

Programming of Distributed Systems

Topic IV - Time and Order

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Reading Remarks

Reading Task:

Chapter 6.1 & 6.2.



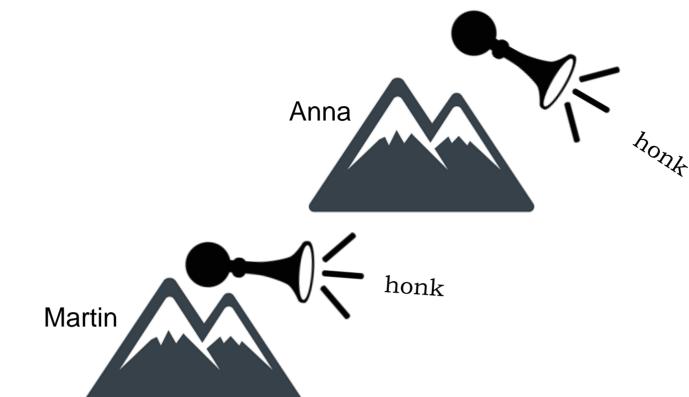
Sequences

Central role for coordination, security and failure tolerance algorithms

- Order of distributed events
 - Fairness, Selection via First Come First Served
 - Insuring deadlock free transactions
 - Software management; e.g. make
- Shared time
 - Real-time systems
 - time stamps in cryptographic protocols
 - authentication & authorisation tickets (time of validity)



The problem





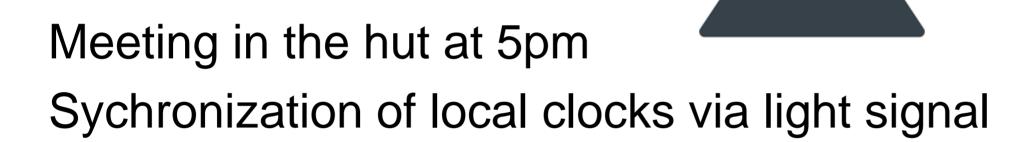
Three different views:

- 1. Erik's view $honk_{Anna}$ at the same time as $honk_{Martin}$
- 2. Anna's view $honk_{Anna}$ before $honk_{Martin}$
- 3. Martin's view $honk_{Anna}$ after $honk_{Martin}$
- → Consequence of latency: 3 observer, 3 different sequences of events

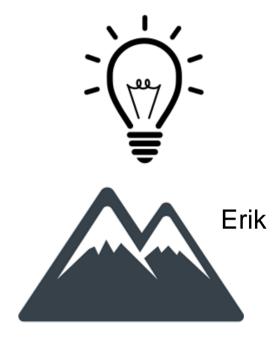


Another problem









Result

All three arrive at different times,
 and everyone believes they are exactly on time

Martin

> Local clocks lead to different notions of previously sychronized times



Roadmap

Temporal sequences

- physical clocks and their properties
- algorithms to synchronize physical clocks

Causal sequences

- logical clocks and their properties
- algorithms to synchronize logical clocks



Make example

make all → compiles foo.c iff

- foo does not exist or
- foo is older than foo.c

Distributed scenario

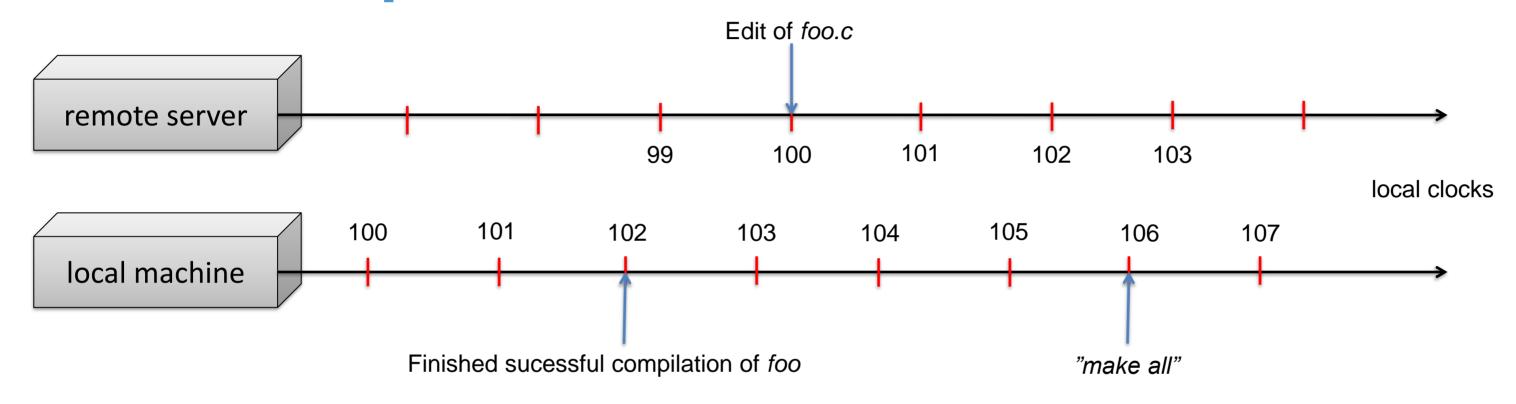
- foo.c on remote fileserver
- foo and compiling on local machine
- editor and make all executed on local machine

```
Makefile:
all: gcc -o foo foo.c
```

```
Makefile:
all: gcc -o foo /src/area51/foo.c
```



Make example contd



- Reality: foo is older than foo.c → needs to be compiled
- Local perspective: *foo* is younger than *foo.c* → no compilation
- → How to create a shared perspective of time?



Bulletin C 64

To authorities responsible for the measurement and distribution of time

Coordinated Universal Time (UTC)

INFORMATION ON UTC - TAI

Derived from the International Atomic Time (TAI)

NO leap second will be introduced at the end of December 2022. The difference between Coordinated Universal Time UTC and the International Atomic Time TAI is:

from 2017 January 1, 0h UTC, until further notice : UTC-TAI = -37 s

Leap seconds can be introduced in UTC at the end of the months of December or June, depending on the evolution of UT1-TAI. Bulletin C is mailed every six months, either to announce a time step in UTC, or to confirm that there will be no time step at the next possible date.

