Clock Synchronization

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Global Clocks

- □ Distributed systems have no global clock
- Each processor in the system is autonomous
- Each processor has its own clock
- □ Impossible to have the processes across the system synchronized exactly
- □ Cannot know the true time order of any two events

Physical Clocks vs Logical Clocks

- Physical clocks keep time of day
 - Consistent across systems
- **■** Logical clocks keeps track of event ordering
 - Among related (casual) events

Ordering of Events

- □ It is impossible to know which of two events happens first
- □ This has an impact on scheduling
- □ This makes the distributed system harder to debug

Global Time via Shared Memory?

- □ Distributed systems have **no shared memory**
- □ Thus it is hard (impossible) to get an up-to-date state of the entire system
- □ A global state would give us
 - A view of all local states
 - The contents of all messages currently in transit

Global Time via Physical Clocks?

- □ Problem: Sometimes we simply need the exact time
 - Solution: Universal coordinated time (UTC)
- **□** Universal Time Coordinator (UTC)
 - Based on the number of 9,192,631,770 transitions per second of the cesium 133 atom (pretty accurate)
 - Accurate to +/- 1 second per 20,000,000 years
 about 1 part in 10¹²
 - Sources:
 - Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites (GEOS)
 - Global Positioning System (GPS) devices
 - WWV: a Fort Collins radio station
 - MSF: a British radio station

Definitions

Drifting:

- "the gradual misalignment of once synchronized clocks caused by the slight inaccuracies of the time-keeping mechanisms"
- Clock tick at different rates; create ever-widening gap in perceived time

Drift rate:

- "the change in offset (difference in reading) between the clock and a nominal perfect reference clock per unit time measured by the reference clock."
- For clocks based on a quartz crystal, this is about 10⁻⁶, giving a difference of one second every 1,000,000 seconds, or 11.6 days.

□ Clock Skew:

• "the difference in time between two clocks due to drifting"

Global Time via WWV

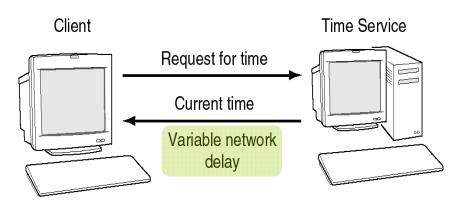
■ A Fort Collins shortwave radio station

- Transmits UTC signal
- Low-frequency => less atmospheric disturbance
- 2000 mile radius
- Sends signals once a day to clocks/watches
- Transmission delay is 24000 microseconds at the extreme range
 - □ Less than 0.1 second
 - Can be corrected for

UTC Time Providers

- **□** Time Provider.
 - "a commercial device that is capable of directly receiving information from a UTC server and making appropriate adjustments due to communication delays"
- Such devices are currently installed in watches, clocks, and computers

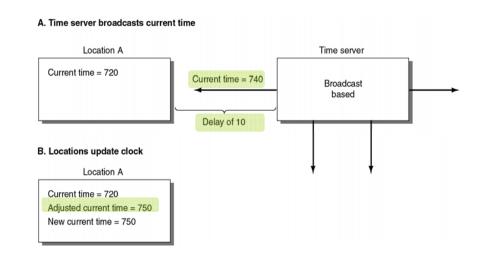
Network Delays when Communicating Time



Correcting for Transmitted Time

- □ A UTC signal is sent out
- □ Transmit time varies depending on
 - Atmospheric conditions
 - Humidity
- Receiving clock must make compensation for transmit time
- □ However, once reset, clock will start drifting again

