An Adaptive Index-based Algorithm using Time-coordination in Mobile Computing

Yanping Gao¹, Changhui Deng¹, Yandong Che²
1. School of Information Engineering, Dalian Fisheries University, Dalian 116023 China
2. An Shan Technician College, Liao Ning An Shan 114000
windy960112@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract

Checkpointing is one of the commonly used techniques to provide fault-tolerance in distributed systems so that the system can operate even if one or more components have failed. However, mobile computing systems are constrained by low bandwidth, mobility, lack of stable storage, frequent disconnections and limited battery life. Hence, checkpointing protocols having lesser number of synchronization messages and fewer checkpoints are preferred in mobile environment. There are two different approaches, although not orthogonal, to checkpoint mobile computing systems namely, time-based and index-based. Our protocol is an integration of these two approaches, though not first of its kind. In the present exposition, an index-based checkpointing protocol has been developed, which uses time to indirectly coordinate the creation of consistent global checkpoint for mobile computing systems. The proposed algorithm is non-blocking, adaptive, and does not use any control message. Compared to other contemporary checkpointing algorithms, it is computationally more efficient because it takes lesser number of checkpoints and does not need to compute dependency relationships.

1. Introduction

Rollback recovery is essential in fault-tolerant distributed computing.Checkpointing is used as a popular technique for rollback recovery since Chandi-Lamport introduced distributed snapshots [1]. A checkpoint is a snapshot of the local state of a process, saved on local non-volatile storage to survive process failures. The purpose of checkpointing is to reduce recovery time by providing an earlier database state. The mobile hosts, roaming between places, make mobile computing systems more prone to frequent process failures due to physical damage, lost and stolen, and transient failures like power and connectivity problems. A local checkpoint includes the local state of one process, whereas, a global checkpoint includes the local states of all the processes in the system, provided one from each process. A message exchanged between a pair of processes is called orphan if its receive event has already been recorded in the local checkpoint of receiver process while its send event is yet to be recorded in the local checkpoint of process. The existence of orphan messages pose consistency problem in the system. A global checkpoint is consistent if and only if no pair of its constituent checkpoints has any orphan message. The well-known problem of unbounded domino effect [4] arises if processes take their local checkpoints independently. Hence, the checkpointing protocols using some coordination mechanism are more popular.

Two methods of coordination have been proposed in the literature (a) coordinated checkpointing, where protocols have to exchange explicit control messages during checkpoint creation to save consistent global states. Although, this should be avoided because of frequent disconnections in the mobile computing environment. (b) Communication-induced checkpointing (CIC), where protocols piggyback control information on application messages, thereby, avoids addition of explicit control messages, to the computation, during checkpoint creation[6]. In addition to basic checkpoints, that is, local checkpoints taken by each process independently at its own pace, the protocol-specific information piggybacked on application messages may “induce” each process to take some extra checkpoints, termed forced checkpoints, before it can process the messages. Basically, forced checkpoint is “induced” by a condition, which is tested after receiving every communication (message). The class of protocols derives its name “com.

CIC protocols allow processes to enjoy greater autonomy, compared to their other checkpointing counterparts, in deciding when to take local checkpoints. However, the increased number of forced checkpoints negates the “autonomy” advantage substantially. Therefore, the research efforts are mostly directed towards limiting the number of forced checkpoints to the fullest possible extent.

There are two different types of Communication-induced protocols. (a) model-based, where checkpointing protocol tries to avoid the domino effect and mimic a piece-wise deterministic behavior for each process. (b) index-based, where a sequence number is assigned to each local checkpoint. Associating every local checkpoint with a sequence number is, basically, timestamping every
local checkpoint with Lamport’s logical clock. Any global checkpoint, consisting of local checkpoints with the same sequence number, is guaranteed to be consistent. Index-based protocols are preferred over their model-based counterparts because they piggyback smaller control information on application messages and force lesser checkpoints.

The present work is also about the design and analysis of an index-based checkpointing protocol, which uses time coordination in order to reduce the number of total checkpoints. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes system model, section 3 gives algorithm concept, and section 4 presents the algorithm. Section 5 contains a brief account of important related work. Finally, section 6 concludes the work.