Christian BIZOUARD
Director
Earth Orientation Center of IERS
Observatoire de Paris, France

- around 50 institutes with 400 atomic clocks
- mostly caesium clocks (drift approx. 1 sec in 100 000 000 years)
- → weighted average time via GPS satellites

Published by shortwave radio stations and satellites



Computer Clocks

- electrical component that counts the oscillation of quartz crystals
- counter is available via register/memory cells
- operating systems makes this information available via OS-API and provides translations into common time and date formats

Resolution

about 1ns (clock frequency of 1 GHz)

Drift

about 1 sec in 11 days (drift rate 10⁻⁶) in todays clocks



Drift effects

Worst-case difference of two clocks with a drift rate of 10⁻⁶

After 10 seconds: $10 \text{ secs } * 2 * 10^{-6} = 20 000 \text{ ns}$

After 1 day: $86400 \text{ sec} * 2 * 10^{-6} = 0.17 \text{ sec}$

→ (Synchronized) clocks diverge fast

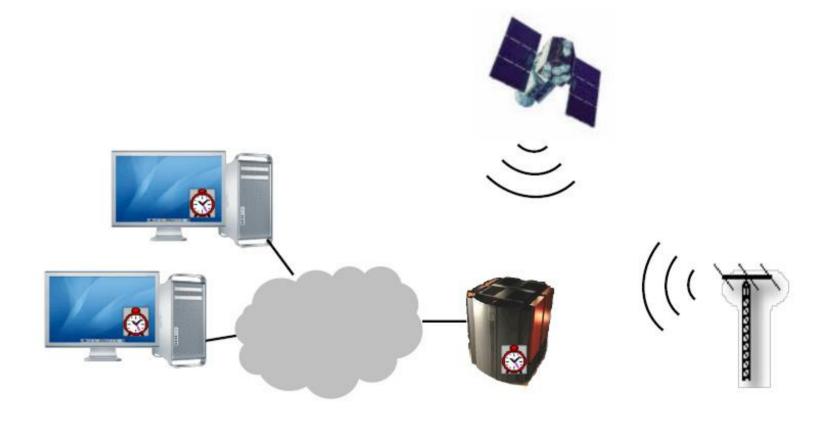
Synchronziation required! → When? How often? How?



Synchronization of physical clocks

Level of correspondence between a computer clock and UTC depends on

- 1. Precision of the reference clock
- 2. Jitter of the signals: distance from the reference, atmospheric conditions
- 3. Drift of local clocks
- 4. Sychronization algorithm





Quantifying drift

Goal

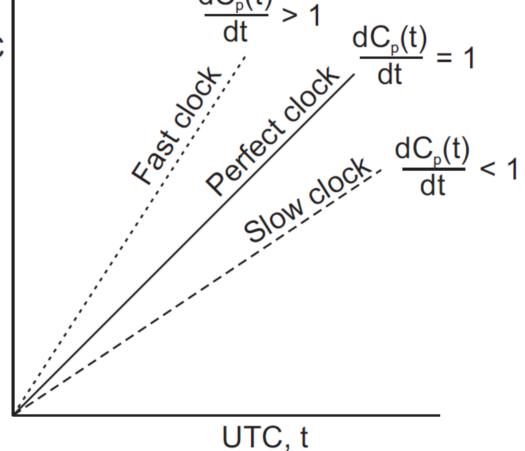
To synchronize in a way that the clock deviation is less then α

t reference time (UTC)

Clock time, C

C(t) value of the computer clock at time t

Ideally:
$$C(t) = t$$
; $\frac{C(t_2) - C(t_1)}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{dc}{dt} = 1$





Maximum clock drift rate

- ρ maximum drift rate, part of clock specification
- Clock working within the specification iff $1 \rho \le \frac{dc}{dt} \le 1 + \rho$
- Quartz based clocks $10^{-6} \le \rho \le 10^{-5}$

Maximum deviation δ of two sychronized clocks after Δt :

$$\delta \leq (\rho_1 + \rho_2) \Delta t$$

Resychronize clocks with a maximum deviation α every

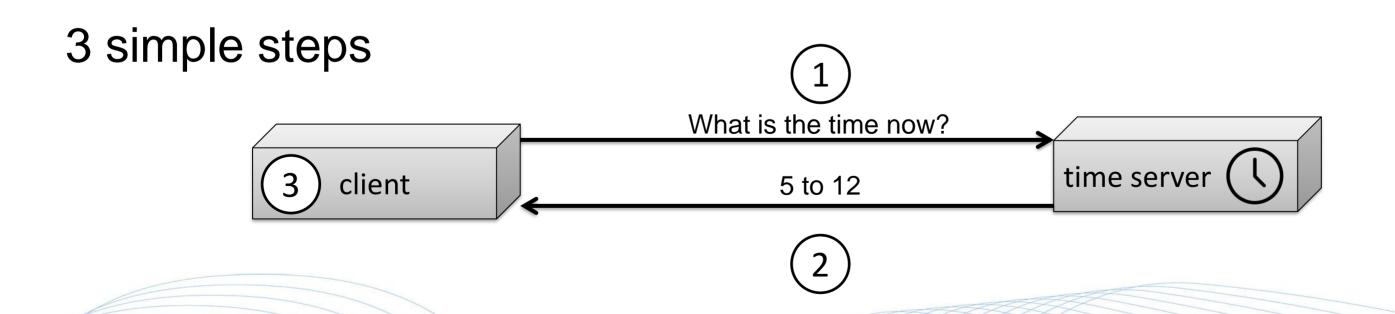
$$\Delta t = \frac{\alpha}{\rho_1 + \rho_2}$$
 seconds



Passive time server: Christian's algorithm

Scenario

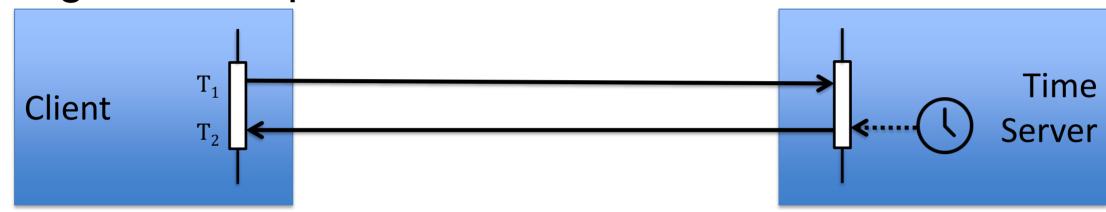
- Time server with reference time
- Clients with local clocks
- Maximum drift deviation $\alpha \rightarrow$ individual sychronization interval





3 problems – 3 corrections

1. Message roundtrip time



→ Correction of half the roudtrip time for the time request

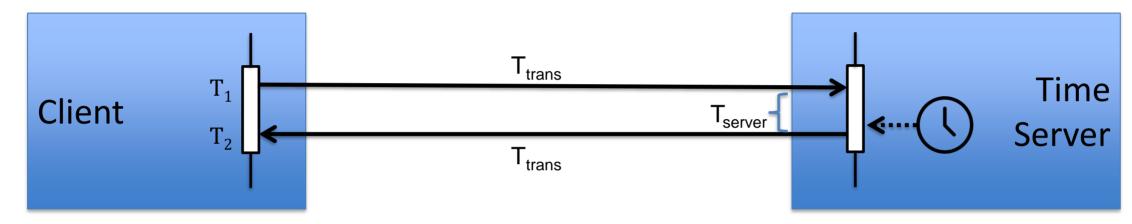
$$K = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{2}$$

- 2. Different latencies (jitter) for the messages
- \rightarrow Statistical average of the round trip times $K = \frac{E(T_2 T_1)}{2}$



3 problems – 3 corrections

3. Unknown server load



 \rightarrow Correction for the server work time T_{server}

Assumptions

- Both directions are equally fast
- Server checks clock directly before sending reply, $K \approx T_{trans}$

$$T_2 - T_1 = 2T_{trans} + T_{server}$$
; $K = T_{trans} = \frac{T_2 - T_1 - T_{server}}{2}$



