

Clock SynchronizationAugust 20<sup>th</sup> 2019

In distributed systems, memory is not shared, and so the state of the system may not be easily known by any computer in particular.

Ordering of events may not be globally known, so various strategies exist to ensure that the ordering of events can be determined by all nodes in the system.

This can be needed for situations like stream updates, or crash recovery, and others, by replaying the messages.

The local clocks for each computer isn't guaranteed to be the same as each other, and over time, can be pretty significant. There's 2 values to keep track of:

Clock skew: Relative difference between the value of two processes

Clock drift: Relative difference between clock frequencies of two processes.

The larger the clock drift, the faster the clock skew increases. The larger the clock skew, the more unsynchronized the system is.

To maintain the "true" time you'll either need:

- 1) an atomic clock
- 2) a GPS receiver, which gets time from atomic clocks (from satellites).

Option 1) is impractical, and option 2) has some limitations: (discussed later).

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There are 2 types of synchronization strategies: external synchronization, and internal synchronization

External sync. is when processes attempt to reach a dedicated time server and synchronize with it.

Internal sync is when the processes attempt to just minimize the clock skew between themselves.

If a system is externally synchronized, then it's also internally synchronized. The reverse is not true though, as the system may drift away from the real external time over time.

Typical quartz clocks have a drift rate of about 31.5 seconds per year. However, processes may operate in milliseconds so it might be really important in some time-sensitive apps to be precisely synchronized (like airline flights).

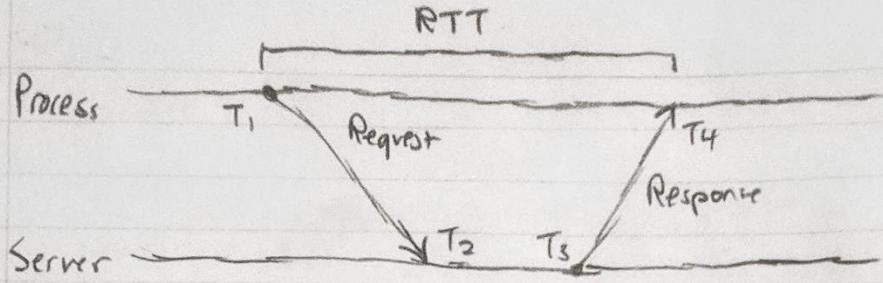
### External Synchronization: Cristian's Algorithm

The problem is that contacting an external server itself takes time, so it's outdated by the time it gets back.

Inaccuracy is proportional to message latency, which is unbounded in an asynchronous system.

The idea behind Cristian's Algorithm is to measure the Round-Trip Time (RTT) and adjust the time accordingly.

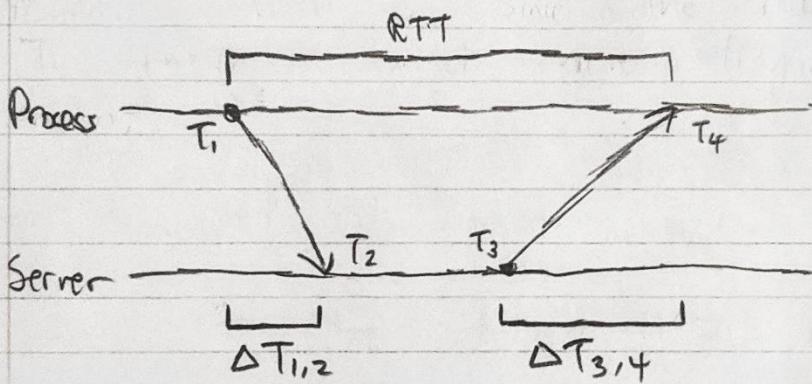
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- operating system overhead,
- TCP message queuing
- routing and transmission delays
- etc.

The latencies between  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , and  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  depend on a few factors:

To understand the problem, let's identify the ideal scenario:



Let  $\Delta T_{1,2}$  be the real VTC time difference between the events  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ . Similar for  $\Delta T_{3,4}$ .