2. System model

A mobile computing application is executed by a set of n processes, denoted by P_1, P_2,...,P_n, running on several mobile hosts (MHs). Processes communicate with each other by sending messages. Each process progresses at its own speed and messages are exchanged through an asynchronous and reliable channel with unpredictable but finite transmission delays, that is, no message will be lost in the channel. The messages, originated from a source MH, are received by the local mobile support station (MSS) and then forwarded to the destination MH. All MSSs are interconnected by a fixed network. The MSSs may belong to different organizations. A typical wireless cell is shown in following Fig.1.

![Fig 1. The wireless cell](image)

All processes in the system take their checkpoints periodically. Before a mobile computing application starts, a predefined checkpoint period T is set on the timers. When the local timer expires, the process saves its system state as a checkpoint and assigns it a checkpoint sequence number. Any subsequent checkpoint is assigned higher checkpoint sequence number, which increases monotonically. The time interval between the kth checkpoint and k+1th checkpoint is called the kth checkpoint interval.

Every MH and MSS contains a system clock, with typical clock drift rate ρ in the order of 10^-5 or 10^-6. The system clocks of MSSs can be synchronized using internet synchronization services such as network time protocol (NTP), which makes the maximum deviation of all the clocks within tens of milliseconds. Timers in MSSs are used as reference because MSSs, being fixed hosts, have more reliable timers than those in MHs. Every application message m_j is piggybacked with two values viz. checkpoint sequence number N_j of the sender P_j and local timer of the MSS Timer_M, that is, time to next checkpoint. The MSS, closest to the receiver, is responsible for piggybacking its local timer Timer_M.time to next checkpoint, in every application message m_j destined to the receiver.

3. Algorithm concept

We assume that each process takes an initial basic checkpoint and that, for the sake of simplicity, basic checkpoint is taken by a periodic algorithm. Every process sends the snapshot of its initial state (termed as 0th checkpoint) to its local MSS when the application starts. A checkpoint period T, predefined by local MSS, is set on the timers of all the mobile hosts before starting the mobile computing application. For any process, whenever its local timer expires, it takes a checkpoint if it has sent any message in the current checkpoint interval. If no message has been sent in the current checkpoint interval then it will not take the checkpoint for the current checkpoint interval.

However, due to varying drift rates of local clocks, the timers at different sites are not perfectly synchronized. Hence, the checkpoints may not be consistent because of orphan messages. In order to avoid this situation, every message sent between processes is piggybacked with the sender’s information which tells how many checkpoint intervals have passed at the sender process. Using this information, creation messages is avoided.

Every message, originated from a process, reaches its destination through the MSS, where it is piggybacked ‘time to next checkpoint’ by the local MSS. When the message is received by the receiver, it sets its local timer equal to the timer of local MSS. In this way, the timer synchronization is implemented.

After taking checkpoint, processes send their checkpoint information to its local MSS, where it is stored in a stable storage. A global checkpoint consists of all the N_0 checkpoints of every process, where N≥0. If any process has not taken its N_0 checkpoint (as it did not send any message in the N_0 checkpoint interval), its previous checkpoint would be included in the N_0 global checkpoint. The Nth global checkpoint is not complete unless every process sends either N_0 checkpoint or the information that N checkpoint intervals have passed.

3.1. Choosing checkpoint period
In time-based checkpointing protocols, the length of recovery is directly proportional to the checkpoint period \( T \). Larger checkpoint periods result, on average, in larger rollbacks, and consequently in longer recovery times. Hence, shorter checkpoint periods are preferable. However, the checkpointing protocol can only begin to create a new checkpoint when the previous checkpoint has been completely stored on the stable storage. Thus, the checkpoint period should be greater than the time taken to save the checkpoint completely on the stable storage. Therefore, the checkpoint period is lower bounded by the checkpoint latency. The checkpoint latency can be defined as the time a protocol takes to save a new checkpoint.

### 3.2. Working of the algorithm

The algorithm uses the following local variables:

- \( c_i \): a boolean variable that is initialized as 0. If a message is sent by a process \( P_i \) in the current checkpoint interval, \( c_i \) is set to 1.
- \( N_i \): number of checkpoint intervals passed.
- \( T_i \): timer of process \( P_i \).
- \( T_{MSS} \): timer of the MSS.
- \( \text{flag} \): if it is set to 0 process takes a checkpoint after expiry of its local timer. No, otherwise.