Limitations of Christian's algorithm

Scalability

time server is a bottleneck

Precision

jitter of message transport times in WANs

Failure tolerance

time server is a single-point-of-failure

Time monotony

(backward) jumps when correcting local time

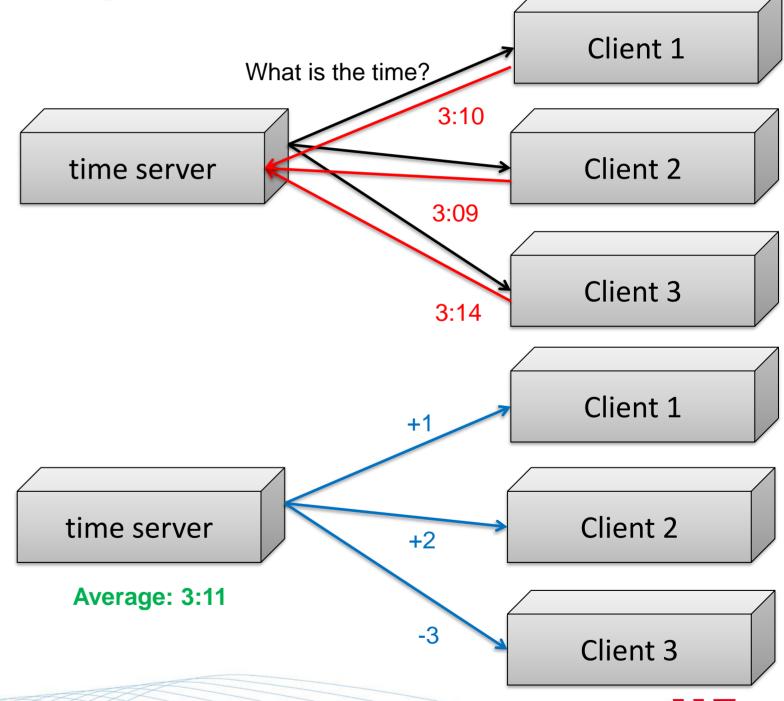
- time server group
- different sychronization algorithm

 soft speed-up or slowdown of the clock



Active time server: Berkeley algorithm

- 1. Server sends time request to clients
- 2. Clients respond with their local time
- 3. Server calculates the average time
- 4. Sends the time difference to each client





Active time server: Berkeley algorithm

Pros

- No reference clock required
- No single point of failure, as every client can take the server role

Cons

- No reference clock required
- Scalability
 - Server has to handle multiple request/reply messages
 - Interval of synchronization dependent on worst clock drift



Network Time Protocol

Goal

Reliable, scalable UTC time sychronization under changing message travel times > Internet time

Features

- Precision (deviation from UTC 10 msec in WANs, 1msec in LANs, 1µsec in LANs with local UTC clock)
- Reliability (fail-stop & byzantian failures, attack resilient)
- Scalability (optimizing number and structure of time servers)

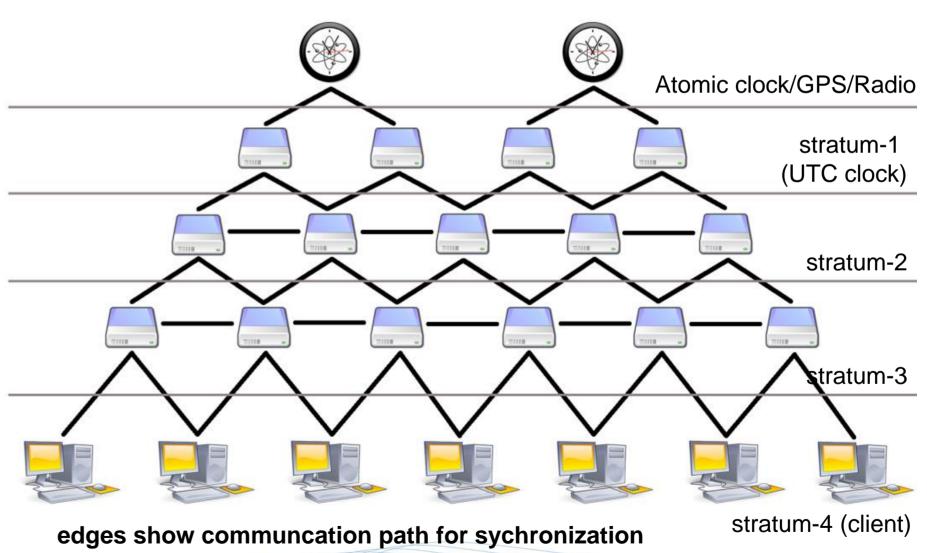


Network Time Protocol

Standard service in the internet (currently > 1 million servers)

Client/Server model

- Servers in different communication roles
- Hierarchical, tree-like sychronization topology





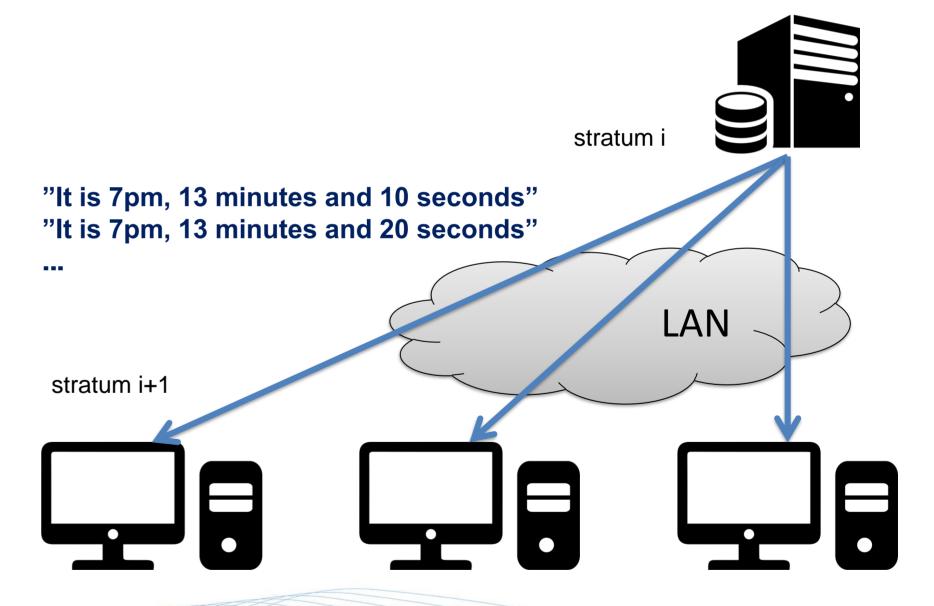
1. Time Announcements using Multicast

Idea

Time server sends periodically time messages to receivers

→ Feasible only in LANs

Single time message (commonly UDP)



