mu[M_{i,j} > t] \leq \left(\frac{m^*}{s}\right)^{\lfloor \frac{t}{s} \rfloor}$$

Using the above observations, the tail of the distribution can be bounded in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned} Pr_\mu[M_{i,j} > t] &\leq \left(\frac{m^*}{s}\right)^{\lfloor \frac{t}{s} \rfloor} \\ &\leq e^{\lfloor \frac{t}{s} \rfloor \log \frac{m^*}{s}} \\ &\leq e^{\lfloor \frac{t}{m^* e} \rfloor \log \frac{1}{e}} \quad (\text{by substituting } s = m^* e) \\ &\leq e^{-(\log e) \lfloor \frac{t}{m^* e} \rfloor} \\ &\leq e^{\lfloor -\frac{t}{m^* e} \rfloor}, \quad 0 < t < \infty \quad (1) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 1** *The expected value of  $C_f$ ,  $E[C_f]$ , is bounded according to the inequality  $E[C_f] \leq e(\log n + 2) \max_{i,j} E_i[T_j]$ .*

**Proof:** Recall that

$$C_f \leq \max_j M_{i_1,j} \quad (1)$$

$$\Pr[\max_j M_{i_1,j} > t] \leq \sum_j \Pr[M_{i_1,j} > t] \quad (2)$$

By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} E[C_f] &= \int_0^\infty \Pr[C_f > t] dt \\ &\leq \int_0^\infty \Pr[\max_j M_{i_1,j} > t] dt \quad (\text{from (1)}) \\ &\leq \int_0^\infty \min(1, \sum_j \Pr[M_{i_1,j} > t]) dt \quad (\text{from (2)}) \\ &\leq \int_0^\infty \min(1, n e^{-\frac{t}{\epsilon m^*}}) dt \quad (\text{from Lemma 3.2}) \\ &\leq \int_0^\infty \min(1, n e^{-\frac{t}{\epsilon m^*} + 1}) dt \\ &\leq \int_0^\infty \min(1, n e e^{-\frac{t}{\epsilon m^*}}) dt \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

By applying the formula

$$\int_0^\infty \min(1, A e^{-\alpha t}) dt \equiv \alpha^{-1} (1 + \log A), A \geq 1$$

(3) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty \min(1, n e e^{-\frac{t}{\epsilon m^*}}) dt &= \epsilon m^* (2 + \log n) \\ &= e \max_{i,j} E_i[M_{i,j}] (2 + \log n) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\max_{i,j} E_i[M_{i,j}] \leq \max_{i,j} E_i[T_j]$ , (see [5]), we finally conclude that

$$E[C_f] \leq e(\log n + 2) \max_{i,j} E_i[T_j]$$

□

**Corollary 3.1** For the expected value of  $C_f$ ,  $E[C_f]$ ,  $E[C_f] \leq e(\log n + 2)2\epsilon$  where  $\epsilon$  is the number of edges of the graph  $G$ .

A complete proof of this corollary can be found in the full paper.

### 3.7.3 A tighter upper bound in the execution time of the protocol

A key observation that leads to a tighter bound on the execution time of the protocol is that the basic inequality of the proof of Theorem 1,  $C_f \leq \max_j M_{i_1,j}$ , is quite rough. Specifically, this inequality corresponds to the extreme case where the winner host meets all other hosts one at a time, while in the average case, the processes exclude each other in parallel and thus accelerate the counting procedure.

**Definition 3.1** Let  $X, X_1, X_2 \dots X_m$  be independent random variables on the same distribution  $F(x)$ , probability density function  $f(x)$  and mean value  $E[f(x)]$ . Let  $F_{\min(m)}(x)$  denote the distribution of the minimum of these variables,  $f_{\min(m)}(x)$  its probability density function and  $E[f_{\min(m)}(x)]$  its mean value.