Process \( P_i \) takes a checkpoint when either it’s local timer \( T_i \) has expired or when it receives a piggybacked message \( m_j \) from some other process \( P_j \). If \( T_i \) has expired then it checks whether \( c_i = 1 \). If it is true then the process takes a checkpoint otherwise continues its normal operation. If a process \( P_i \) receives a piggybacked message \( m_j \) but its local timer \( T_i \) has yet not expired then it checks whether \( N_j \) of the sender \( P_j \) is greater than \( N_i \) of the receiver \( P_i \). There are two possible cases: (1) If it is true \( P_i \) sets the flag variable (\( \text{flag}=1 \)) and takes a checkpoint if \( c_i = 1 \), without recording the current reception event. Afterwards, \( P_i \) processes the received message \( m_j \). As flag is set to 1, \( P_i \) doesn’t take checkpoint further, in the current checkpoint interval, after expiry of its local timer \( T_i \). The following Fig. 2 illustrates this scenario. (\( C^t \): \( y_{th} \) checkpoint of process \( P_i \))

However, process \( P_i \) takes a checkpoint, in the current checkpoint interval, after expiry of its local timer if \( c_i = 1 \). The following Fig. 3 illustrates this case.

### 4. The algorithm

Following is the pseudo code of the algorithm:

#### 4.1. Pseudo code

At each process \( P_i (1 \leq i \leq n) \)

If (\( T_i \) expires)

If (\( \text{flag}=1 \)) then

\( \text{flag}=0; \) //do not take checkpoint and resume
//normal computation

else

\( N_i = N_i +1; \)

if(\( c_i = 1 \))

take checkpoint

\( c_i = 0; \)

resume normal computation

endif;

endif;

else

if(\( P_i \) receives message \(<m_j,N_j,T_{MSS}>\))

\( T_i = T_{MSS}; \)

if(\( N_j > N_i \))

\( \text{flag}=1; \)

\( N_i = N_i +1; \)

if(\( c_i = 1 \))

take checkpoint

\( c_i = 0; \)

endif;

endif;

else

if(\( P_i \) receives message \(<m_j, N_j, T_{MSS}>\))

\( T_i = T_{MSS}; \)

if(\( N_j > N_i \))

\( \text{flag}=1; \)

\( N_i = N_i +1; \)

if(\( c_i = 1 \))

take checkpoint

\( c_i = 0; \)

endif;

endif;

process message \( m_j \);

resume normal computation

\[ \text{Fig. 2. Case 1}(N_j > N_i) \]

(2) If it is false then process \( P_i \) directly processes the received message \( m_j \) without taking any checkpoint.
else
  resume normal computation
endif
endif

4.2. Proof of correctness

Theorem 1. Let \( P_j \) be any process whose \( c_j = 1 \) and latest checkpoint is \( C_j^k \) then none of the messages sent by \( P_j \) in the \( k \)th checkpoint interval can become orphan.

Proof. The variable \( c_j \) is set to 1 if and only if process \( P_j \) has sent at least one message (say \( m_j \)) in the current checkpoint interval and it has not taken the checkpoint for this interval yet. This implies that \( P_j \) has not recorded this event of sending message \( m_j \).

If any receiving process \( P_i \) first processes messages \( m_j \) and then takes its \( k \)th checkpoint then message \( m_j \) may become orphan since the event of receiving message \( m_j \) is recorded in the \( k \)th checkpoint of process \( P_i \) but event of the sending of message \( m_j \) has not been recorded in \( k \)th checkpoint interval of process \( P_j \). This would make the \( k \)th global checkpoint inconsistent. However, this never happens as process \( P_i \), on receiving message \( m_j \), would take its \( k \)th checkpoint first and then process the message \( m_j \). This is implemented by piggybacking every message \( m_j \) with variable \( N_j \) of the sender \( P_j \) (\( N_j \) denotes the checkpoint intervals passed at process \( P_j \)).

On the basis of value \( N_j \), receiver \( P_i \) decides whether to process the received message \( m_j \) directly, or to take checkpoint first and then process the message \( m_j \). This is implemented by piggybacking every message \( m_j \) with variable \( N_j \) of the sender \( P_j \) (\( N_j \) denotes the checkpoint intervals passed at process \( P_j \)).