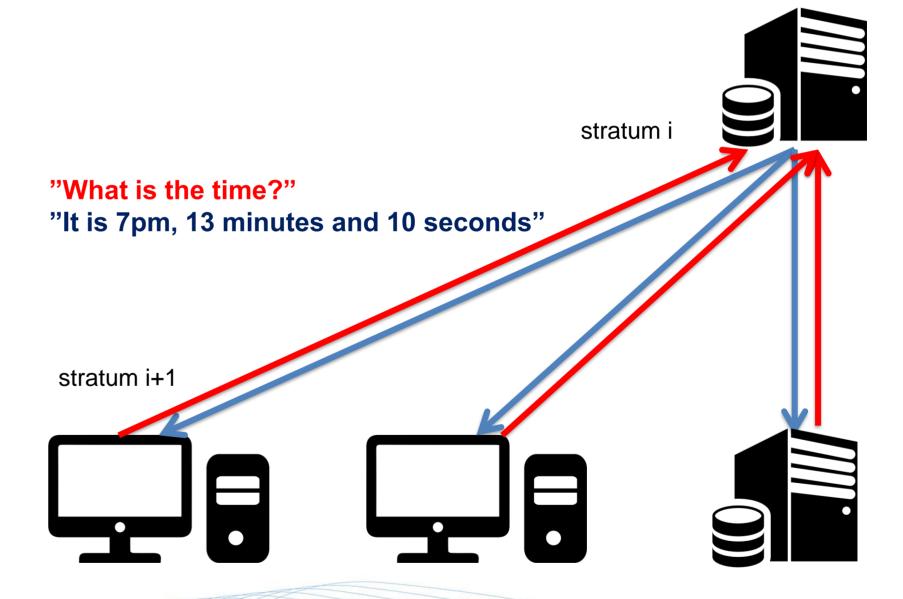


2. Time Requests with Christian's algorithm

Used in networks without multicast, and for higher precision

 typical for file servers, name services, authentication and authorization servers work stations ...

Two messages (request/reply per UDP)





3. Symmetric time calibration

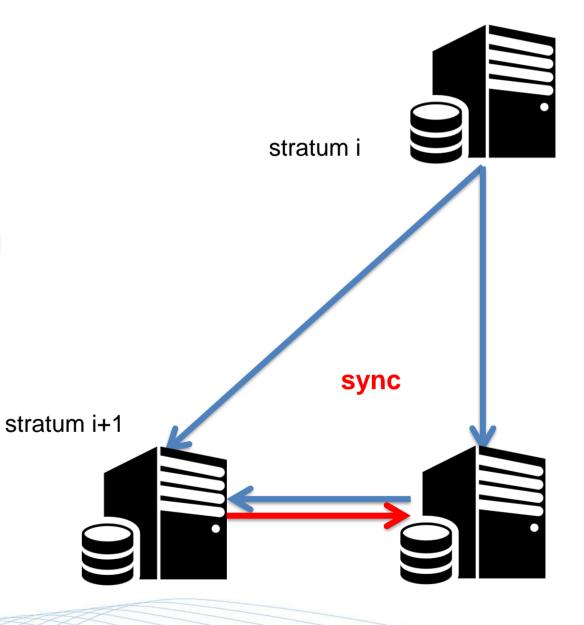
Idea

Bi-directional exchange of time information, most often used on low strata numbers

Adjustment of a server's stratum based with

whom it sychronizes

Two messages pairs (again UDP)





Sychronization algorithm

Goal

Sychronizing time server A with time server B

Method

A estimates offset o of the local clock compared to time server B

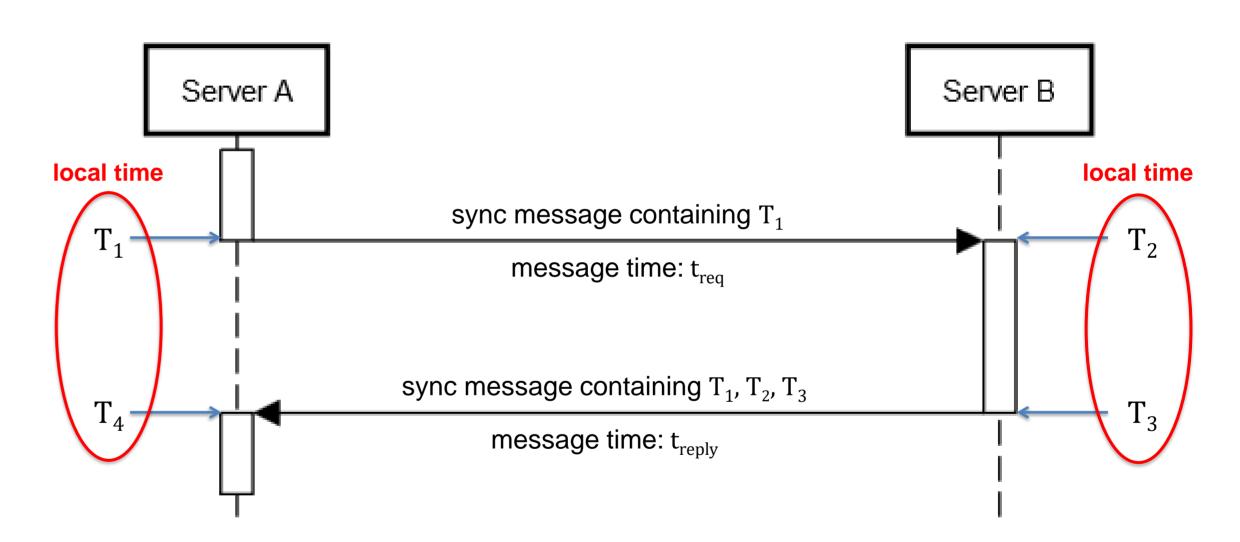
- 1. estimating o by exchanging a message pair
- 2. calculation of the error
- 3. restart if error is exceeding a limit



Offset estimation (1)

Three unknowns

Clock offset oRequest message time t_{req} Reply message time t_{reply}



$$T_4 = T_3 + t_{reply} - o$$

 $T_2 = T_1 + t_{req} + o$



Offset estimation (2)

Solving for o

$$o = T_3 - T_4 + t_{reply}$$

 $o = T_2 - T_1 - t_{req}$

Adding the two equation

$$2o = T_3 - T_4 + t_{reply} + T_2 - T_1 - t_{req}$$

Rearraning the equation

$$o = \frac{T_3 - T_4 + T_2 - T_1}{2} + \frac{t_{reply} - t_{req}}{2}$$

The only unknowns on the right side of the equation.

Term equals zero iff $t_{reply} = t_{req}$



Offset estimation (3)

Reasonable assumption

$$\tilde{o} \approx \frac{T_3 - T_4 + T_2 - T_1}{2}$$

Worst case scenario

$$o = \frac{T_3 - T_4 + T_2 - T_1}{2} + \frac{t_{reply}}{2} \text{ or } o = \frac{T_3 - T_4 + T_2 - T_1}{2} - \frac{t_{req}}{2}$$

An upper bound on the error

$$o - \frac{t_{reply} + t_{req}}{2} \le \tilde{o} \le o + \frac{t_{reply} + t_{req}}{2}$$
with $t_{reply} + t_{req} = T_4 - T_3 + T_2 - T_1$

If that term becomes too big, do not synchronize and try again instead.



