

ROUTING IN THE “UMBRELLA” ARCHITECTURE

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Abstract: Routing in a Peer-to-Peer environment faces a number of challenges, mainly due to its distributed nature. In this paper we evaluate a new distributed hash table architecture that is able to provide efficient routing through a fixed-size table. By introducing a set of base algorithms, multiple replication schemas, virtual nodes and a variable repair mechanism, we are able to ensure successful lookups of published keywords. Along with theoretical analysis of our proposed work, we present extensive simulation results that testify and evaluate our protocol.

1 INTRODUCTION

One of the core issues in every network topology is the routing algorithm applied. This has been extensively studied and established in constantly connected networks. However, such algorithms as OSFP (Moy,1998) require a relevantly good knowledge of the network topology and assume constant or almost constant links, at least for a desired period of time. The introduction however of ad-hoc and Peer-to-Peer (P2P) networks necessitates the implementation of new routing strategies that are able to operate in robust and distributed environments.

Various solutions have been proposed and there has been an increasing interest in the adaptation of distributed hash tables into such networks. Most of these algorithms are characterized by the size of the routing table, as this modulates both the algorithms' efficiency and tolerance to errors. This paper introduces the Umbrella architecture, a novel routing scheme based on a distributed hash table of fixed-size on top of an overlay network. We provide efficient algorithms for keyword publication and lookup along with a number of extensions that improve the system's tolerability. The key novelty of our work lies in the fixed-size routing table, as opposed to other algorithms which are usually proportional to the network's size.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In chapter 2 we present related work and ideas that have been thoroughly studied prior to our architecture design and in chapter 3 we present our

novel architecture. In the following chapter we provide in detail the routing algorithms invoked by our protocol and introduce a number of extensions that enrich our protocol. Chapter 5 discusses a number of results obtained through our simulation of the system and finally, chapter 6 offers useful conclusions.

2 RELATED WORK

The firsts to introduce routing algorithms that could be applied to DHT systems were Plaxton, Rajaraman and Richa (Plaxton,1997). The algorithm wasn't developed for P2P systems, and thus every node had a neighborhood of $O(\log N)$ and inquires resulted in $O(\log N)$ steps. It was based on the ground rule of comparing one byte at a time until all bytes of the identifier (or best compromise) were met. A key feature of their scheme was that the routing table could be transformed as thus the overlay distance between nodes could be of a constant factor of the real distance, when all latencies between nodes are known. Our scheme meets the logarithmic growth of inquiries introduced by Plaxton, and even though nodes are not placed within constant distance from each other, this is not an issue as it was only implemented in a theoretical study and not for P2P environments. A variation of the Plaxton algorithm was developed by Tapestry (Zhao,2004), properly adjusted for P2P systems (where overall state is not available). The algorithm once again tackles one digit at a time and through a routing table of

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$\beta \cdot \log_{\beta} N$ neighbors routes to the appropriate node, resulting in a search of $\log_{\beta} N$ maximum steps. Our architecture is based on the fundamentals ideas set by Plaxton and further developed by Tapestry, but is also fine-tuned for P2P systems that are likely to have an enormous amount of population and content.

Pastry (Rowstron,2001) is similar to Tapestry but added a leaf set of neighbors that the node first checks before referring to the routing table. Also a different neighbor set is maintained for tolerability issues. Each node maintains a neighborhood of $\log_{\beta} N$ rows with $(2^b - 1)$ elements in each row and requires a maximum of $O(\log_{\beta} N)$ steps for enquires. Proper routing is maintained as long as $(L/2)$ nodes are available in the neighborhood of each node. Once again, the variable size of each node’s table limits the algorithm’s scalability. In addition, our algorithm’s results showed that inquiries can be successful even with less available nodes in the routing table. In Chord (Stoica,2001) a different approach was applied, placing nodes in a circular space and maintaining information only for a number of successor and predecessor nodes through a finger table. Routing is established through forwarding queries to the correct successor. Even though the basic Chord mechanism only requires the knowledge of one successor, modifications were needed in order for the system to be applicable to a robust environment, introducing a finger table of $O(\log N)$ size.