When process \( P_i \) receives message \( m_j \) it compares the piggybacked variable \( N_j \) with its own variable \( N_i \). If \( N_i \leq N_j \), then it implies that process \( P_j \) has already taken its \( k \)th checkpoint. So, it processes the received message \( m_j \) directly. If \( N_i > N_j \), then it implies that \( P_j \) has yet not taken its \( k \)th checkpoint. So, it first takes the checkpoint \( C_j^k \) (say at time \( t_j \)) and then process message \( m_j \). Thus, the \( k \)th checkpoints, of both processes sender \( P_j \) and receiver \( P_i \), do not record anything regarding message \( m_j \), so \( k \)th checkpoint is consistent and message \( m_j \) cannot become orphan in the \( k \)th global checkpoint.

Process \( P_j \) will definitely take its (\( k+1 \))th checkpoint (since it has sent message \( m_j \) in the \( k \)th interval) and hence (\( k+1 \))th global checkpoint is consistent.

Theorem 2. If at any given time \( t \), \( c_i = 0 \) for process \( P_i \) and \( C_i^k \) is its latest checkpoint, then none of the messages sent by \( P_i \) remains orphan at time \( t \).

Proof. There can be two cases for process \( P_i \) under the given conditions: Process \( P_i \) took checkpoint \( C_i^k \) exactly at time \( t \) and has reset \( c_i = 0 \). This implies any message sent by process \( P_i \) before time \( t \) must have been recorded up to checkpoint \( C_i^k \). As send event of the message(s) has been recorded, none of the message(s) sent by \( P_i \) would be orphan at time \( t \).

Process \( P_i \) took its latest checkpoint \( C_i^k \) at some instant \( t_i \) where \( t_i < t \). Now, \( c_i = 0 \) implies that it has not sent any message since its last checkpoint at time \( t_i \) and all messages sent before \( t_i \) have already been recorded by the previous checkpoints. Hence, none of the messages sent by process \( P_i \) would be orphan at time \( t \).

From theorem 1 and 2, we conclude that at any given time \( t \), none of the messages sent by any process \( P_i \) would be orphan. Therefore, at any given time \( t \), the proposed algorithm ensures the existence of globally consistent checkpoint.

Theorem 3. The algorithm terminates within a finite time.

Proof. The proof is trivial, as the algorithm does not use any shared variable and does not contain any looping structure.

4.3. Adaptivity

An algorithm is called adaptive when it adjusts and functions well within a changing environment. In our protocol, a process does not take a local checkpoint, scheduled shortly after a forced checkpoint, because such local checkpoint advances the recovery point of the process by a very short amount compared to the forced checkpoint just taken, however, it may generate a flurry of forced checkpoints throughout the system. In order to address this problem, we increment the checkpoint sequence number on taking the forced checkpoint and do not take the local checkpoint scheduled shortly after it. In this way, by taking the forced checkpoint into account, we make our local checkpointing policy adaptive. This approach reduces the number of local checkpoints that, in turn, reduce the number of forced checkpoints.

4.4. Problem associated with time-based approach

In, authors pointed out that the time-based checkpointing schemes may be inconsistent when failure occurs in the situation explained below in Fig.4. \( P_j \) and \( P_i \) are two processes executing simultaneously in a mobile computing system. Due to clock drift, process \( P_i \) takes its \( C_j^k \) checkpoint before process \( P_j \) takes its \( C_j^k \) checkpoint.

Now, after these checkpoints have been taken, \( P_j \) sends a message \( m_j \) to \( P_i \). Since \( N_i = N_j \), \( P_i \) directly processes message \( m_j \) without taking any checkpoint. Now, suppose \( P_i \) takes checkpoint \( C_i^{k+1} \) at time \( t_i \) and \( P_j \) takes
checkpoint $C_{j}^{k+1}$ at time $t_2$ where $t_1 < t_2$. If the system crashes between time $t_1$ and $t_2$, then $P_j$ restarts from $k+1$ and $P_i$ from $C_{j}^{k+1}$ (as checkpoint $C_{j}^{k+1}$ has not been taken yet). This results in inconsistency as $m_j$ becomes orphan in this case because its send event was not recorded by $P_j$ but the receive event has been recorded by $P_i$.

\[
\text{Fig 4. A possible inconsistency}
\]