Network Time Protocol properties

Precision

Divergence from UTC in WANs up to 50 msec (<30 msec for 99% of cases) and up to 1 msec in LANs (NTPv4)

Reliability / Security

Fail-stop of a *stratum-i* server → dependent *stratum-i+1* servers need to connect to a new *stratum-i* server

Digitally signed time information \rightarrow authenticity & integrity

Scalability

load distribution via distributed server system



Use case: RPC failure semantics

Implementation of *at-most-once* with client/server synchronized time

Failure semantics

4. At-most-once

- in case of sucessful reply: exactly one execution
- in case of a failure: no multiple executions (no execution, partial execution or one execution)
- → More complex failure reaction: resend with identical ID

Implementation

· Client: manage RPC IDs

Goals

- avoid management costs for RPC call IDs
- define a time for which results are stored on the server



Use case: RPC failure semantics

Approach

RPC Client

Each RPC call contains

- unique client ID (not for each individual call)
- original call time stamp

RPC Server

- stores the last time stamp per client non-persistently
- storage of results of RPC calls
- duplicate filtering and resending of results



Server failure behavior

Fail-stop-return scenario

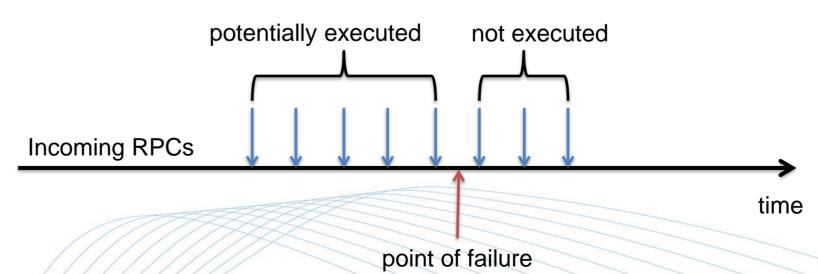
> server does not recognize duplicates anymore after restart

Idea

- server knows a rough time estimate of its failure persitently
- recognizes all RPCs that are <u>potential</u> duplicate calls

Requried

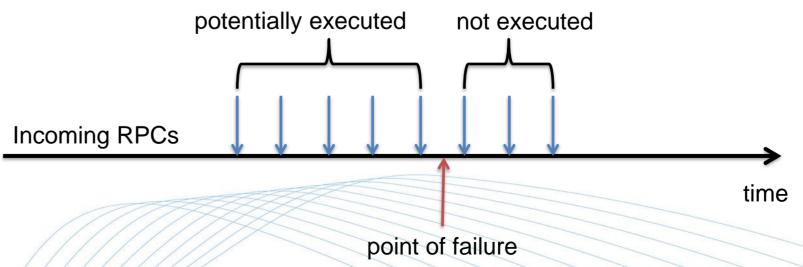
- timestamp of the RPC
- failure time



Server failure behavior

Consequence

- a not executed RPC will be considered a duplicate
- no harm done: at-most-once compliant, handling of "lost" RPCs is then task of the client
- > reduction of expensive operations on persistent memory

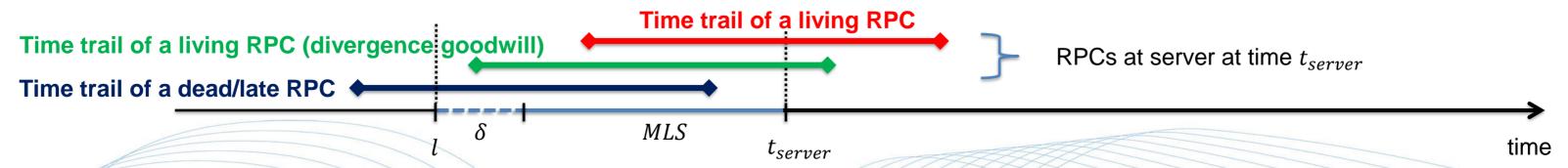


Use case: RPC failure semantics

Prerequisites

- client/server share a sychronized time with a maximum divergence δ
- client attaches to each RPC its birthdate
- global constant for the maximum life span MLS of RPCs
- \rightarrow Server computes a cut-off time l (lates)

$$l = t_{server} - MLS - \delta$$





Use case: RPC failure semantics

Algorithm

- every Δt time units the server writes t_{server} into persistent memory
- at restart: $l \leftarrow stored.t_{server} + \Delta t$
 - RPCs arriving with a younger time stamp

 alive
 - RPCs arriving with a older time stamp

 dead (either already executed or bad luck)

Comment

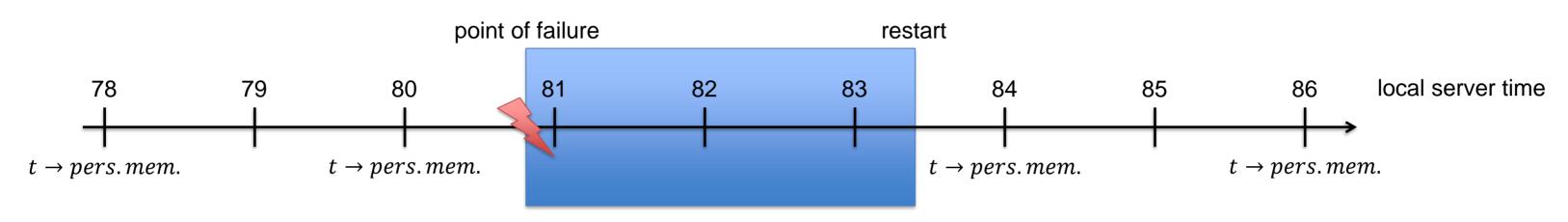
l solves the problem regarding storage time of results

clean-up after RPC life time is up



Example

$$\Delta t = 2; \ \delta = 1; MLS = 3$$



t=79:
$$l$$
=75; $l \leftarrow t - MLS - \delta$

t=80:
$$l$$
=77; $l \leftarrow t - MLS - \delta$; persistent memory $\leftarrow 80$

t=rst:
$$l$$
=82; $l \leftarrow persistant memory + $\Delta t$$

t=84:
$$l$$
=82; persistent memory \leftarrow 84; trail length 2

$$t=85$$
: $l=82$; trail length 3

t=87:
$$l$$
=83; $l \leftarrow t - MLS - \delta$



Application examples for synchronized clocks

Communication infrastructure

- efficient implementation of failure semantics
- data stream sychronization

Real-time systems

Quality-of-service guarantees

Distributed resource management

Failure tolerance: leases (locks with a life span)



Application examples for synchronized clocks (2)

IT security

- authorisation ticket validity (e.g. Kerberos)
- "freshness" guarantee of cryptographic authentification protocols

Distributed file systems

- compiler management (e.g. make)
- local caches with time limited consistency guarantees



Logical clocks

Back to the *make all* example: compile iff *t(last_compile) < t(last_filechange)*

comparison of time stamps

Problems

- costs of synchronizing clocks
- fuzziness of synchonized clocks due to drift

Better: compile iff *last_compile* → *last_filechange*

Causal order
A→B
A "happens before" B



Relative causal order

Motivation

- Consensus regarding the order/sequence of distributed events is fundamental for many algorithms
- Often it is enough to establish a <u>relative</u> order of <u>observable</u> events without referencing time