Forward Adjustment of a Clock



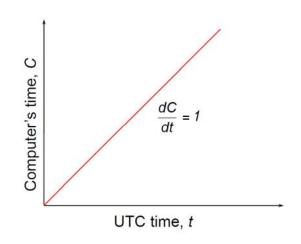
Clock Skew



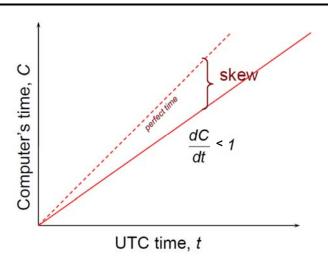
Clock Skew



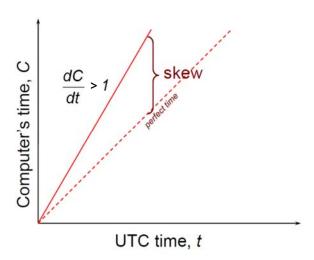
Perfect Clock



Drift with Slow Clock



Drift with Fast Clock



Dealing with Clock Skew

- Go for gradual clock correction
 - If fast:
 - Make the clock run slower until it synchronizes
 - If slow:
 - Make the clock run faster until it synchronizes

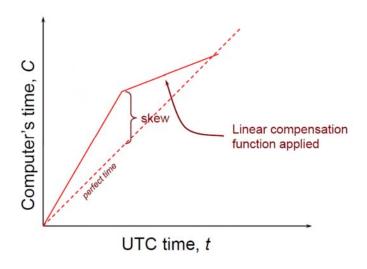
Problem with Clock Skew

- □ Problem:
 - Suppose we have a distributed system with a UTC-receiver somewhere in it => we still have to distribute its time to each machine
- Basic principle
 - Every machine has a timer that generates an interrupt H times per second.
 - There is a **clock** in machine p that **ticks** on each timer interrupt. Denote the value of that clock by $C_n(\mathbf{t})$, where t is UTC time.
 - Ideally, we have that for each machine p, $C_p(t)$ =t, in other words, dC/dt = 1
 - UTC clock t=3.0 second, Clock started at 0 second.
 - □ For machine 1, $C_1(t) = C_1(3.0 \text{ s}) = 3.3 \text{ s}$. $\frac{dC_1}{dt} = 1.1 \text{Fast clock}$
 - For machine 2, $C_2(t) = C_2(3.0 \text{ s}) = 3.0 \text{ s}$. $\frac{dC_2}{dt} = 1.0 \text{Exact clock}$
 - □ For machine 3, $C_3(t) = C_3(3.0 \text{ s}) = 2.7 \text{ s}$. $\frac{dC_3}{dt} = 0.9 \text{Slow}$ clock

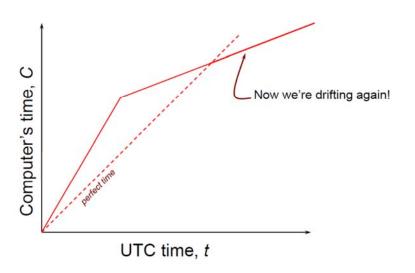
Dealing with Clock Skew

- □ The OS can do this:
 - Change the rate at which it requests interrupts:
 - E.g. if system requests interrupts every 17 ms but clock is too slow, then request interrupts at (e.g.) 15 ms
 - Not practical: we may not have enough precision
- Easier (software-only) solutions
 - 1. Redefine the rate at which system time is advanced with each interrupt
 - 2. Read the counter but compensate for drift
- Adjustment changes slope of system time:
 - Linear compensation function

Compensating for a Fast Clock



Compensating for a Fast Clock



Resynchronizing

- After synchronization period is reached
 - Resynchronize periodically
 - Successive application of a second linear compensating function can bring us closer to true slope
 - Long-term stability is not guaranteed the system clock can still drift based on changes in temperature, pressure, humidity, and age of the crystal
- □ Keep track of adjustments and apply continuously
 - E.g. POSIX *adjtime* system call and *hwclock* command

Going to Sleep

- RTC keeps on ticking when the system is off (or sleeping)
- OS cannot apply correction continually
- Estimate drift on wake-up and apply a correct factor