If the time server reported its local time at  $T_3$ , and the process just added  $\Delta T_{3,4}$  to it, then you're done.

But, since the process's local time isn't guaranteed, and also that it can't know when  $T_3$  happened on its own local clock,  $\Delta T_{3,4}$  cannot be known.

All the process knows is the RTT, measured on its local clock, along with the received  $T_3$  response.

A decent estimate is to just divide RTT by 2, which assumes that:

$$\rightarrow \Delta T_{1,2} \approx \Delta T_{3,4}$$

$\rightarrow$  Time between  $T_3$  and  $T_2$  is minimal.

These are reasonable assumptions on a LAN connection.

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The algorithm can then be made more accurate by:

- repeating it multiple times
- adjusting it if the minimum amount of time it takes to send it is known.

Suppose that  $\Delta T_{1,2}$  is at minimum equal to  $\text{min}_1$ , and  $\Delta T_{3,4} \approx \text{min}_2$ .

We can bound the actual time when the process actually receives the time to:

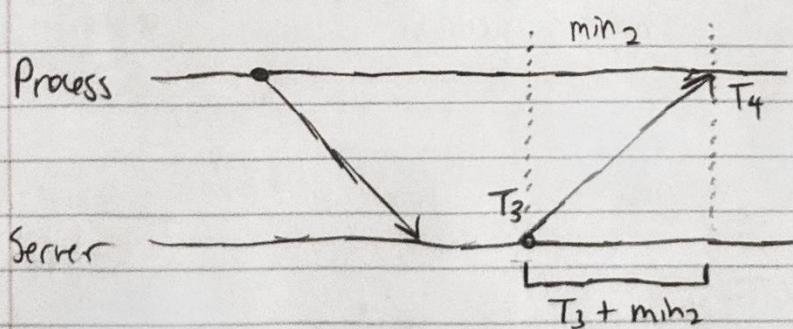
$$T_3 + \text{min}_2, \text{ and}$$

$$T_3 + \text{RTT} - \text{min}_1$$

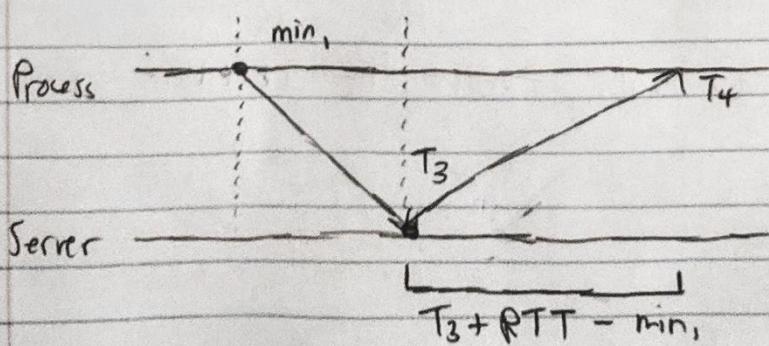
$T_3 + \text{min}_2$  would be the earliest possible time that the process could've received the response, and

$T_3 + \text{RTT} - \text{min}_1$  is the max:

Illustration of the two scenarios:



This means that the response took the absolute minimum time necessary to respond.



This assumes that the response is sent instantly after it was received.

$$\text{So } T_2 = T_3, \text{ and}$$

$$T_2 - T_1 = \text{min}_1$$

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Some caveats to Cristian's Algorithm:

- Don't decrease clk value, only increase. May violate event ordering.
- Allowed to increase / decrease the speed of clock (only available in software clocks).
- Abnormal readings may occur (possibly due to network hiccups), so discard them if it's not within expected error range.

This algorithm will only synchronize if the RTT is small compared to the required accuracy.

Usually, network latency over LAN is less than 1ms, on Ethernet. Since the time() UNIX syscall is non-blocking it's generally extremely tiny.

So Cristian's algorithm works pretty well over LAN, but not on WAN, where latencies are much higher.