CAN (Ratsanamy,2001) furthered on Pastry’s alternation and implied DHT in a d-dimensional Cartesian space based on a d-tore. The space is constantly divided and distributed amongst nodes, which must maintain information about their neighbors and route by following the Cartesian space. CAN provides a constant $O(d)$ table but, unlike our algorithm, requires $O(dN^{1/d})$ steps for lookups. Finally, Kademlia (Maymounkov,2002) bases nodes in a binary-tree through identifiers. Each node of the tree retains information concerning one node from each leaf, other than the one it resides. It also differentiates by applying an XOR comparison on identifiers instead of the casual comparison of each bit, adopted by all other algorithms. Our algorithm familiarizes with Kademlia by inserting nodes in a B-tree form, which is much more versatile and fault-tolerant.

3 ARCHITECTURE OVERVIEW

The proposed architecture is based on the creation of an overlay network, where all inserting nodes are

identified by a unique code, asserted by applying the SHA-1 (NIST,1995) hash-function on the combination of IP and computer name, which returns an 160-bit identifier. This hash-function has been proven to distribute keys uniformly in the 160-bit space and thus provide the desired load balancing for both the user space and the content space, as the same function is applied to each content destined for distribution in the system.

The main objective of the Umbrella architecture is to insert and retain nodes in a simple and well structured manner, thus querying and fetching of content is both efficient and fault-tolerant. In addition, each node will need only to retain up-to-date information of a limited, constant number of neighboring nodes, such allowing the system to escalate in population of both users and content.

Each node is inserted in the system through an existing node, which announces the new entrance. When this procedure has ended successfully, the new node can, having acquired and informed all neighboring nodes, continue to publish all of its content. The publishing procedure is similar to the insertion mechanism, as content is characterized by a number of keys, which after being hashed can be forwarded in the same manner. All keys are published in an existing node that its identifier is the closest match to the key identifier. In a similar fashion, querying is performed by routing the request to the node with identifier closest to the desired key.

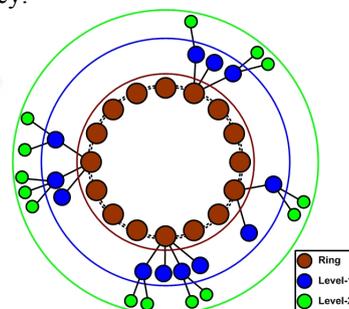


Figure 1: The Umbrella architecture.

The overlay network is constructed in the form of a loose B-Tree, where each node is placed in a hierarchy tree with a parent node and b child nodes. All nodes are placed along the tree structure, without being required to fulfil pre-defined ranges as in a proper B-tree structure, and are responsible for updating their connections with neighbouring nodes that reside on either the parent, sibling or child level. Thus, each node operates autonomously and no central coordination is needed to maintain the structure’s integrity. Along with obvious connections (parent, child and sibling level of each

node), further links to a limited number of nodes in the near vicinity are kept in record for fault-tolerant operations. Figure 1 illustrates the structure of this loose B-Tree. Each level n of the structure is capable of withholding b^{n+1} nodes. Each node has a unique parent node, which is always one level higher, and a maximum of b children at a lower level. The Umbrella overlay network is configured with the following simple rule. The relation between a parent node at level n and a child node (which must by default reside on level $n+1$) is defined as such and only such that :

- The $n+1$ first digits of the parent's identifier are equal with the corresponding numbers of the child's identifier
- The $n+2$ digit of the child's identifier determines the child's position in the parent's child list

The use of a consistent hash function to distribute identifiers in our node and content space allows the construction of a well balanced loose B-tree. The structure becomes even more balanced as node population increases and nodes fill empty spaces. The consistent hash function also balances key distribution among nodes as stated in (Karger,1997).

As in most DHT systems, a routing table is maintained by each node in order to route incoming messages. Each node is responsible for keeping the table up-to-date by issuing messages to all nodes in its table at different intervals. The routing table in our architecture consists of three different sets, a basic, an upper and a lower set. The basic set stores nodes and information needed for basic routing operations under fault-free conditions. The upper and lower set store additional indexes to nodes in the upper and lower levels, correspondingly, which are utilized when nodes in the basic set become unreachable. These three sets constitute the node's neighbourhood table and are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Fields of the neighborhood table.