Getting Accurate Time

- Attach GPS receiver to each computer
 - +/- 100 nanosecond to 1 microsecond of UTC
- Attach WWV radio receiver
 - Obtain time broadcasts from Boulder or DC
 - +/- 3 millisecond of UTC (depending on distance)
- Not practical solution for every machine
 - Cost, power, convenience, environment

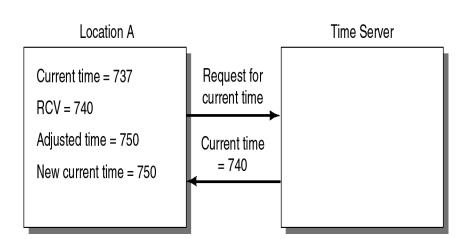
Physical Time Services

- Centralized
 - Broadcast-based
 - UTC (Universal Time Coordinator)
 - □ Berkeley Unix Algorithm by Gusella & Zatti (1989)
 - Request-driven
 - □ Cristian (1989)
- Distributed
- **Notice**: Clocks cannot be moved backward. Why?
 - Because illusion of time moving backwards can confuse message ordering and software development environments

Getting Accurate Time

- **□** Synchronize from another machine
 - One with a more accurate clock
- □ Time server:
 - Machine/service that provides time information

Request-Driven Physical Clock Synchronization

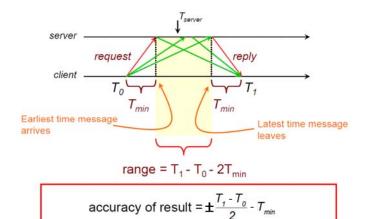


Cristian's Algorithm

- UTC compensate for network delay, by Cristian (1989)
- Centralized time server has access to UTC
- A process may request the current time
- □ The processor receives the time T_C and sets its time to $T_C + RTT/2$ to adjust for transmission time
- Uses a threshold to remove bad times caused by slow/faulty message transmission
- Threshold matched against difference of times in current processor and received from server
- □ Considers transmit time and interrupt time

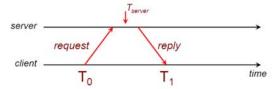
Cristian's Algorithm

□ If the minimum message transit time T_{min} is known:

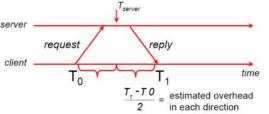


Cristian's Algorithm

- □ Request sent T₀ and Reply received T₁
 - Assume network delays are symmetric



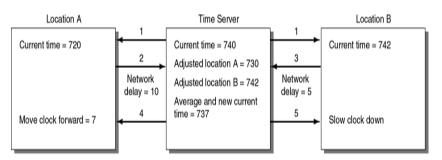
□ Client sets time to: $T_{client} = T_{server} + (T_1 - T_0)/2$



Cristian's Algorithm

- □ Sent request at 5:08:15.100 (T₀)
- □ Received response at 5:08:15.900 (T₁)
 - Response contains 5:09:25.300 (T_{server})
- □ Elapsed time is T₁-T₀
 - 5:08:15.900 (T₁) 5:08:15.100 (T₀) = 800 ms
- Best guess:
 - Timestamp was generated 400 ms ago
- □ Set time to T_{server}+ elapsed time
 - 5:09:25.300 + 400 ms = 5:09:25.700
- ☐ If best-base message time = 200 ms (T_{min}=200)
 - $Error = \pm \frac{900-100}{2} 200 = \pm 200$

The Berkeley Algorithm for Physical Clock Synchronization



- 1. Current time = 740
- 2. My current time is 720
- 3. My current time is 742
- 4. Adjust forward 7
- 5. Adjust slowdown to accommodate 5

Berkeley Algorithm

- □ Gusella & Zatti (1989)
- □ Synchronizes clocks for processors running Berkeley Unix 4.3
- **□** Does not require UTC
- Centralized server broadcasts time periodically