**Lemma 3.3** There exists a constant  $m_0 < m$  for which

$$\forall m > m_0, E[f_{\min(m)}(x)] \leq \frac{1}{m} E[f(x)]$$

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\min(m)}(x) &= \Pr[\min X_i < x, 0 < i \leq m] \\ &= 1 - \Pr[\min X_i > x] \\ &= 1 - \Pr[\forall i X_i > x] \\ &= 1 - \Pr[X > x]^m \quad (\text{since } X_i \text{ independent}) \\ &= 1 - (1 - \Pr[X < x])^m \\ &= 1 - (1 - F(x))^m \end{aligned}$$

Derivation of both sides of the equation results in

$$\begin{aligned} [F_{\min(m)}(x)]' &= [1 - (1 - F(x))^m]' \Rightarrow \\ f_{\min(m)}(x) &= m f(x) (1 - F(x))^{m-1} \end{aligned}$$

By definition,  $E[f(x)] = \int_0^\infty x f(x) dx$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} E[f_{\min(m)}(x)] &= \int_0^\infty x f_{\min(m)}(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty x f(x) m (1 - F(x))^{m-1} dx \end{aligned}$$

Since  $E[f_{\min(m)}(x)] \neq \infty$  there exists a real  $\lambda$  for which

$$\begin{aligned} E[f_{\min(m)}(x)] &= 2 \int_\lambda^\infty x f(x) m (1 - F(x))^{m-1} dx \\ &\leq 2 \int_\lambda^\infty x f(x) m (1 - F(\lambda))^{m-1} dx \\ &= 2m (1 - F(\lambda))^{m-1} \int_\lambda^\infty x f(x) dx \\ &\leq 2m (1 - F(\lambda))^{m-1} E[f(x)] \end{aligned}$$

In order to get  $E[f_{\min(m)}(x)] \leq \frac{1}{m} E[f(x)]$  it suffices to have  $(1 - F(\lambda))^{m-1} \leq \frac{1}{2m^2}$ . This holds for every  $m \geq m_0$ , where  $m_0$  is a constant depending on  $F(\lambda)$ , since  $F(x) \leq 1$  always. □

**Lemma 3.4** Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be two (not necessarily) independent random variables on the same distribution and  $S = S_1 + S_2$ . Then,  $E[S] = 2E[S_1] = 2E[S_2]$ .

**Proof:** By linearity of expectation. □

**Definition 3.2** Let  $C_f(k)$  be the time required by the processes that still participate in the protocol to have defeated  $k$  other processes. Obviously,  $C_f(m) = C_f$ . Furthermore, let  $M_{i,j}(k)$  be the time required for the first interaction of two processes (i.e. minimum of meeting times) that still participate in the protocol, when  $k$  processes still participate in the protocol.

According to Lemma 3.4, each time two mobile processes meet, the counter of the winner process is doubled on the average. This yields that the final winner is the product of the interaction of two mobile processes that, on the average, have counted (and excluded)  $m/2$  mobile processes

each. The average duration of this final phase is  $E[M_{i,j}]$ . Furthermore, each one of the last two processes is a product of the interaction of two processes, each of which has counted  $m/4$  processes on the average, while the duration of this phase is  $E[M_{i,j}(2)]$  on the average.

**Theorem 2**  $E[C_f] \leq (2 + \log(m_0))2\epsilon$ , where  $m_0$  is a constant.

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned}
E[C_f] &= E[C_f(m)] \\
&= E[M_{i,j}(2)] + E\left[C_f\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)\right] \\
&= E[M_{i,j}(2)] + E[M_{i,j}(4)] + E\left[C_f\left(\frac{m}{4}\right)\right] \\
&= E[M_{i,j}(2)] + E[M_{i,j}(4)] + \dots + E[M_{i,j}(m)] \\
&= \sum_{k \leq \log(m_0)} E[M_{i,j}(2^k)] + \\
&\quad + \sum_{\log(m_0) < k < \log(m)} E[M_{i,j}(2^k)] \\
&\leq \log(m_0)E[M_{i,j}] + \sum_{\log(m_0) < k < \log(m)} \frac{2^k}{m} E[M_{i,j}] \\
&\leq \log(m_0)E[M_{i,j}] + E[M_{i,j}] \sum_{\log(m_0) < k < \log(m)} \frac{2^k}{m} \\
&\leq \log(m_0)E[M_{i,j}] + 2E[M_{i,j}] \\
&\leq (2 + \log(m_0))E[M_{i,j}] \\
&\leq (2 + \log(m_0))2\epsilon
\end{aligned}$$