Field	Set	Description
Level	Basic	The level it resides
Right	Basic	The non-empty node to the right
Left	Basic	The non-empty node to the left
Up	Basic	The parent node
Right2	Upper	The node residing to the right of the parent node
Left2	Upper	The node residing to the left of the parent node
Up2	Upper	The parent's parent node
Right3	Lower	One (random) child of the node to the right
Left3	Lower	One (random) child of the node to the left
Umbrella	Basic	All children nodes
Umbrella2	Lower	A (random) child node from each child

Our architecture's structure and routing table described so far ensure that a published key can be located by an appropriate query within logarithmic overlay steps to the total size of the network. This is stated and proved within the following two theorems:

Theorem 1. Given an Umbrella network of N nodes with identifiers of base b acquired by a consistent hash function, the maximum height of the loose B-tree structure is of logarithmic scale.

Proof : Let b denote the base of our identifiers, N the total number of nodes and k a particular level in the Umbrella structure. Then according to the Umbrella protocol, in each level a maximum of b^k nodes can reside, with $b^0=1$ as stated for the first node that creates the network. Thus, if m denotes the number of levels required for the above population of nodes, we acquire, with high probability, the following relation:

$$N = \sum_{k=0}^m b^k = \frac{b^0 - b^{m+1}}{1 - b} = \frac{1 - b^{m+1}}{1 - b} \Leftrightarrow \quad (1)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow m = \{\log_b [N(b-1) + 1]\} - 1$$

Thus the maximum height m of our structure is of $O(\log_b N)$. ■

Theorem 2. A successful lookup in an Umbrella network requires with, high probability, $O(\log_b N)$ steps.

Proof : Suppose that a node p that resides at level l_p is seeking for a specific key k that resides within our network in another node f at level l_f . If m denotes the number of levels of the current network, N the nodes and b the base of identifiers, then we could argue that the worst case scenario would require both nodes to reside at level m and with maximum distance between them (thus node p is a m -depth child of the first child at level 0 and on-forth and node f is the m -depth child of the b child at level 0 and on-forth). In this case, the lookup must first ascend all the way to the top of our structure (thus m steps) and then descend to the bottom (m steps again). In total, a maximum of $2m$ steps are required. Hence, from theorem 1, the required maximum steps for a successful lookup is, with high probability, of $O(\log_b N)$ steps. ■

4 ROUTING ALGORITHMS

During the creation of the overlay network, the b first nodes to enter create the new network by placing themselves on the top level and forming a ring. As new nodes arrive, they are placed according to their identifier. A node only needs to contact an existing node in the system in order to be inserted

(mechanisms for fetching existing nodes are not in the scope of this paper as numerous such techniques exist (Francis,1999)). Only the first nodes are automatically inserted regardless of their identifiers; all subsequent nodes are placed within the system according to the insertion algorithm. The insertion mechanism is quite simple and consists of the following steps:

- Issuing a request on a connected node
- The node checks if the n+1 first digits of its identifier match, where n is the level it resides
- If not it forwards the message to its parent
- If yes it forwards it to the child with the n+2 digit common with that of the new node
- If such a child does not exist then the new node is placed as a child to the current node

The publish procedure is similar to insertion and is therefore suppressed. Conversely, the lookup mechanism is executed as shown by example in Figure 2.

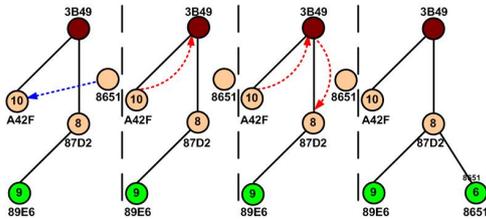


Figure 2: Instance of lookup mechanism.