Consensus regarding the order/sequence of distributed events

For two events a and b it has to be possible to decide system wide, if a→b or b→a

→ Erik's view = Anna's view = Martin's view





→ happens-before relation

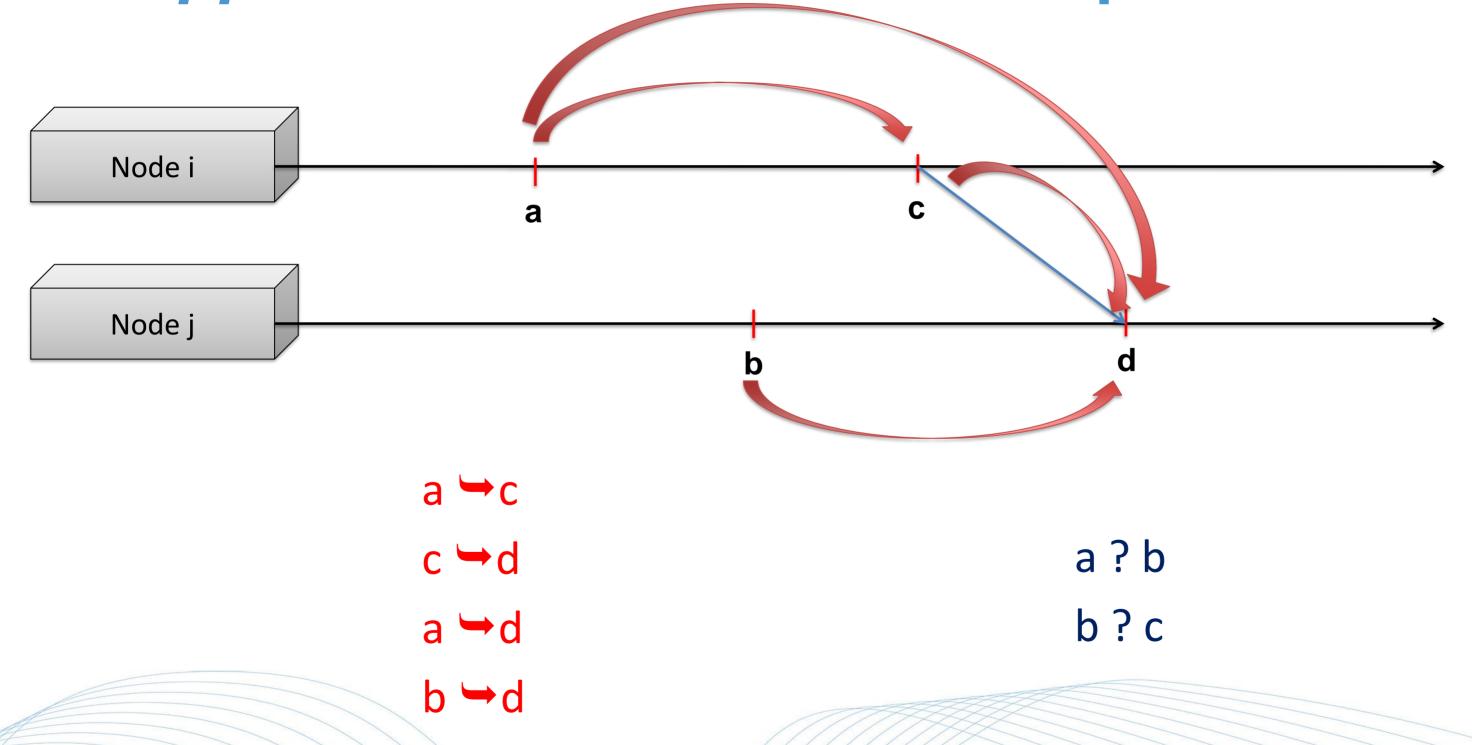
Definition

- 1. Local order
 - If events A and B happen on the same node and A happens before B, then $A \rightarrow B$
- 2. Distributed order
 - If event A is sending a message and event B is receiving that message on a different node, then $A \rightarrow B$
- 3. Transitive closure

$$A \rightarrow B \wedge B \rightarrow C \Longrightarrow A \rightarrow C$$



→ happens-before relation - Example





→ happens-before relation

Properties

- Partial (non-total) order
 For two events A and B, it is possible
 that neither A →B nor B →A is true (i.e. concurrent events exist)
- 2. Strict order



- 3. Potential causal order
 - A →B does not guarantee any causal dependency,
 - implies the possibility of causality only



Four variants of causal order

	partial order	total order
	partial	total
potential	potential	potential
causal order	causal order	causal order
	(ppco)	(tpco)
	partial causal	total causal
causal order	order	order
	(pco)	(tco)



Formal > happens-before relation

 e_i^x denotes an event x in node i

$$e_{i}^{x} \rightarrow e_{j}^{y} \iff \begin{cases} (i = j \land x < y) \lor \\ (i \neq j \land \exists m: e_{i}^{x} = send(m) \land e_{j}^{y} = receive(m)) \lor \\ (\exists e_{k}^{z}: e_{i}^{x} \rightarrow e_{k}^{z} \land e_{k}^{z} \rightarrow e_{j}^{y}) \end{cases}$$

Comments

- $e \rightarrow f \implies e$ is potentially the cause of f
- $\neg (e \rightarrow f) \implies e$ is definitely NOT the cause of f

The set of all events H together with the \rightarrow relation of those events (H, \rightarrow) constitute the event-based model of a distributed algorithm

Example: Analysis of distributed systems

Cause and effect

- What events are the cause for a given event?
- What events are the effect of a given event?
- Causal past

Set of all events that are the potential cause for $e \{f \mid f \Rightarrow e\}$

2. Causal future

Set of all events that the potential effect of e $\{f \mid e \rightarrow f\}$

3. Causal independence

$$\neg (e \rightarrow f) \land \neg (f \rightarrow e) \implies$$
 e and f are causal independent



Implementing a causal order

Goal

Implementation of → by associating discrete values with each event

Required

- All nodes can calculate an identical sequence function o, so that for events e and f holds: $e \rightarrow f \Rightarrow o(e) < o(f)$
- Ideally, all nodes can calculate an identical sequence function o, so that for events e and f holds: $e \rightarrow f \Leftrightarrow o(e) < o(f)$



Logical clocks

A **logical clock** is a strictly monotonic increasing counting function $lc:\to\mathbb{N}$, with each sequence ..., $lc_i,...,lc_j,...$ subject to $\forall i,j,i < j:lc_i < lc_i$