Our algorithm is also time-based; however, this inconsistency situation never arises there. A global checkpoint consists of all the Nth checkpoints of every process, where $N \geq 0$. If any process has not taken its $N_{th}$ checkpoint (as it did not send any message in the $N_{th}$ checkpoint interval), its previous checkpoint would be included in the $N_{th}$ global checkpoint. The $N_{th}$ global checkpoint is not complete unless each process has either sent its $N_{th}$ checkpoint or the information that N checkpoint intervals have passed (in this case its previous checkpoint would be included in the $N_{th}$ global checkpoint). When system crashes between time $t_1$ and $t_2$, the $(k+1)_{th}$ global checkpoint is not complete yet as $P_j$ has not taken its $(k+1)_{th}$ checkpoint. So, $P_i$ does not restart from $C_{j}^{k+1}$ but from $C_{j}^{k}$ as $k_{th}$ global checkpoint is complete. In $k_{th}$ global checkpoint, neither the event of sending message $m_j$ nor the event of receiving message $m_j$ was recorded, so message $m_j$ does not become orphan and $k_{th}$ global checkpoint is consistent. Hence, the common inconsistency problem for time-based checkpoint scheme, pointed out in, does not arise in our algorithm.

5. Related works

We have used the concept of time-coordination in order to design an index-based checkpointing protocol. Thus, we review, one by one, both time-coordinated and index-based checkpointing protocol and compare our work with them.

5.1. Time-based checkpointing protocols

Time-based protocols do not need to exchange extra coordination messages, because they assume synchronized clocks and bounded message deliveries. Each process has to take a local checkpoint after expiry of its local timer. However, in our algorithm, a process takes a checkpoint after expiry of its local timer if and only if it has sent at least one message in the current checkpoint interval. Therefore, the total number of checkpoints is very less compared to above mentioned algorithms.

Neves and Fuchs proposed a checkpointing scheme that achieves global consistent checkpoint without additional messaging. The unique feature of the scheme is use of time to synchronize checkpoint creation. They used time to indirectly coordinate the creation of recoverable consistent checkpoints. It requires that checkpoints be sent back only to home agents, which results in high failure-free overhead during checkpointing. However, our protocol does not have this limitation because each process takes its local checkpoint on the stable storage of its current local MSS in the protocol.

Neogy et al. proposed a synchronous checkpointing algorithm for distributed systems. Each process takes its checkpoint at predetermined time instants according to its own local clock. There must be some synchronization among various local clocks to make the checkpoints consistent. This problem is addressed by using extra messages for clock synchronization. The clock synchronization messages are used for synchronizing local clocks as well as checkpointing action. The authors made following assumptions in the system model:

Logical clocks of the processes are at most $D_{max}$ apart from each other. There exist a constant $D_{max}$ such that at the $k_{th}$ resynchronization interval($k \geq 0$) for all correct clocks $i$ and $j$, if the logical clocks of the processes $P_i$ and $P_j$ be denoted by $C_i$ and $C_j$, then $| C_i - C_j |(t) \leq D_{max}$

Each process maintains a message log in the form: (message id, sender/receiver id)

Since communication is synchronous, processes may be blocked for send/receive. Checkpointing instant may occur during the blocked period. Blocked processes take checkpoints after they unblock and hence, obviously record the event for which it was being blocked.

An unblocked process takes its checkpoint when the checkpointing instant occurs. After taking the checkpoint it “freezes” itself (i.e. stops execution temporarily) and waits for the next clock resynchronization message. It appends its message log with the clock resynchronization message so that processes slower than it can synchronize themselves.

This protocol has several advantages like there is no central checkpoint coordinator that poses a single point failure threat to the system. The overhead of coordinating messages is also absent. Synchronization among the local checkpoints has been brought about by the clock synchronization messages that have been utilized for this purpose. The method of checkpointing in blocked processes is not wastage of time because communication delay is finite. Since clock synchronization is an integral
part of the above distributed system, “waiting” of a process, for the next clock synchronization message, does not also entail much time.

As any global checkpoint is consistent, only one checkpoint needs to be stored in the stable storage. So, the system does not have to roll back more than once to restart from a previous consistent state in case recovery is required.

Limitations are that the system is synchronous hence the processes may be blocked at checkpointing instants. The sender process is blocked until acknowledgement is received or corresponding receive event is executed at the receiver process. Similarly, the receiver process is also blocked while waiting for the corresponding action at the sender’s end. The blocked process takes checkpoint only after being unblocked. Our algorithm is nonblocking and uses timer to coordinate the process of checkpointing.