The final mechanism provided by our protocol is that of voluntary departure from the system and is given as pseudo-code in Figure 3.

```

1. delete ( )
2.   if ( has_kids ( ) )
3.     rand_kid = choose_random_kid ( )
4.     if ( rand_kid.has_kids ( ) )
5.       rand_kid.delete ( )
6.     else
7.       rand_kid.move_published ( )
8.       rand_kid.copy_neighbors ( )
9.       inform_neighbors ( rand_kid )
10.      disconnect ( )
11.   else
12.     this_node.father.move_published ( )
13.     inform_neighbors ( this_node.father )
14.     disconnect ( )

```

Figure 3: Example for voluntary departure mechanism.

The algorithms presented so far embody the main mechanisms of our routing protocol and are capable of maintaining the system stable and fully functional under normal conditions. The system is however liable to node departures, either intentional or due to network disconnections, which we will call “node failures”. Through changes in the algorithms already presented we allow the system to bypass node failures. Most changes are based on using the upper and lower set of our neighbourhood table to bypass nodes that aren’t responding. The upper set is

utilized to forward messages to nodes of a higher level while the lower set for nodes on a lower level. In the first case, when a node is unable to contact its parent node it attempts to forward requests consequently to:

1. the parent’s parent node (Up2)
2. the node to the right of the parent node (Right2)
3. the node to the left of the parent node (Left2)

Whichever of the above succeeds first will terminate the mechanism. Similarly, the lower set is utilized for bypassing child node failures. In order to address the problem of node failures even further, we have designed a repair mechanism, which is invoked whenever such a failure is detected. The algorithm utilizes the voluntary departure algorithm in order to repair a failure to a child node. It can be proven that all other failures can be transformed into a child failure through contacting nodes in the neighbourhood table and forwarding the repair message. Once the appropriate node is reached, a variation of the departure algorithm is evoked in order to repair the failure by substituting the failed node with one of its children or by deleting it if none is available and informing all of its neighbours.

Having presented the core structure and logic behind our routing protocol, we will continue with a number of extensions that improve the system’s performance. The first extension introduces the use of replication schemas, which has been shown to increase the robustness of content distribution systems (Ghods,2005). In this paper we have implemented three additional replication schemas. We must note that, in contrast with other schemas found in different protocols, we only replicate published keywords in nodes and not the actual content.

Our core routing protocol publishes a keyword in a single node, the one with closest identifier to that of the keyword. All three replications schemas retain this quality and enhance it by also publishing the keyword to a number of additional nodes, from which one can recall a successful lookup. Our three variations are the following:

1. **Local Spread Replication (LSR)**
The keyword is also published in all nodes residing in its neighboring table.
2. **Inverse Replication (IR)**
This mechanism publishes keywords to the closest match and to the inverse closest match.
3. **Local Spread Inverse Replication (LSIR)**
It implements a local spread in both the closest and the inverse closest match.

The second extension implemented allows nodes to participate in a number of virtual networks, with a different identifier in each one. This allows

each node to have a different set of neighbours and thus increase its tolerability substantially. In order to achieve this, we have defined a number of singular identifier assignment functions that transform the original identifiers into a new set of identifiers. This new set is then used to allocate nodes and route requests in the virtual networks. We have defined 7 different such functions, which are given below:

1. **Inverse Identifier (II)**
This function inverses the identifier
2. **Inverse per Pair (IP)**
The identifier's digits are inverted by pair
3. **Inverse per Pair and Whole (IPW)**
All digits are inverted by pair and the result is inverted as a whole
4. **Inverse by Halves (IH)**
The II function is applied to the first and second half of the identifier independently
5. **Switch Halves (SH)**
The first and second halves are switched
6. **Random Reordering (RR)**
A random reordering of the identifier's digits
7. **Second Random Reordering (SRR)**
Same as RR with different random generator

5 SIMULATION RESULTS

In order to testify our architecture's integrity and elaborate on its efficiency we have modeled our system and its algorithms using the neurogrid (Joseph,2003) simulator. All of our simulations were executed on a 3.2MHz PC with 512Mb of RAM and based on Java.

Prior to our simulation analysis on the efficiency of our protocol and its performance in general, we will present the Umbrella topology, as this derives from the architectural design. For this purpose, we have used the JUNG (Madadhain,2005) library, which allows the visual representation of networks. Once our overlay network has been created and fully populated, we produce an instance of the network topology by representing each node (peer) along with the parent-children pairs of connections. In addition, we color each node according to the level it resides, providing an in-sight view of our protocol. In Figure 4, a number of such instances are given for different node populations varying from 10 and up to 1,000 nodes. As can be seen, nodes are spread along the B-tree structure and although we do not imply restrictions on the minimum or maximum number of children for each level (as in a proper B-tree) the structure is still quite compact.