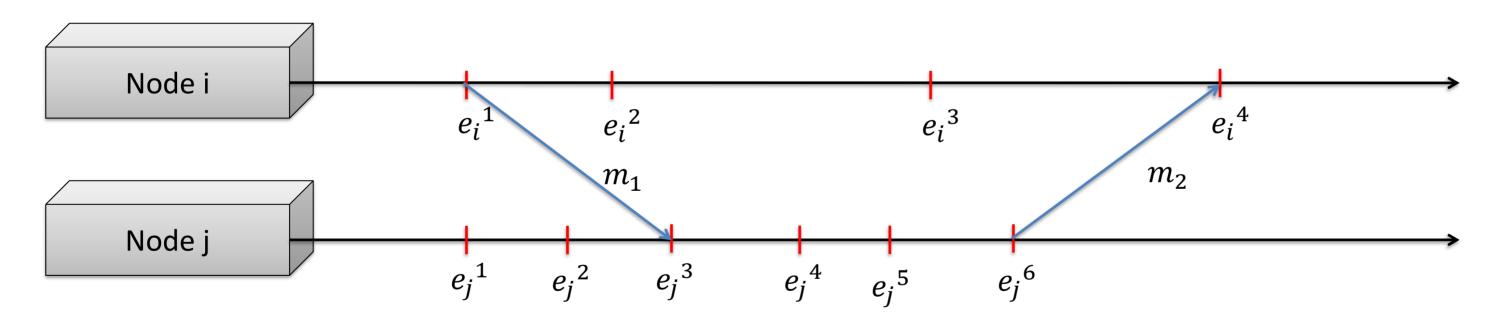
Comments

- Each call of lc returns a higher value then the previous call
- There is no relationship to any real time (UTC or other)



Logical clocks

- easy to implement for a single node (simply a counter)
- not enough to implement the → relation



send (m_1) receive (m_1) , with $o(e_i^1)=1 < o(e_j^3)=3$ send (m_2) receive (m_2) , with $o(e_j^6)=6 < o(e_i^4)=4$



Lamport's Algorithm (1)

Goal

Implementation of → using logical clocks

Approach

- local logical clocks (local order) plus
- synchronization of all logical clocks (distributed order)



Lamport's Algorithm (2)

Idea

- two non-interacting nodes cannot recognize logical clock differences
- when nodes exchange messages, logical clocks can sychronize as a side effect → cheap ("piggy-backing")
- → Implementing a partial potential causal order (ppco) with $e \mapsto f \Rightarrow ppco(e) < ppco(f)$



Lamport's Algorithm (3)

- each node n_i uses a local clock lc_i
- $ppco(e_i) = lc_i$, each event in n_i is timestamped by lc_i : $e_i^{lc_i}$

Application layer

Middleware layer

Network layer

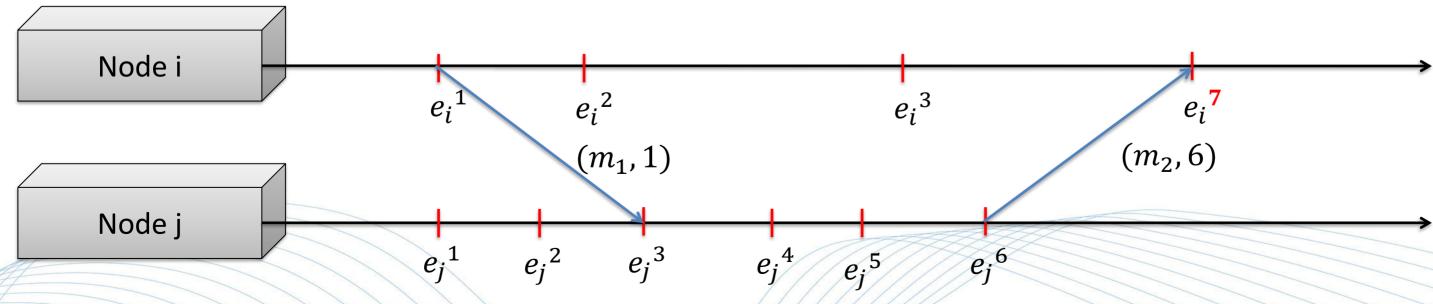
Application sends message

and timestamp message

Middleware sends message

Adjust local clock

- lc_i is added to each message sent by n_i
- on arrival of a message in node n_i
 - 1. n_j sychronizes its local logical clock $lc_j \leftarrow \max(lc_i, lc_j)$
 - 2. n_i tags the receive event with $lc_i + 1$





Message is delivered

to application

Adjust local clock

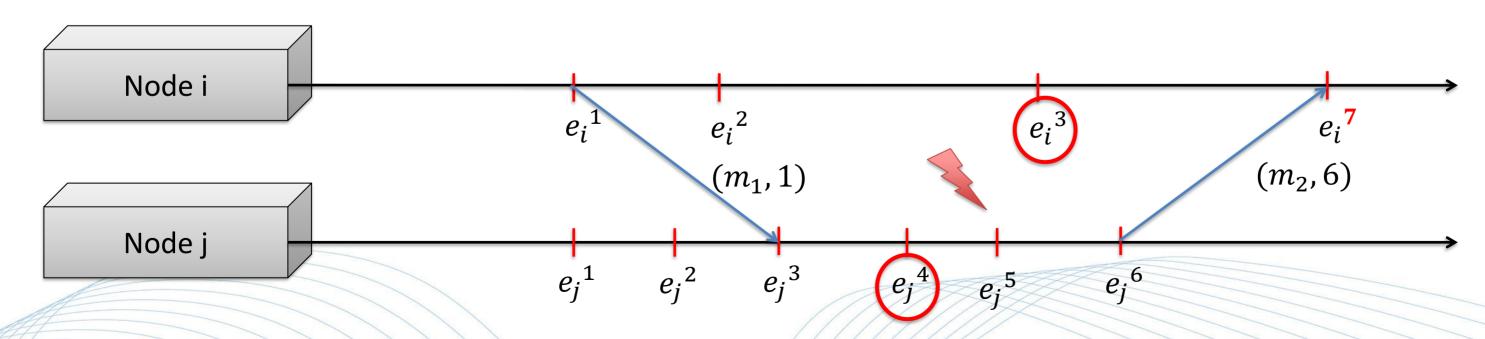
Message is received

Lamport's Algorithm (3)

Caveat

$$e \rightarrow f \implies ppco(e) < ppco(f)$$

- allows concurrent events
- $ppco(e) < ppco(f) \implies e \rightarrow f$ is not guaranteed!