Berkeley Algorithm

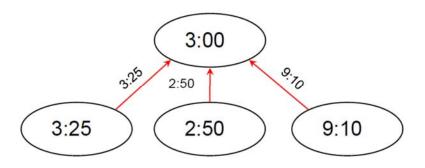
- Machines run time daemon
 - Process that implements protocol
- □ One machine is designated as the server (master)
 - Others are slaves
- □ Master polls each machine periodically
 - Ask each machine for time Can use Cristian's algorithm to compensate for network latency
- When results are in, compute average
 - Including master's time
- We hope: an average cancels out individual clock's tendencies to run fast or slow
- □ Send offset by which each clock needs adjustment to each slave
 - Avoid problems with network delays if we send a timestamp

Berkeley Algorithm

- Algorithm has provisions for ignoring readings from clocks whose skew is too great
 - Compute a fault-tolerant average
- If master fails
 - Any slave can take over via an election algorithm

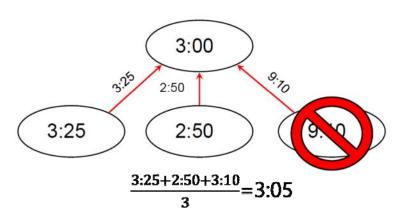
Berkeley Algorithm

■ Request timestamps from all slaves



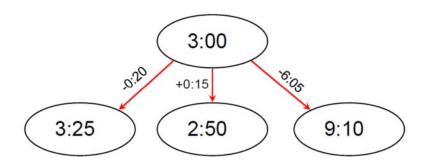
Berkeley Algorithm

- □ Compute fault-tolerant average:
 - Suppose max $\delta = 0.45$



Berkeley Algorithm

■ Send offset to each client



Distributed Physical Time Services

- Each processor **broadcasts** its current time at regular intervals
- Then starts a timer
- □ Timestamps each response
- Does so until timer runs out
- Then adjusts its own time accordingly

Fault-Tolerant Threshold Method

Current time = 740

Adjusted Received Valves

701	x	
737		- 1
742		- 1
706	x	- 1
746		- 1
742		- 1
744		- 1
750		- 1
739		- 1
		_
v indicates bayond		

Average and new current time = 743

x indicates beyond threshold

Discard *m* Highest and Lowest Values

Current time = 740 m = 2

Adjusted Received Valves x = discard

Average and new current time = 741

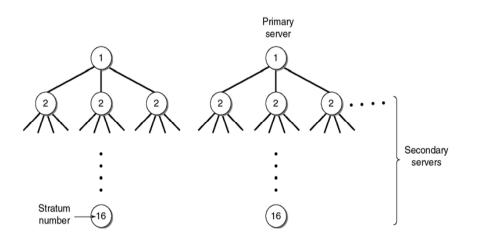
Network Time Protocol (NTP)

- **1991**, 1992
 - Internet Standard, version 3, RFC 1305
- □ June 2010
 - Internet Standard, version 4, RFC 5905-5908
 - IPv6 support
 - Improve accuracy to tens of microseconds
 - Dynamic server discovery

NTP Goals

- Enable clients across Internet to be accurately synchronized to UTC despite message delays
 - Use statistical techniques to filter data and gauge quality of results
- Provide reliable service
 - Survive lengthy losses of connectivity
 - Redundant paths
 - Redundant servers
- □ Provide scalable service
 - Enable clients to synchronize frequently
 - Offset effects of clock drift
- Provide protection against interference
 - Authenticate source of data

Strata in the NTP Architecture



NTP Servers

- Arranged in strata
 - Stratum 0: machines connected directly to accurate time source
 - Stratum 1: machines synchronized from stratum-0 machines
 - Stratum 2: machines synchronized from stratum-1 machines
 - **...**

Synchronization Subnet

NTP Synchronization Modes

- Multicast mode
 - For high speed LANS
 - Lower accuracy but efficient
- Procedure call mode
 - Similar to Cristian's algorithm
- Symmetric mode
 - Intended for master servers
 - A probes B; B probes A -> A adjusts its clock only if A's stratum
 B's
 - Peer servers can synchronize with each other to provide mutual backup
 - □ Pair of servers retain data to improve synchronization over time

All message are delivered unreliably with UDP

NTP Clock Quality

- Precision
 - Smallest increase of time that can be read from the clock
- Jitter
 - Difference in successive measurements
 - Due to network delays, OS delays, and wander clock oscillator instability
- Accuracy
 - How close it the clock to UTC?