### Internal Synchronization: The Berkeley Algorithm

Sometimes, you might not require every node to know some external time (usually UTC). In this situation, the Berkeley Algorithm can be used.

Unlike Cristian's which attempts to reach out to a dedicated time service, Berkeley flips it and has a time service asking all the nodes for their times.

The core idea is to average out all the times among the system, and adjust them to match the average.

Let's call the time service the master, and the rest slaves.

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Periodically, the master polls each machine and asks for their time. Cristian's algorithm can be used to compensate for latency.

Then, calculate the average time (including its own local time).

Send an offset to each slave. The offset, as opposed to just sending the average timestamp drowds the latency problem.

Over time, the average will reduce the skew of the system overall.

If the master dies, then a new master can be promoted through leader election (later).

### Logical Synchronization

Clock synchronization is pretty hard, so if actual timestamps aren't needed, then you'll only require the relative ordering of events.

We can call this type of clock a logical clock.

### Lamport Timestamps (Logical Timestamps)

Used by almost all distributed systems, especially cloud computing. Any time TS is needed, this is typically what's used.

To write logical ordering, we denote  $\rightarrow$  to mean "happens before".

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There are 3 rules to follow:

1)  $a \rightarrow b$ , if  $\text{time}(a) < \text{time}(b)$  and both  $a$  and  $b$  occur in the same process (and thus have the same local clock).

2) If a message  $m$  is sent from  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ , then  $\text{send}(m) \rightarrow \text{receive}(m)$ .

This means that the sending of a message always happens before its received.

3) If  $a \rightarrow b$ , and  $b \rightarrow c$ , then  $a \rightarrow c$ .

Note that  $\rightarrow$  doesn't imply that  $b$  is caused by  $a$ , or is related at all.

An example is if no messages are passed at all, in which case there is no relation between processes.

With this ordering, we can track the sequence of events even if all the local clocks in the system are all completely skewed.

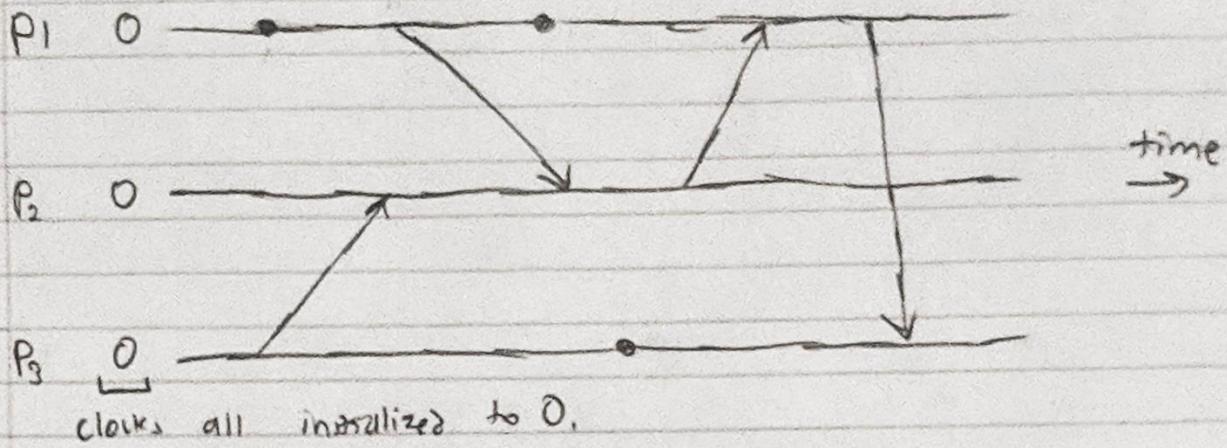
To do this, we assign logical (Lamport) timestamps to each event in a particular way:

Suppose each process has its own local counter:

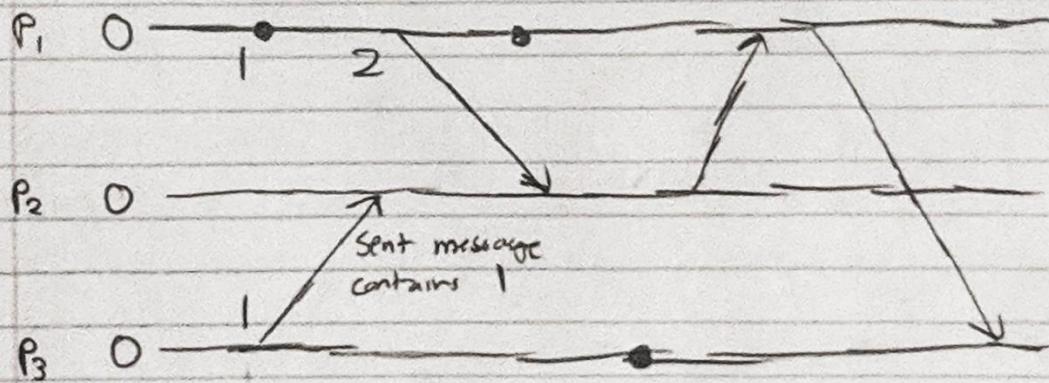
- Starts at 0
- Increments when local event or send occurs
- Sent messages carry the timestamp
- Received messages update the clock by:  $\max(\text{local counter}, \text{message timestamp}) + 1$ .

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Suppose we've got the following scenario:



Applying local increments and sends, we can fill out the timestamps for the first few events in P<sub>1</sub> and P<sub>3</sub>.

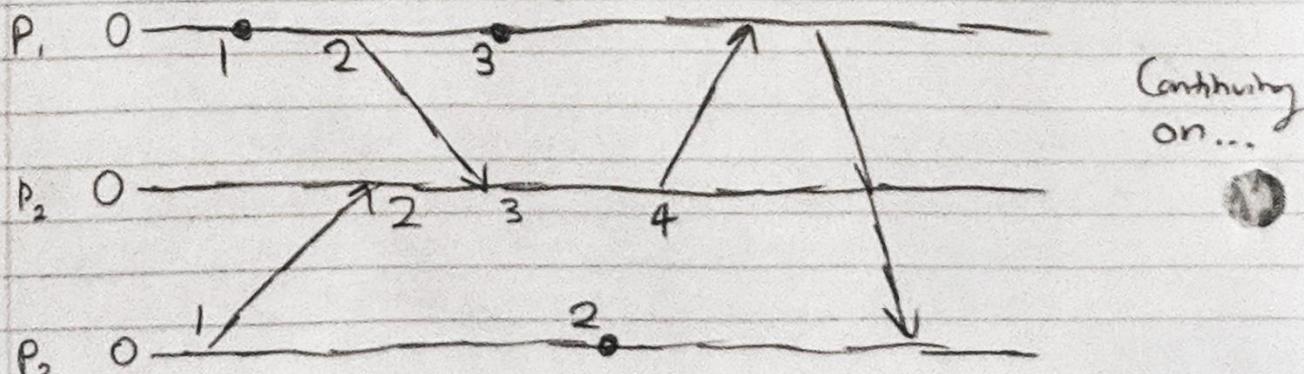


For P<sub>2</sub>, the timestamp of the receive message will be:  