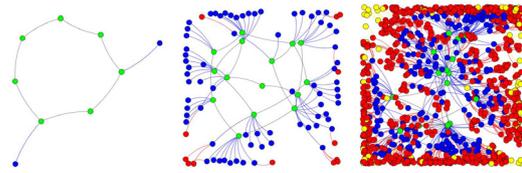


Figure 4: The Umbrella topology for 10, 100 and 1,000 nodes.

The first part of our initial simulations tested the basic functionality of the routing protocol under normal conditions, in other words without the presence of node failures. All of the results presented in this set provided 100% success. We thus present only the number of hops required for a successful insertion, publish and lookup with a varying population of nodes. As is seen in Figure 5, the number of hops grows logarithmically with node population in all mechanisms. We also notice that the variance is mainly towards lower number of hops while higher values are only a fraction larger than the mean. If we further analyze the results from the previous figures we will observe that the average hops required by each operation are given by $2.5 \cdot \log_{16} N$. Thus it satisfies theorem 3 and only introduces a constant factor of 2.5.

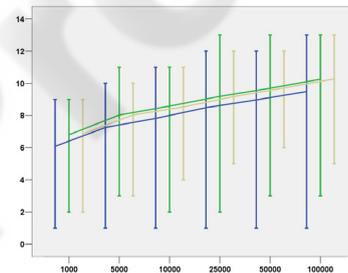


Figure 5: Number of hops for insert publish and lookup operations.

In the next set of simulations we tested our repair mechanism in the case of failing nodes in order to evaluate its effect on the success rate. We conducted simulations with variant node populations from 1,000 up to 100,000 nodes and periodically issued random node failures in steps of 10% from 0 up to 80%. An important metric in our repair mechanism is the rate at which the mechanism is invoked. More precisely, each node invokes the mechanism in two cases; either whenever a failure is detected during a call of one of the protocol's algorithms or during the course of a routing table consistency check, which is issued periodically by each node. The former is constant and issued throughout our simulations, while the latter varies as we have conducted simulations with different consistency check periods. In the results presented here we have varied

this period and executed simulations for period times 10T and 20T, where T is a constant representing communication activity of each node (in our case T equals to 100 messages), ensuring that an inactive node will not suffocate the network with repair messages.

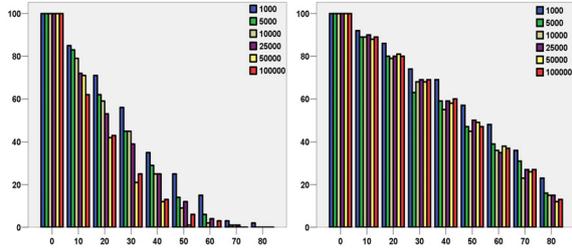


Figure 6: Successful lookups as a function of failures without and with repair 10T.

Firstly we investigate the impact of the repair mechanism on the success rate of lookup operations. As seen in Figure 6 the repair mechanism dramatically increases the success rate regardless of the node population and the check period. The protocol is able to produce linear deduction of the successful lookup rate as opposed to the logarithmic decrease observed without the repair mechanism. The impact of the repair mechanism is better observed in Figure 7, where we have mapped the success rate of lookups against node failures for the case of 100,000 nodes, for no repair, repair period 10T and 20T. The results were dramatically improved in both cases where the repair mechanism was applied. The results obtained with repair period 10T are a fraction higher than those of 20T, which was expected as nodes check their routing table’s consistency less frequently.

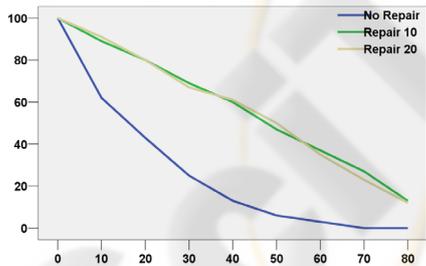


Figure 7: Successful lookup for no-repair, 10T and 20T repair.