In each process takes checkpoint whenever its local timer expires. If a checkpoint initiator does not transitively depend on a process, the process does not have to take a checkpoint associated with the initiator. The result is that the number of checkpoints is minimized. The protocol is also nonblocking because the inconsistency between processes is avoided by piggybacking necessary information in each message. A timer has to be synchronized to avoid inconsistencies. This can be done using the piggybacked information. This protocol reduces the number of checkpoints compared to the traditional time-based protocols. It also makes use of the accurate timers in the MSS to adjust the timers in the MH, so that this protocol is well suited to mobile computing systems with MHs spread across a wide area network. The algorithm takes a number of soft checkpoints and computes dependency relationship using extra control messages. Subsequently, on the basis of dependency relationship unnecessary soft checkpoints are discarded. However, in our algorithm a process takes checkpoints only if other processes are dependent on it, that is, it has sent at least one message to them in the current checkpoint interval. As the proposed algorithm takes only minimal checkpoints, there is no need to compute the dependency relation. Hence, our algorithm has less checkpointing overhead.

In a two phase technology is used to handle potential inconsistency. Assume that maximum deviation that separates two timers, initiated in different nodes, is D and the checkpoint period is T. After n checkpoints have been created since the last timer re-synchronization, the maximum deviation of two processes is MD, where MD=D+2nT. Inconsistency issues, that may arise, are messages sent before or after taking checkpoint MD time units. These messages can be in-transit or orphan messages. Assume, the maximum and minimum message propagation delays are t_{max} and t_{min}. The messages sent, MD+t_{max} time units before taking checkpoint, may become in-transit messages and the messages sent, MD+T_{min} (denoted as ED) time units after taking checkpoint, and may become orphan messages.

In two phase technology two timers, Timer_ckp and Timer_pmt are used to solve potential inconsistent issues. Whenever Timer_ckp expires, tentative checkpoint is taken and when Timer_pmt expires it converts tentative checkpoint into permanent checkpoint. Timer_ckp is set to T and Timer_pmt is set to T+D+2nT, where n is checkpoint sequence number. The messages sent, in MD+t_{max} time units before Timer_ckp expires, are logged by saving in queue_in_transit to avoid inconsistencies and the messages sent, in ED time after Timer_ckp expires, are sent with checkpoint sequence number(CSN),so that receiver compares and takes forced checkpoint decision depending on its CSN to avoid inconsistencies.

The protocol avoids all potential inconsistent issues that may arise in time-based algorithms. The algorithm is also non-blocking. First tentative checkpoints are taken and these tentative checkpoints are later converted into permanent checkpoints. Hence, for each k^th checkpoint interval two checkpoint computations are required. However, our algorithm takes permanent checkpoints only, therefore, it is computationally more efficient.

5.2. Index-based checkpointing protocols

In index-based checkpointing protocols, each process takes checkpoints either at its own pace(basic checkpoints) or induced by some communication pattern(forced checkpoints). In Briatico et al. algorithm, the number of forced checkpoint induced by a basic one, in the worst case, is n-1, where n is the number of processes. Manivannan and Singhal suggested an improvement over it. There is no reason to take a basic checkpoint if at least one forced checkpoint has been taken during the current checkpoint interval. However, the number of forced checkpoints remains at n-1, in the worst case. Baldoni et al. presented a further improved index-based checkpointing algorithm for distributed systems that reduces the total number of worst case checkpoints while ensuring that each checkpoint belongs to at least one consistent global checkpoint. He argued that, due to different rate of basic checkpoint for different processes, the faster process forces the slower one to take more checkpoints. Hence, the number of forced checkpoint can be very high, resulting in large number of total checkpoints. Therefore, Baldoni’s protocol does not increase the checkpoint sequence number, after taking basic checkpoints, unless the occurrence of a particular checkpoint and a communication pattern. The rationale behind his solution is that each time a basic checkpoint is taken without increasing the sequence number, it does not force checkpoints and this reduces the total number of checkpoints. In order to reduce the total number of
checkpoints each application message is piggybacked with \( n+1 \) integer as control information, where \( n \) is the total number of processes. However, in our algorithm due to same checkpoint period for every process, the above mentioned problem does not arise. Therefore, not only the number of forced checkpoints is less, also, the size of control information is independent of the number of processes. The smaller control information results in lower message propagation delay.