$$\max(\text{local clock}, \text{message timestamp}) + 1$$
  

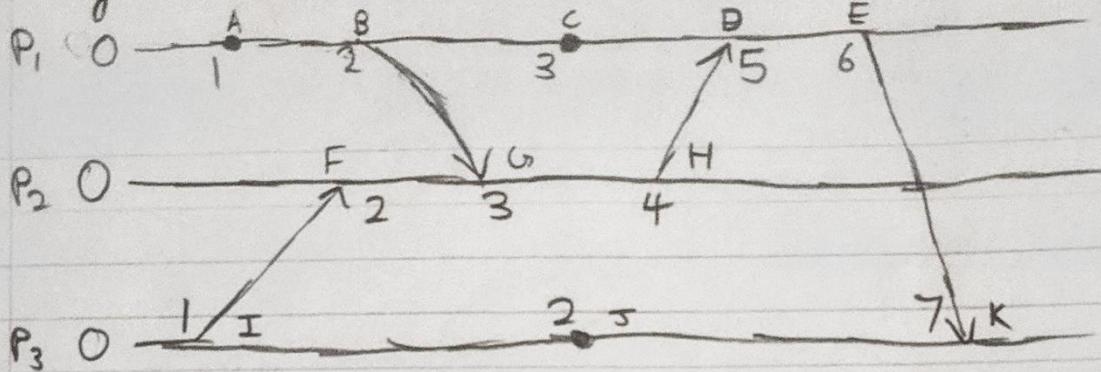
$$= \max(0, 1) + 1$$
  

$$= 2$$



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Filling out the rest of the diagram, and labelling the events,



Let's look at some causality relationships:

$$\begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow B \\ B \rightarrow G \\ A \rightarrow G \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{relates to} \\ \{ \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} 1 < 2 \\ 2 < 3 \\ 1 < 3 \end{array}$$

Here, we see that for some events  $a \rightarrow b$ , we can say that  $\text{timestamp}(a) < \text{timestamp}(b)$ .

However, the timestamps alone don't necessarily imply a causal relationship, since the counting is still local:

For example, take C and G. Despite being stamped with 3, the relationship  $C \rightarrow G$  does not exist as there isn't a guarantee that C happens before G.

This can also be seen as having no path that contains both C and G.

Thus, C and G are a pair of parallel events. The same can be seen with I and C.

So, Lamport timestamps are not guaranteed to be ordered or unequal for parallel events.

$$a \rightarrow b \Rightarrow \text{timestamp}(a) < \text{timestamp}(b)$$

BUT

$$\text{timestamp}(a) < \text{timestamp}(b) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow b \quad \text{OR} \quad a, b \text{ are parallel}$$

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How do we modify the system to allow us to determine whether events occur in parallel or causally, given their timestamps?

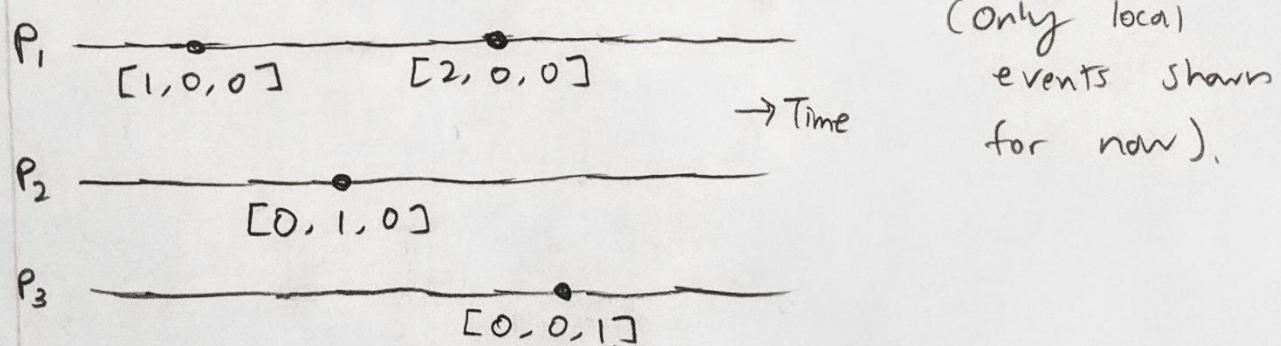
### Vector Timestamps

The main reason why determining whether events are occurring concurrently or causally in the Lamport system is that on message receives, the local ordering of events may effectively be overridden.

Basically, the events got mixed together.

The core idea of a vector timestamp is to separate the local histories for each process, and just keep track of external clocks only when receiving a message.