NTP Messages

- □ Procedure call and symmetric mode
 - Messages exchanged in pairs: request and response
- □ Time encoded as a 64 bit value
 - Divide by 2³² to get the number of seconds since Jan 1 1900 UTC
- NTP calculates
 - Offset for each pair of messages (0)
 - Estimate of time offset between two clocks
 - Delay (δ)
 - □ Travel time: ½ of total delay minus remote processing time
 - Jitter/Dispersion
 - Maximum offset error
- Use this data to find preferred server
 - Probe multiple servers each several times
 - Pick lowest total dispersion & lowest stratum

NTP Message Structure

- Leap second indicator
 - Last minute has 59, 60, 61 seconds
- Version number
- Mode (symmetric, unicast, broadcast)
- □ Stratum (1=primary reference, 2-15)
- □ Poll interval
 - Maximum interval between 2 successive messages, nearest power of 2
- Precision of local clock
 - Nearest power of 2

NTP Message Structure

- Root delay
 - Total roundtrip delay to primary source
 - 16 bits seconds, 16 bits decimal
- Root dispersion
 - Nominal error relative to primary source
- Reference clock ID
 - Atomic, NIST dial-up, radio, LORAN-C navigation system, GPS, ...
- Reference timestamp
 - Time at which clock was last set (64 bit)
- Authenticator (key ID, digest)
 - Signature (ignored in SNTP)

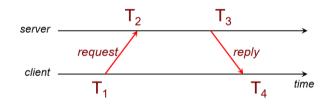
NTP Message Structure

- T₁: originate timestamp
 - Time request departed client (client's time)
- □ T₂: receive timestamp
 - Time request arrived at server (server's time)
- □ T₃: transmit timestamp
 - Time request left server (server's time)

NTP Validation Tests

- □ Timestamp provided ≠ last timestamp received
 - Duplicate message?
- □ Originating timestamp in message consistent with sent data
 - Messages arriving in order?
- □ Timestamp within range?
- □ Originating and received timestamps ≠ 0?
- Authentication disabled? Else authenticate
- □ Peer clock is synchronized?
- □ Don't sync with clock of higher stratum #
- Reasonable data for delay & dispersion

Simple Network Time Protocol (SNTP)



Round-trip delay:

Time offset:

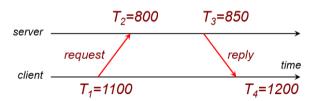
$$d = (T_4 - T_1) - (T_2 - T_3)$$

$$t = \frac{(T_2 - T_1) + (T_3 - T_4)}{2}$$

Simple Network Time Protocol (SNTP)

- □ Ver3 RFC 2030, Oct 1996
- □ Ver4 RFC 5905, June 2010
- An adaptation of NTP
 - Subset of NTP, not new protocol
- Simplifies access to an NTP server
- □ Involves stateless remote computer calls
 - Operates in multicast or procedure call mode
- Clients located only at the highest strata
 - Recommended for environments where server is root node and client is leaf of synchronization subnet
- □ SNTP servers do not implement fault tolerance
 - Root delay, root dispersion, reference timestamp ignored

Simple Network Time Protocol (SNTP)



Time offset:

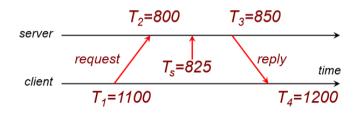
-650 / 2 = **-325**

 $t = \frac{(T_2 - T_1) + (T_3 - T_4)}{2}$

Set time to
$$T_4 + t$$

= 1200 - 325 = 875

Cristian's Algorithm



Offset =
$$(1200 - 1100) / 2 = 50$$

Set time to
$$T_s$$
 + offset = 825 + 50 = 875

Logical Time

- Because of clock skew, physical clocks do not provide absolute time ordering of events
- □ Instead we use the concept of virtual time to order certain events
- □ There are a great number of algorithms that attempt to provide logical time and some event ordering
 - E.g. Lamport's logical clock

Key Points: Physical Clocks

- □ Cristian's algorithm & SNTP
 - Set clock from server
 - But account for network delays
 - Error: uncertainty due to network/processor latency
 - Errors are additive
 - Example: ± 10 ms and ± 20 ms = ± 30 ms
- Adjust for local clock skew
 - Linear compensating function

Ordering Events

- What is an event?
 - Sending a message
 - Receiving a message
 - Execution within a process
- Most events happen asynchronously
 - Non-instantaneous communication
 - Interruptions
- □ There is no global state

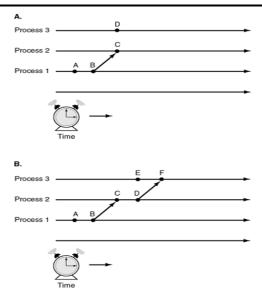
Assumptions

- Assume all processes are sequential
- Assume that the sending of a message always precedes the receiving of said message
- Need to define a relationship that combine this information
 - Lamport's → "happens before" relation

Properties of \rightarrow

- 1. $a \rightarrow b$ is defined as
 - i. If a and b are in the same process, then a happens before b happens
 - ii. If **a is sending** a message, then **b is receiving** the same message
- 2. Transitive: If $a \rightarrow b$ and $b \rightarrow c$, then $a \rightarrow c$
- If there is no ordering between a and b, $!(a \rightarrow b)$ and $!(b \rightarrow a)$, then a and b are concurrent (disjoint)

Happen-Before(HR) Relationship Examples



Properties of a Logical Clock

- Let Ci be associated with the process Pi, for all processes Pi
- □ Clock condition:
 - if $a \rightarrow b$, then $C(a) \rightarrow C(b)$
- Subconditions:
 - If $a \rightarrow b$ in process Pi, then Ci(a) < Ci(b)
 - If a sends message m and b receives m, then Ci(a) < Ci(b)</p>

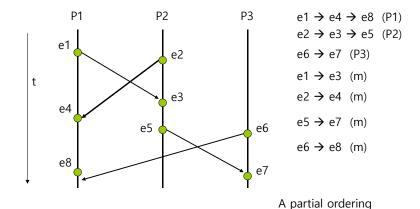
Logical Clock Conditions

- □ In order to achieve these conditions,
 - Pi increments Ci between any two events related to Pi
 - If a is sending message m from Pi, put a timestamp, Tm = Ci(a), on the message m
 - When m is received by b in Pj, Pj sets Cj to be the maximum value of Cj + d or Tm + d for some increment d

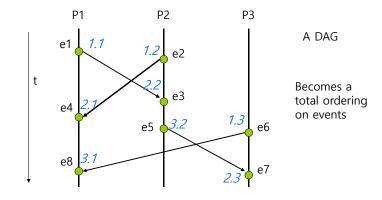
Definition of *precede*

- □ Definition: Event a in Pi *precedes* event b in Pj if and only if (system-wide)
 - 1. Ci(a) < Cj(b) OR
 - 2. Ci(a) = Cj(b) and Pi < Pj
- Assume that each process Pi is ordered by a unique value of i
- □ This relation is written as a → b