Partial causal order

Goal

Implementing a partial causal order (pco) with

$$e \rightarrow f \iff pco(e) < pco(f)$$

Idea

Local bookkeeping of all logical clocks

 \rightarrow each node n_i stores instead lc_i a vector vc_i (vector clock of n_i) with the last known local times

$$vc_i = \begin{bmatrix} lc_1 \\ \vdots \\ lc_i \\ \vdots \\ lc_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$



Partial causal order (2)

- each node n_i uses a local vector clock vc_i
- $pco(e_i) = vc_i$, each event in n_i is timestamped by vc_i : $e_i^{vc_i}$
- vc_i is added to each message sent by n_i
- on arrival of a message in node n_i
 - 1. n_j sychronizes its local vector clock $\forall k \neq j : vc_j[k] \leftarrow \max(vc_i[k], vc_j[k])$
 - 2. n_i tags the receive event with vc_i

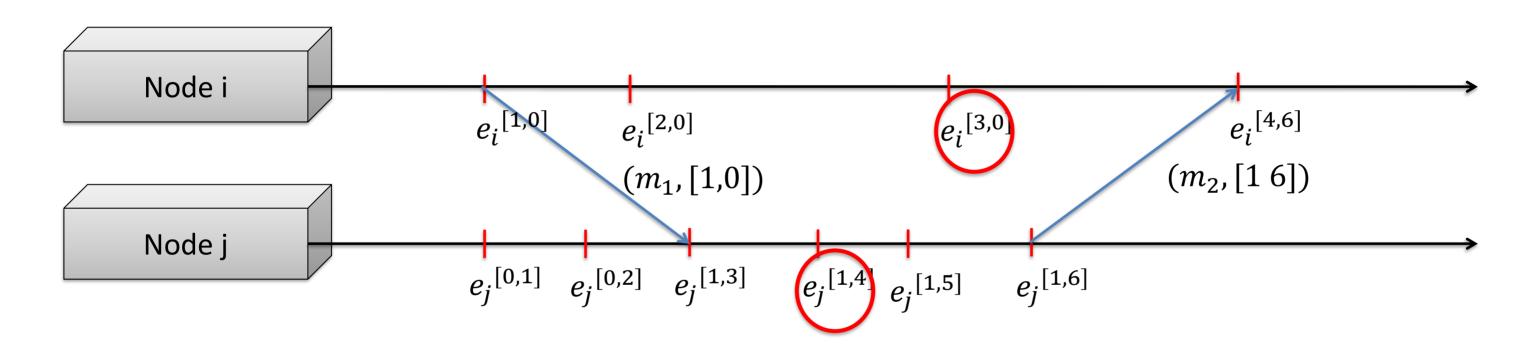
Consequence

$$\forall e_i \neq e_j : e_i \Rightarrow e_j \Leftrightarrow pco(e_i) < pco(e_j) \Leftrightarrow vc_i < vc_j$$

$$vc_i < vc_j \Leftrightarrow \forall k = 1..n : vc_i[k] \leq vc_j[k] \land \exists vc_i[k] < vc_j[k]$$



Vector clock example



Uncomparable events

neither $pco(e_i^{[3,0]}) < pco(e_j^{[1,4]})$ nor $pco(e_j^{[1,4]}) < pco(e_i^{[3,0]})$ is true

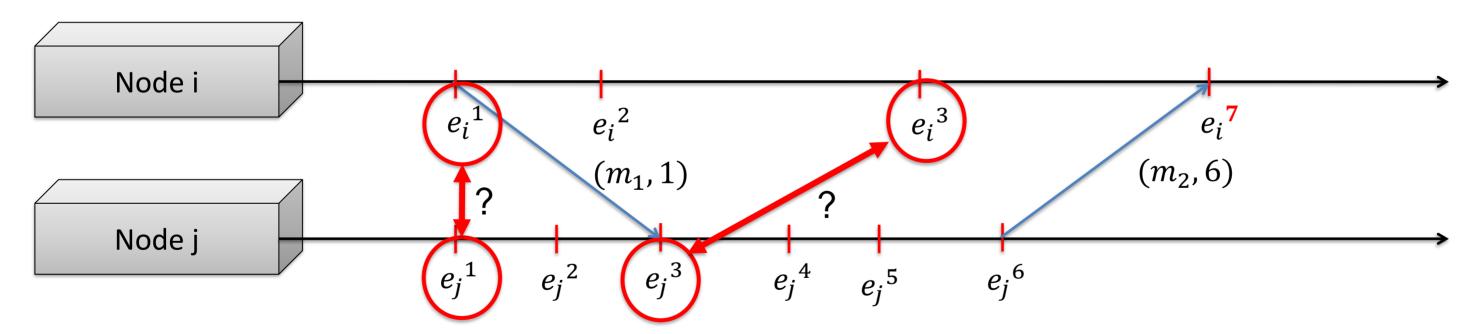
marked events are concurrent -> partial order



Total order

Problem

Partial order is not always sufficient



$$ppco(e_i^1) = ppco(e_j^1)$$
 and $ppco(e_i^3) = ppco(e_j^3)$, similar for $pco(e_i^3)$



Total potential causal order

Definition

- I is a finite index set with a total strict order over "<"
- all nodes n_i have a unique identifier $i \in I \rightarrow globally unique ID$
- lc_i is the synchronized local logical clock of n_i

The total potential causal order for event e_i in node n_i is

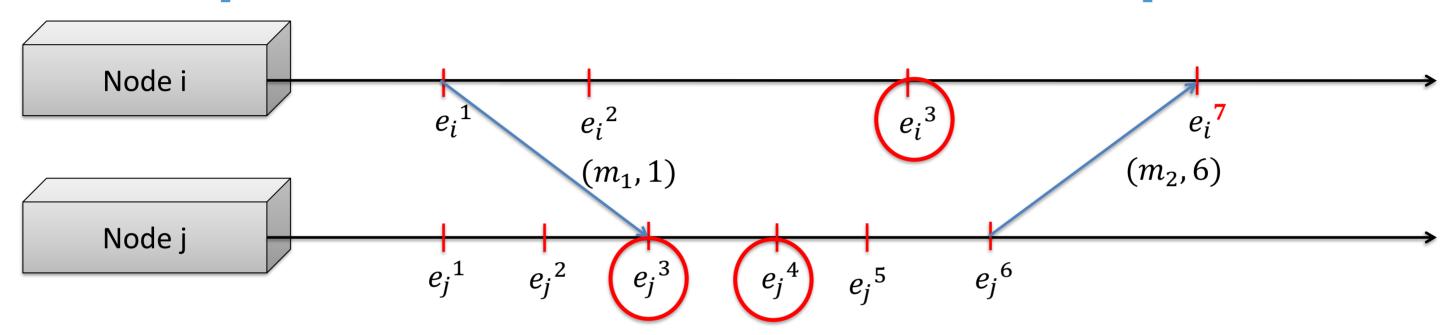
$$tpco(e_i) = (i, lc_i(e_i))$$

and the relation $tpco(e_i) < tpco(e_i)$ is defined as

$$tpco(e_i) < tpco(e_j) \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} lc_i(e_i) < lc_i(e_j) \mid \text{if } lc_i(e_i) \neq lc_i(e_j) \\ i < j \mid \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Total potential causal order - example



$$tpco(e_i^3) < tpco(e_j^3)$$
 and $tpco(e_i^3) < tpco(e_j^4)$

→ The total order is not connected to the actual physical timing of events

Total causal order (tco)
Same as tpco only with vector clocks instead of logical clocks!

Still has its merit, for all n_i the computation of tpco is equal



Summary

Temporal order

- Fuzzy: a, b at the same time $\Leftrightarrow t(a) \rho \le t(b) \le t(a) + \rho$
- Total
- Approximate real-time
- Expensive depending on sychronization regime

Algorithms

- Active and passive time server
- Infrastructure: NTP



Summary

Causal order

- precise
- relative order with no relation to the actual time
- 4 specific variants: partial vs. total + potential causal vs. causal
- with different costs (ppco → cheap; tco → expensive

Based on

- Sychronized local logical (vector) clocks
- task IDs