This is done by time stamping each event as a series of Lamport stamps:



The increment rules for the local counters are very similar to that of the Lamport clock:

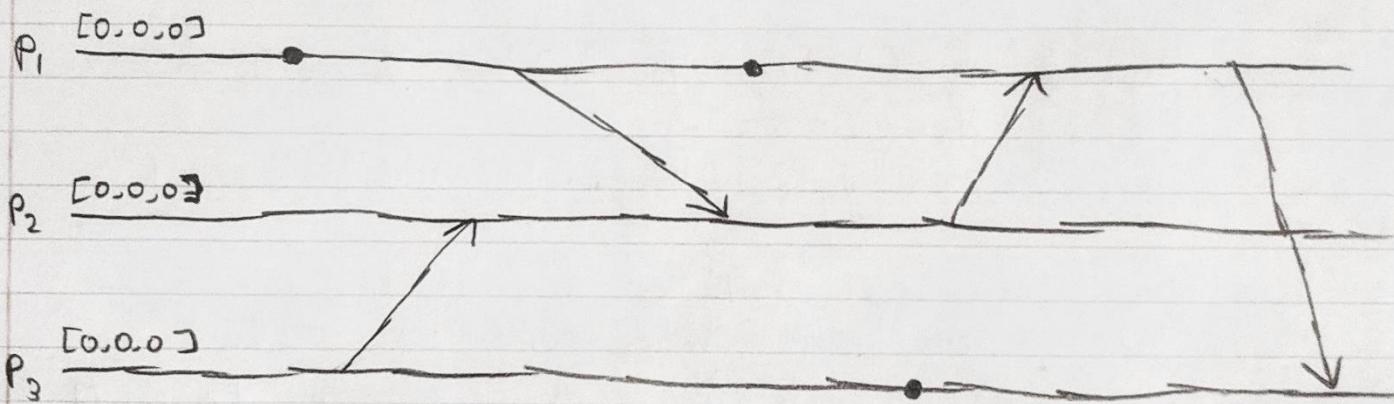
- Starts at  $[0, \dots, 0]$
- For the  $i^{th}$  process, on a local event or send, increment the  $i^{th}$  element by one.
- Each message carries the send-event's vector timestamp  $V_{msg}[...]$

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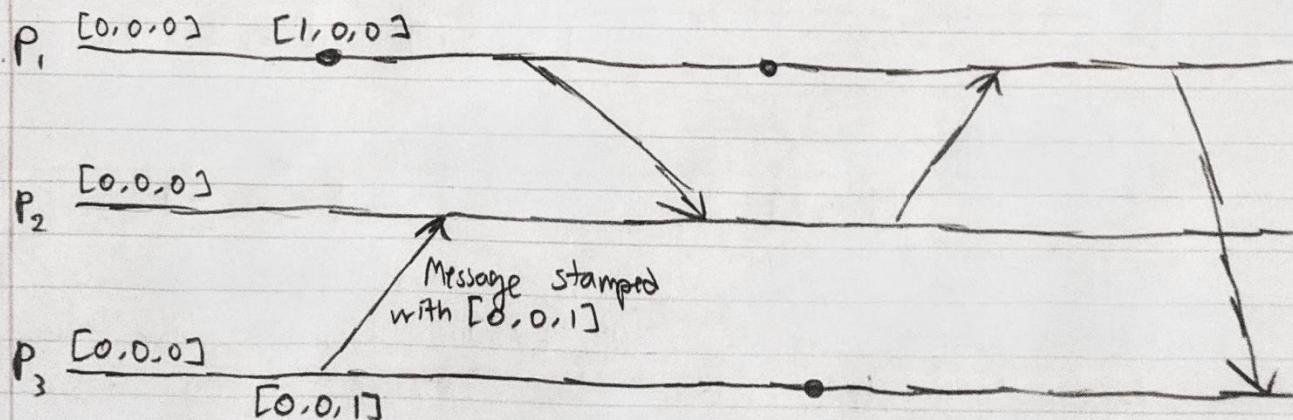
- Received messages update the counter by:  
(for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  process)
  - Increment the  $i^{\text{th}}$  element by one:  $V_i[i] = V[i] + 1$
  - For all other entries in  $V$ ,  
 $V_i[j] = \max(V_{\text{msg}}[j], V_i[j])$  for  $j \neq i$

It's similar to the Lamport counter, but the received message rule is modified to increment its own element separately from the others.