Example



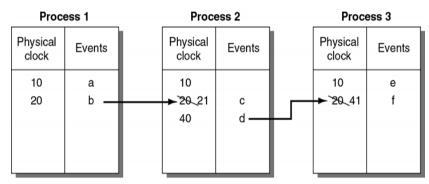
Example



Total Ordering of Events

- Any total ordering on events must be consistent with the existent partial order
- One solution: a topological sort on the partial order after the fact
- □ Lamport: Uses an event number and a timestamp on all events
- □ Further, a timestamp is attached to all messages

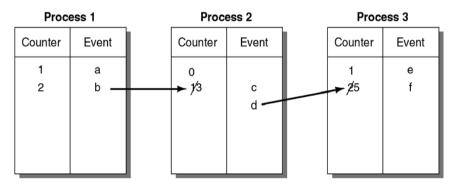
Logical Ordering of Events Using Physical Clocks



c is the event of receiving b

Each required a clock adjustment to preserve the happens-before relationship.

Logical Ordering of Events Using Counters



c is the event of receiving b f is the event of receiving d

Each requires a counter adjustment to preserve the happens-before relationship.

Causal Events

- Causal:
 - "1. Expressing or indicting cause;
 - 2. Relating to or acting as cause"
 - (Merriam-Webster)
- Causal events:
 - If e1 \rightarrow e2, then C(e1) \rightarrow C(e2)
 - Two events may have the same timestamp
 - Just include the i of Pi as part of the timestamp

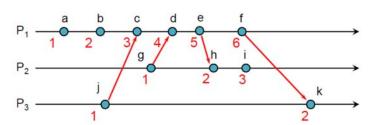
Lamport's Algorithm

- Each message carries a timestamp of the sender's clock
- When a message arrives:
 - If receiver's clock < message_timestamp,</p>
 - Then set system clock to message_timestamp + 1
 - Else do nothing
- □ Clock must be advanced between any two events in the same process
- □ Lamport's algorithm allows us to maintain time ordering among related events Partial ordering

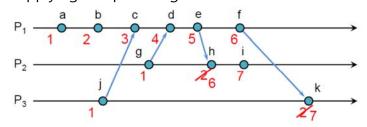
Lamport's Algorithm

- For each process p,
 - Initialize the timestamp, p.TS, to zero
 - On each event,
 - □ If e is receipt of message m
 - p.TS = max (m.TS, p.TS);
 - □ p.TS ++;
 - e.TS = p.TS;
 - □ If e is sending message m
 - m.TS = p.TS;

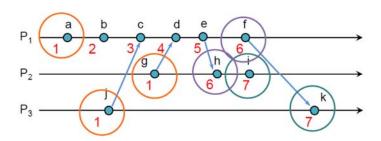
Lamport's Algorithm



Applying Lamport's algorithm



Problem: Identical Timestamps



- \blacksquare a \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow c, c \rightarrow d, ...: local events sequenced
- \Box j → c, g → d, e → h ... : Lamport imposes a send->receive relationship
- □ Concurrent events (e.g., b & g; i& k) may have the same timestamp or not

Unique Timestamps (Total Ordering)

- We can force each timestamp to be unique
 - Define global logical timestamp (Ti, i)
 - □ *Ti* represents **local Lamport timestamp**
 - □ *i* represents **process number (globally unique)**
 - e.g., (host address, process ID)
 - Compare timestamps:

```
□ (Ti, i) < (Tj, j)

if and only if

Ti < Tj or

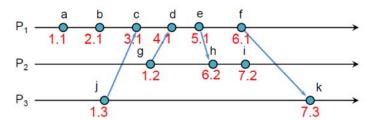
Ti = Tj and i < j
```

Does not necessarily relate to actual event ordering

Limitation of Lamport's Clocks

- □ If $a \rightarrow b$, then C(a) < C(b)
- But the reverse is not necessarily true if the events occur in different processes
 - I.e., if C(a) < C(b), we cannot conclude that $b \rightarrow a$
 - We can't tell how a and b are related
 - Each clock can independently advance based on its local events
 - We need messages exchanges to synchronize between a pair of processes