In the authors have defined and studied a family of communication-induced checkpointing protocols, where no local checkpoint is useless. A useless checkpoint is a local checkpoint that cannot be part of a consistent global checkpoint. However, in their protocols, the size of control messages is dependent on the number of processes. This problem has been addressed in. Helary et al. increased the number of forced checkpoints that are taken in order to eliminate the generation of useless local checkpoints. Tsai further increased the number of forced checkpoints so that the size of control information piggybacked with each message becomes constant. In our algorithm, the size of control information is constant and the number of forced checkpoint taken is also less as every process takes checkpoint at a predefined rate which does not vary from process to process.

In distributed computation, processes take basic checkpoints in a different rate, some is faster, and some is slower. The result is two fold disadvantages. The slower processes, receiving large number of messages from the faster ones, have to take large number of forced checkpoints. Also, the recovery of slower processes, having too lower local checkpointing rate, results in the huge loss of computation. In order to avoid such situations, Luo et al. presented an active approach by sending an extra message to the slower process to let it catch up. An extra synchronous message is sent from the faster process to the slower one, to let the slower process take a forced checkpoint with the large index. The message contains nothing but checkpoint index of the faster process. However, this problem does not arise in our algorithm because the algorithm is time-based and the checkpoint frequency for all processes is same.

The work closest to ours is Gupta et al.’s protocol. His work is an improvement over mutable checkpoints. It has reduced the number of checkpoints as compared to mutable checkpoints. It has the following good features:

1. Only those processes that have sent some message(s) after their last checkpoints, take checkpoints during checkpointing thereby reducing the number of checkpoints to be taken.
2. Reductions in the number of checkpoints help in the efficient use of the limited resources of mobile computing environment.

3. Uses minimum interaction (only once) between the initiator process and the system of \( n \) processes and there is no synchronization delay.

4. Uses very simple data structures, viz., three integer variables and one boolean variable per process.

5. Each process takes its checkpointing decision independently.

However, the algorithm has a limitation too. Consider a system of \( n \) process distributed system. Let, \( C_{cr} \) be the cost of sending a checkpoint request message from initiator to a single process. Hence, the checkpoint request cost, incurred by a single execution of the checkpointing algorithm, would be \( (n-1)C_{cr} \). Thus, the checkpoint request cost, incurred by \( k \) executions of the checkpointing algorithm, would amount to \( k(n-1)C_{cr} \). Therefore, the checkpoint request overhead, for applications involving large number of processes and running for longer durations, increases exponentially.

In the present work, we have attempted to eliminate above problem by using timer. It is a well-known fact that the use of timer eliminates extra coordination messages. A process takes checkpoint whenever its local timer expires. Moreover, only those processes take checkpoint, after expiry of their local timer, who has sent at least one message in the current checkpoint interval. Therefore, the number of processes taking checkpoint and, subsequently, the total number of checkpoints is significantly reduced. In addition, the use of timer removes need of the initiator process for sending the checkpointing request messages.

6. Conclusion

In this work we have developed an index-based algorithm which uses time-coordination for consistently checkpointing in mobile computing environments. The main features of our algorithm are: (1) it is non-blocking; (2) it is adaptive because it takes checkpointing decision on the basis of checkpoint sequence number; (3) it takes reduced number of checkpoints because a process does not take any temporary checkpoint and the process takes checkpoint if and only if some other process is dependent on it; (4) it doesn’t require tracking and computation of dependency information; (5) it doesn’t require any control message because it uses timer to indirectly coordinate the creation of consistent global checkpoints and the local timers are not synchronized through control messages but by piggybacking control information on application messages.

In time-based checkpointing protocols, there is no need to send extra coordination messages. However, they have to deal with the synchronization of timers. This class of protocols suits to the applications where processes have high message sending rate. However, for the applications, where processes have low message sending rate, time-coordinated protocols may perform poorly.
our approach, timer synchronization is done through the control information, which is piggybacked on application messages. Hence, in case, the application has low message sending rate, timers would not be synchronized frequently. Therefore, in case of a process failure, the system has to rollback, to a comparatively older state, loosing a significant amount of computation. The problem is being postponed for a future research work.

7. References