Using the previous example,



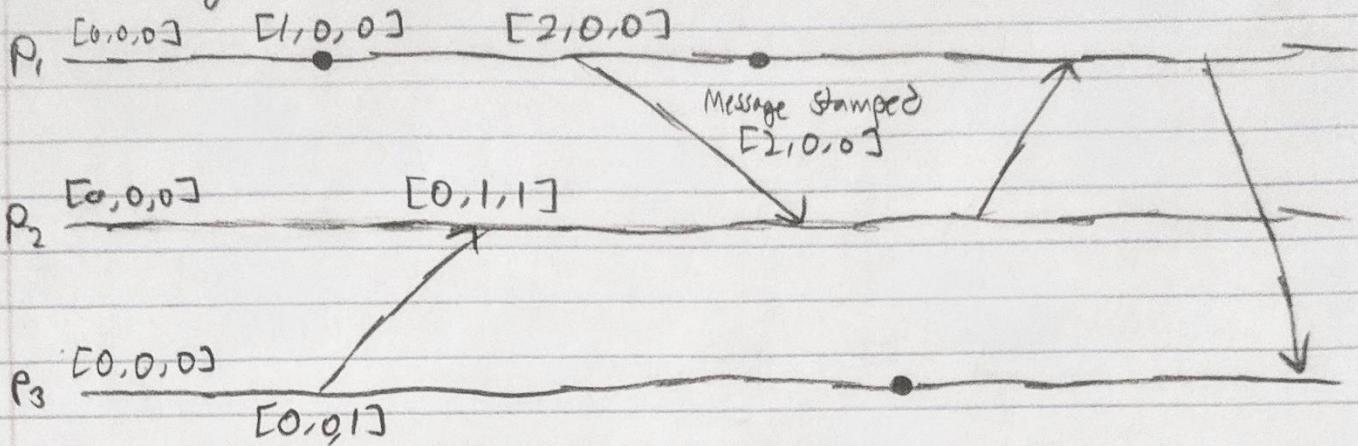
Iterating forward, P1 has a local event, and P3 sends a message to P2. The stamps look like this:



The resulting increment when P2 receives the message is that it will increment  $V_2[2]$  by 1 and get the max values from the message stamp and its own local clock.

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The resulting stamp for  $P_2$ 's receive is  $[0, 1, 1]$ .



For the second message  $P_2$  receives, the stamp will be:

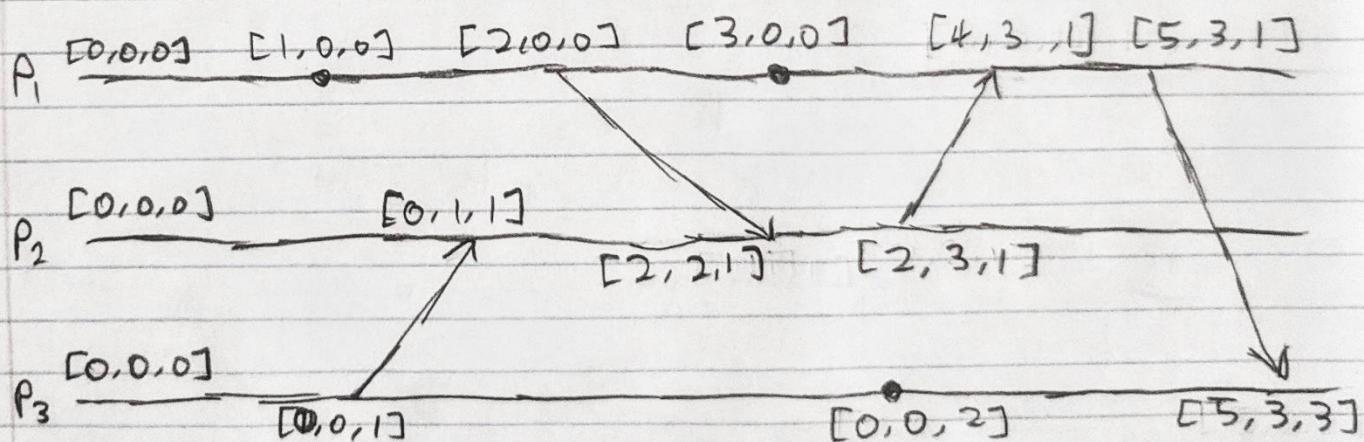
$$V_2[1] = \max(V_2[1], V_{msg}[1]) = V_{msg}[1] = 2$$