□

### 3.7.4 The case of $m \neq n$

Up to this point we considered that the number of mobile hosts equals the number of nodes of the underlying graph  $G$ . In this section we will prove the rather counter-intuitive fact that the execution time of the protocol is not affected seriously by the number of mobile hosts or their initial distribution on  $G$ .

**The case of  $m < n$**

Let us first consider the case where the initial placement of the mobile hosts is a configuration chosen uniformly and at random out of all configurations where the mobile hosts do not overlap, occupying exactly  $m$  vertices. It is easy to observe that this configuration can be regarded as an instance of the execution of the protocol with  $n$  initial mobile hosts. Therefore, on the average, the execution time of the algorithm in this case is less than  $C_f$ , as described in the previous sections. Furthermore, by following the arguments of Section 3.7.3, only the first stages of the protocol execution are omitted. These stages have little contribution to the total execution time ( $O\left(\frac{1}{n}E[M_{i,j}]\right)$ ) and thus, the protocol execution time is not seriously affected. The extreme case of  $m = 2$  can provide a clear insight on the previous argument. In this case, the protocol execution time is on the average  $E[M_{i,j}]$ , which differs from the case of  $m = n$  only by a constant factor. The chosen initial configurations can be shown to be the worst case, since in all other cases the overlapping mobile processes will exclude each other in

one step, leading to a configuration with even less participating mobile hosts. In fact, suppose that  $m$  mobile hosts,  $m \leq n$  are placed on  $m$  vertices of  $G$  with initial distribution  $\mu$ . This case can be reduced to the case of  $m = n$  by using the following construction: We consider  $m - n$  new "virtual" mobile hosts. These hosts are identified with  $vm_1 = -1, vm_2 = -2, \dots, vm_{m-n} = -(m - n)$  and are placed on the remaining  $m - n$  vertices of  $G$  with an initial distribution  $\mu'$ . These "virtual" hosts are also participating in the protocol. Obviously they do not affect the execution and the final winner since they lose and become inactive the first time they meet one of the  $m$  hosts. According to Theorem 2,  $E[C_f]$  is at most equal to  $(2 + \log(m_0))2\epsilon$  in this case too. The chosen initial configurations can be shown to be the worst case, since in all other cases the overlapping mobile processes will exclude each other in one step, leading to a configuration with even less participating mobile hosts. A formal approach for the case of  $m < n$  is presented in the full paper.

**The case of  $m > n$**

In this case, the mobile hosts that reside on the same node exclude each other in the first step, leading thus to a sub-case of the previous paragraph.

### 3.7.5 Discussion of the result

The result of Sections 3.7.3 and 3.7.4 are implying that the execution time of the protocol is linear on the average to the ratio between the volume of space  $S$ ,  $V(S)$ , and the space occupied by the transmission range of a mobile host  $V(tr)$ . This is a direct consequence of the construction of  $G$  (see Section 3.2) since  $\epsilon = O(n)$  and  $n = O\left(\frac{V(S)}{V(tr)}\right)$ . This result holds regardless of the choice of the polyhedron that is used for the quantization of  $S$  and the initial positions of the hosts. It also leads to the (rather intuitive) fact that powerful transmitters can speed up the protocol execution.