In the second set of simulations we applied our two protocol extensions, the replication schemas and the virtual networks. We will present the effect of each extension and evaluate the overall protocol efficiency when all variations are applied.

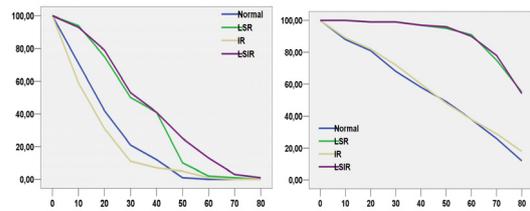


Figure 8: Lookup success ratio for different replication schemas and repair periods.

Firstly we will evaluate the effect of the different replication schemas to the efficiency and tolerability of our routing protocol. In our simulations, we varied the node population from 1,000 up to 50,000 nodes and generated failures in steps of 10% from 0 up to 80%. In the first diagram of Figure 8 we have sketched the successful lookup ratio as the node failure ratio increases, for a network of 50,000 nodes and varying replication schemas and repair periods. We observe that while the inverse replication (IR) schema does not better the protocol’s efficiency, both the local spread replication (LSR) and the local spread inverse replication (LSIR) schemas improve the protocol’s success rate vastly. These improvements are even more significant when the repair mechanism is applied, as seen in the second diagram of Figure 8. The protocol is able to sustain 100% success rates up to 30% fail rates when a repair period of 10T and either LSR or LSIR schemas are applied. Moreover, success rates higher than 80% are achieved for up to 70% fail rates when a 10T repair period is applied and a LSR or LSIR replication schema is implemented.

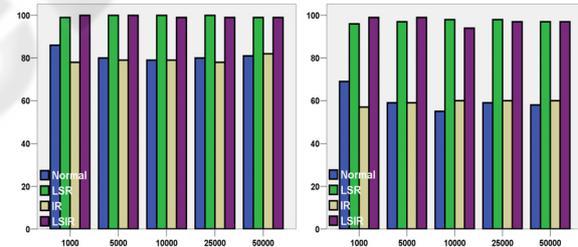


Figure 9: Lookup success ratios for different replication schemas and failure ratios.

In the next figure, Figure 9, we can see the impact of node population on the combination of replication schemas. We have controlled the repair period and retained it constant and equal to 10T and varied the failure ratio between 20% and 60% for the four different replication schemas and for node populations of 1,000 up to 50,000. As can be seen, the node population does not affect the success rate for any replication schema or failure ratio. This

shows that our protocol can escalate and support intense node populations.

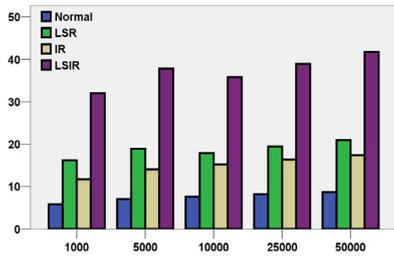


Figure 10: Per node messages for different replication schemas as a function of node population.

Finally we investigated the drawback of the proposed replication schemas. As can be seen from Figure 10 the new schemas incur an increase in the number of messages exchanged between peers. The use of the IR schema doubles the number of messages required while the LSR and LSIR induce an increase by a factor of 2.5 and 6.0 respectively. Even though these changes may sound significant they are actually quite efficient since even in the case of 50,000 nodes and LSIR replication schema the total does not exceed that of 45 messages for the whole duration of the simulation.

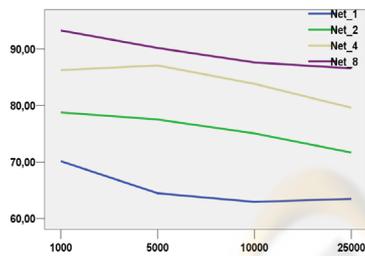


Figure 11: Average of successful lookups for varying virtual networks as a function of node population.