$$V_2[2] = V_2[2] + 1 = 2$$

$$V_2[3] = \max(V_2[3], V_{msg}[1]) = V_2[3] = 1$$

So the stamp will be  $[2, 2, 1]$

The rest of the values are as follows:



With these timestamps, we can track down the causal history for all events, unlike the Lamport timestamps, where only the reverse was true.

So why do vector timestamps let us do this?

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1)  $V_i[i]$  is essentially tracking the # of events that have occurred at process  $i$ . So it acts like the local logical clock.

2)  $V_i[j]$  for  $j \neq i$  indicates the number of events that have occurred at process  $j$  that process  $i$  knows about. It acts as process  $i$ 's info about process  $j$ 's local logical clock.

If we look at two timestamps  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , we can observe that  $T_1$  cannot be parallel to  $T_2$  if all elements of  $T_1$  are  $\leq T_2$ 's elements.  $T_1$  happens before if the previous is true, and at least one element is less than the corresponding element in  $T_2$ .

Defined mathematically,

$$T_1 = T_2 \Leftrightarrow T_1[i] = T_2[i] \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, N$$

$$T_1 \leq T_2 \Leftrightarrow T_1[i] \leq T_2[i] \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, N$$

$T_1$  and  $T_2$  are causally related given the following relationship:

$$T_1 < T_2 \Leftrightarrow T_1 \leq T_2 \wedge \exists j \cdot 1 \leq j \leq N \wedge T_1[j] < T_2[j].$$

For example,  $[2, 3, 1] < [4, 3, 1]$ , and in the diagram, this send event occurs before the receive.

Two events are parallel given the following relationship:

$$\underline{T_1 \parallel T_2} \Leftrightarrow \neg(T_1 \leq T_2) \wedge \neg(T_2 \leq T_1).$$

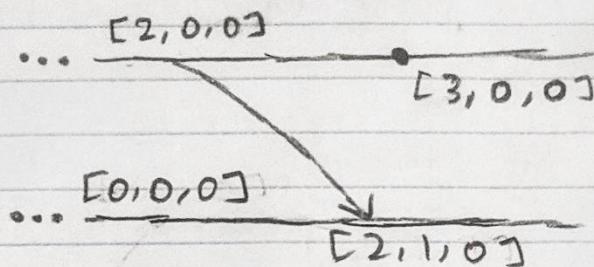
$T_1$  and  $T_2$  are parallel

In other words, both  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  have elements that are larger than the corresponding element in the other.

$$\underline{\text{ex}} \quad [3, 0, 0] \text{ and } [0, 0, 2].$$

This works because at every event, at least one element in the vector is always incremented.

The intuition would then be that if events diverged, then so would the timestamps!



Here, the last two events  $[3, 0, 0]$  and  $[2, 1, 0]$  separately had their elements incremented, resulting in an element in each that is higher than the other:

$\underline{[2, 0, 0]}$  became  $\underline{[3, 0, 0]}$  and  
 $\begin{cases} [2, 0, 0] \\ [0, 0, 0] \end{cases}$  became  $\underline{[2, 1, 0]}$

So they must occur in parallel.

### Leader Election

In a lot of distributed systems, having a leader/coordinator/orchestrator is useful, and comes up a lot.

In particular, a leader managing replicas is a common pattern seen when replicating data.

If all processes are the same, then election algorithms try to designate a coordinator among them.