### 3.8 A variation of the basic protocol with termination detection

The calculation of the average protocol execution time allows us to construct a new protocol that provides a unique leader with a given probability of success. We consider that the execution of the protocol fails if the mobile hosts stop the execution of the protocol without having a unique leader. Note that in this case there is no mobile host whose counter contains the correct network size. Let  $p_f$  denote the protocol failure probability ( $p_f \equiv Pr[C_f > t]$ ).

**Lemma 3.5** For any given failure probability  $p_f$ , running the protocol for time  $t = \frac{c\epsilon}{p_f}$  where  $c$  is a constant, suffices to ensure that the result will be correct with failure probability at most  $p_f$ .

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned}
Pr[C_f > t] &< \frac{E[C_f]}{t} \Rightarrow \\
t &\leq \frac{E[C_f]}{Pr[C_f > t]} \\
&\leq \frac{c\epsilon}{p_f}
\end{aligned}$$

□



Lemma 3.5 implies that the mobile hosts may decide on the duration of the protocol execution only if they know the total number of edges  $\epsilon$  of the underlying graph  $G$ . Recall that in  $G$ , the number of edges  $\epsilon$  is linear to the number of vertices  $n$  (in the case of a cube-based grid  $\epsilon$  is related to  $n$  by the inequality  $\epsilon \leq 6n$ ). Intuitively and by taking into consideration the discussion in Section 3.2, a mobile host must have a feeling of the available space in order to be able to determine whether the protocol has terminated or not. Consider, for example, a mobile host moving in the area of Manhattan, that at time  $t$  remains in state *participate* having defeated  $k$  other mobile hosts. Its estimation of being a unique winner would be different if the total area in question is Manhattan, New York or North America.

Finally, note that in the case of time constraints (i.e. the mobile hosts have to execute the protocol for a specific time period), Lemma 3.5 may be applied by the mobile hosts to calculate the probability of success for a given run time  $t$ , in order to find out how much they can rely on the result.

### 3.9 Las Vegas Compulsory protocols for leader election and counting in an ad hoc network without sense of orientation

Since a major weakness of the basic Non-Compulsory protocol is that it may never elect a unique leader, the previous results lead to the specification of a *Las Vegas Compulsory* protocol that elects a unique leader in the ad hoc mobile network in time linear to  $n$  with a given probability of success. This protocol behaves as the one described in Section 3.5, but in addition, it forces the mobile hosts to perform a random walk on  $G$ . The protocol includes also termination detection as it is presented in the previous section. The host can decide on a failure probability  $p_f$  and use it in order to find the required time  $t$  to run the protocol. If the host after time  $t$  is still in state *participate*, it is (with probability at least  $1 - p_f$ ) the unique leader (on the other hand, if it is in state *inactive* it knows that a unique leader has been probably elected). The proposed Las Vegas Compulsory protocol can be applied even in the case where the mobile hosts have no sense of orientation. We further conjecture that this algorithm is **optimal in time** in the case of mobile hosts with no sense of orientation. A straightforward extension of this protocol is a Compulsory counting protocol. After time  $t$ , the leader initiates a flooding phase as follows: Every time it meets another mobile host it transmits its counter. Each mobile host that has been informed about the counter behaves in exactly the same way. The duration of this phase is obviously bounded by  $(2 + \log(m_0))2\epsilon$  too.

### 3.10 Anonymous networks

The protocols described in the previous section can also be applied when the mobile network is *anonymous*, i.e. the mobile hosts do not have distinct identities. In the latter case the proposed variation leads to *Las Vegas Compulsory protocols for leader election and counting in anonymous ad hoc networks without sense of orientation*. The proposed variation is as follows. Whenever a mobile host meets another host on a vertex of  $G$  they choose random identities over a predefined set and then exchange them. If there is a conflict, they repeat the procedure. The winner is finally the one that selected the higher identity. We remark that the time required for two hosts to select unique identities when they meet (regardless of the number of conflicts) is

negligible compared to the time required for a mobile host to move from one vertex of  $G$  to another and thus does not affect the protocol execution time.