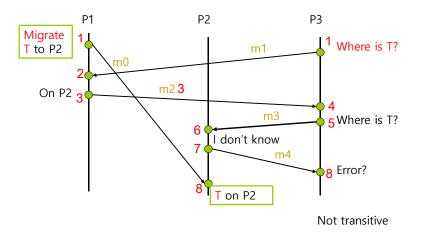
Unique Timestamps (Total Ordering)



Concurrent Events

- □ There is an arbitrary ordering of concurrent events
- This can lead to a *causality violation*.
 - When distributed objects are mobile, i.e. they can move freely among processes
 - This may happen when load balancing occurs

Casuality Violation



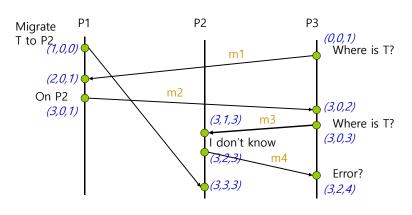
Causality Violation

- Message m0 arrives late to P2
- Message m3 arrives at P2 before P2 knows that T is migrating there
- To fulfill the transitivity condition, m3 should have arrived at P2 after m0 arrived at P2

Causality Violation

- \Box s(m) = the event of sending message m
- r(m) = the event of receiving message m
- \blacksquare m1 < c m2 if s(m1) \rightarrow s(m2)
- □ A causality violation happens if m1 < c m2, but r(m2) < p r(m1)
- Need a comparison function f such that
 - \bullet e \rightarrow e' iff f(e) < f(e')
 - Idea vector timestamps

Causality Violation, relabelled



Not transitive

Vector Clocks

- Each Pi keeps a clock vector Ci[k], k=1,..,n
- □ The kth entry is Pi's best guess of what process Pk has for its clock values
- A message carries a timestamp vector of the clock vector of the sender
- A receiver updates its clock vector using the timestamp vector from the message

Vector Clocks

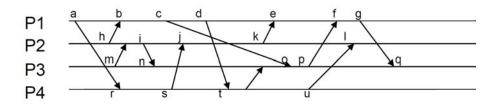
- For M processes,
 - Initialize p.VT = [0, 0, ... 0]
 - On event e,
 - □ If e is receipt of message m
 - For i=1 to M
 - P.VT[i] = max (p.VT[i], m.VT[i])
 - p.VT(self) ++ ;
 - \bullet e.VT = p.VT;
 - □ If e is sending message m
 - m.VT = p.VT;

Vector Clocks

- □ The vector clocks provide a partial ordering of the timestamps
 - Using a vector comparison (all elements must be =, <, or > pairwise
 - If ta < tb or ta > tb , then a and b are causally related
 - □ If a->b then C(a) < C(b)
 - □ If C(a) < C(b) then a->b
 - Otherwise a and b must be concurrent
 - □ C(a) < C(b) nor C(b) < C(a)

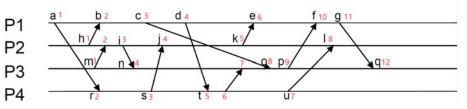
Lamport vs Vector Clock Timestamps

□ 4 processes (p1, P2, P3, P4) with events a,b,c,d,e,f,g,...



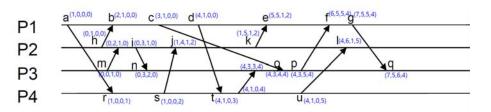
Lamport vs Vector Clock Timestamps

■ Lamport Timestamps



Lamport vs Vector Clock Timestamps

Vector Clock Timestamps



References

- http://www.cs.colostate.edu/~cs551/CourseNotes/Synch ronization/SynchTOC.html
- https://www.cs.rutgers.edu/~pxk/417/notes/content/05-clock-synchronization-slides.pdf
- □ https://www.cs.rutgers.edu/~pxk/417/notes/content/06-logical-clocks-slides.pdf