In our final series of simulations we will try to evaluate the effect of the virtual networks extension. During this analysis, in many cases, we present aggregated results due to the multiple variables that affect each simulation. All presented results evaluate

the case of having 1 (no virtual networks), 2, 4 or 8 virtual networks. In Figure 11 the average of successful lookups is shown for varying virtual networks as a function of node population. The average derives from the aggregation of all combinations of replication schemas, repair periods and failing ratios. With that in mind, we must point out that the optimum success rate for our protocol is much higher than the average shown in this figure. However, the average presents an indication of the virtual networks' effect on the success rate. It is clear from the data on the figure that as the number of virtual networks increases the success rate improves tremendously, and from an average of around 65% for no virtual networks it raises to 75%, 85% and 90% for the cases of 2, 4 and 8 respectively. This is further testified by observing in Figure 12 how virtual networks affect the success rate for different replication schemas. Once again, the success rate increases linearly with the number of virtual networks, for all replication schemas.

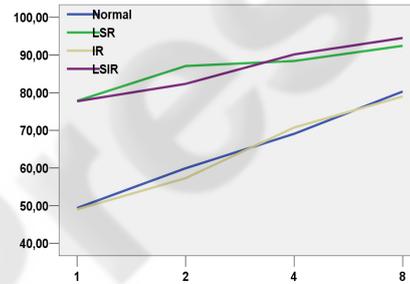


Figure 12: Average of successful lookups for varying replication schemas as a function of virtual networks.

Having established the beneficial effect of the virtual networks extension, we will now present the optimum protocol performance. In Figure 13 we seek the optimum performance of our protocol. We vary the number of virtual networks between 1 and 8 and the repair period between 0 and 10T, for the average of all replication schemas. As can be seen,

Table 2: Success rates for combinations of virtual networks, repair periods and replication schemas per node failure ratio.

Failure %	Network 2		Network 4				Network 8					
	Repair 10T		Repair 20T		Repair 10T		Repair 20T		Repair 10T		Repair 20T	
	LSR	LSIR										
0	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
10	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
20	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
30	100	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
40	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
50	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
60	99	99	98	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
70	96	97	93	97	99	100	96	99	100	100	96	100
80	73	86	67	77	98	98	82	97	98	99	97	99

for the case of 8 virtual networks, a 100% mechanism, while this rate increases up to 80% when a 10T repair period is applied. In the latter case, even with 4 virtual networks an optimum performance is achieved for up to 60-70% node failures.

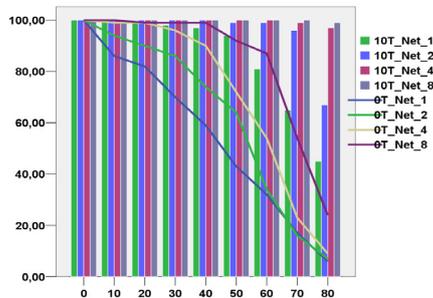


Figure 13: Success rate for different combinations of virtual networks and repair period as a function of failures.

Finally we will present some conclusive results for the optimum performance of our protocol. In Table 2 we can see the success rates for the best combinations of virtual networks, replication schemas and repair periods as node failures increase.

For all combinations, the protocol routes seamlessly when node failures don't exceed a 40-50% ratio. If we want our protocol to tolerate even more node failures then either 4 or 8 virtual networks should be implemented, regardless of the check period or the replication schema. Here we point out that the repair mechanism is a pre-requirement, in contrast to the repair period, which can be relaxed to 20T without significant loss in performance. The same applies for the replication schema; the LSR schema must be at least applied but the LSIR is not vital as results are only slightly better.

6 CONCLUSIONS

Through the course of this paper we presented the Umbrella protocol; a novel protocol based on a distributed hash table that supports key publishing and retrieval on top of an overlay network for content distribution. We have analysed our protocol and its algorithms through both theoretical and simulation means and proved its correctness and efficacy. Its main novelty lies in its fixed-size routing table sustained by each node, which is able to provide efficient routing even under contrary conditions. The protocol has also proved to be scalable due to its low traffic load demands. The results obtained by our simulations proved that the

protocol, along with a number of valuable extensions, is able to route seamlessly successful lookups in $O(\log_b N)$ steps even when more than 80% of the system's population suddenly fails.

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