### 3.11 Comparison theorems and the steady-state of the random motion

Let us note that a related "many objects" motion process is the so called Symmetric Exclusion (*SE*) process. Let  $G$  be an undirected graph of  $n$  vertices. To start,  $r$  unlabeled particles are placed in an initial configuration,  $1 \leq r \leq n$ . At each step, a particle is chosen at random. Then one of the neighboring sites of this particle is chosen at random. If the neighboring site is unoccupied, the chosen particle moves there; if the neighboring site is occupied the system stays as it was. This is a reversible Markov chain on the  $r$ -sets of  $1, 2, \dots, n$ . The reader can easily recognize that this is the discrete analog of our proposed model of motions of the mobile hosts, provided that the "time" in the concurrent movement case is replaced by rounds of steps (i.e. a step sequence in which all particles move at least once). Let us denote our continuous model by *RM*. Fill (1991) gave bounds on the second eigenvalue of *SE* (but for labeled particles) on the finite circle of  $n$  vertices.

Diaconis and Saloff-Coste ([11]) study the chain *SE* by comparison with a second Markov chain on  $r$ -sets that proceeds by picking an unoccupied site at random (not necessarily a neighboring site) and moving the particle to the unoccupied site. This second process which corresponds to mobile hosts moving "very fast" or e.g. by teleportation (or other means), is a well-studied chain (the Bernoulli-Laplace model for diffusion). Its eigenvalues are known. We denote this process by *TP*.

The method of comparison of [11] is based on the min-max characterization of eigenvalues based on the Dirichlet forms of the chains, viewed as a self-adjoint operator because of reversibility (see e.g. Horn and Johnson, 1985).

Diaconis and Saloff-Coste developed a method for comparison of the Dirichlet forms, which provides tight upper and lower bounds on the eigenvalues of *SE* (and thus on the eigenvalues of *RM*) by using the eigenvalues of *TP* and structural (path) properties of the graph  $G$ . The method gives bounds for the mixing properties of *RM* on any particular network  $G$ . A crude but universal estimate for the second largest eigenvalue  $\beta_1$  of *SE* (the first is unity) is

$$\beta_1 \leq 1 - 1/rn^2 d_0$$

where  $d_0$  is the maximum degree of the graph. This bound is easily obtained by the above method.

## 4 Simulation Results

The basic protocol was implemented and tested using the Distributed Systems Platform (DSP)<sup>1</sup> (see [24]). The DSP tool allows the specification, implementation and testing of distributed algorithms for fixed and mobile networks. The simulations focused on the case of  $m = n$ , with the mobile processes performing random walks on the underlying graph. An example of the simulation results for 10 runs and three different topologies can be found in the full paper.

<sup>1</sup>The DSP tool was designed and implemented during the EU ES-PRIT LRT ALCOM-IT project

In general, the simulations confirmed the theoretical results. The number of participating hosts decreased exponentially in time. In fact, on the average, one third of the mobile hosts were defeated during the first step of the protocol. The protocol execution time was on the average less than the theoretical result, because of the fact that the analysis holds for every underlying graph  $G$ , while the quantization of the space leads usually to regular graphs, for which it is known that the random walks mix faster. As expected, the average protocol execution time increased for more irregular topologies as compared to the execution time for regular topologies of the same size. Finally, the protocol execution time increased linear to the number of nodes for regular topologies of the same degree.

## 5 Conclusions and further work

Our present work proposes a way to deal with fundamental aspects of Mobile Distributed Computing while it abstracts away details of geometric nature. The random walks assumption, viewed either as a crude approximation of many hosts or as a compulsory motion element of the protocols, allowed us to get powerful analytic results. Our future work will concentrate on modeling issues that will allow an analytic or combinatorial treatment of the solvability and perhaps the discovery of efficient protocols for other fundamental problems such as routing, coordination, termination detection or failures detection.

### Electronic form of the paper

A full version of this work can be found in electronic form in <http://helios.cti.gr/alcom-it/foundation/thirdyear>

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