
DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS (COMP9243)

Lecture 7 (A): Synchronisation and Coordination Part 1

Slide 1

- ① Distributed Algorithms
- ② Time and Clocks
- ③ Global State
- ④ Concurrency Control

DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHMS

Algorithms that are intended to work in a distributed environment

Used to accomplish tasks such as:

- Communication
- Accessing resources
- Allocating resources
- Consensus
- etc.

Slide 2

Synchronisation and coordination inextricably linked to distributed algorithms

- Achieved using distributed algorithms
- Required by distributed algorithms

SYNCHRONOUS VS ASYNCHRONOUS DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS

Timing model of a distributed system

Slide 3

Affected by:

- Execution speed/time of processes
- Communication delay
- Clocks & clock drift

Synchronous Distributed System:

Time variance is bounded

Execution : bounded execution speed and time

Communication : bounded transmission delay

Clocks : bounded clock drift (and differences in clocks)

Slide 4

Effect:

- Can rely on timeouts to detect failure
- ✓ Easier to design distributed algorithms
- ✗ Very restrictive requirements
 - Limit concurrent processes per processor *Why?*
 - Limit concurrent use of network *Why?*
 - Require precise clocks and synchronisation

Asynchronous Distributed System:

Time variance is not bounded

Execution : different steps can have varying duration

Communication : transmission delays vary widely

Slide 5 **Clocks** : arbitrary clock drift

Effect:

- Allows no assumption about time intervals
- ✗ Cannot rely on timeouts to detect failure
- ✗ Most asynch DS problems hard to solve
- ✓ Solution for asynch DS is also a solution for synch DS
- Most real distributed systems are hybrid synch and asynch

EVALUATING DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHMS

Key Properties:

- ① **Safety**: Nothing **bad** happens
- ② **Liveness**: Something **good** eventually happens

General Properties:

- Slide 6**
- Performance
 - number of messages exchanged
 - response/wait time
 - delay, throughput: $1/(\text{delay} + \text{executiontime})$
 - complexity: $O()$
 - Efficiency
 - resource usage: memory, CPU, etc.
 - Scalability
 - Reliability
 - number of points of failure (low is good)

SYNCHRONISATION AND COORDINATION

Important:

Slide 7 Doing the right thing at the right time.

Two fundamental issues:

- Coordination (the right thing)
- Synchronisation (the right time)

COORDINATION

Coordinate actions and agree on values.

Coordinate Actions:

- Slide 8**
- What actions will occur
 - Who will perform actions

Agree on Values:

- Agree on global value
- Agree on environment
- Agree on state

SYNCHRONISATION

Ordering of all actions

Slide 9

- Total ordering of events
 - Total ordering of instructions
 - Total ordering of communication
 - Ordering of access to resources
 - Requires some concept of time
-
-

MAIN ISSUES

Time and Clocks: synchronising clocks and using time in distributed algorithms

Slide 10

Global State: how to acquire knowledge of the system's global state

Concurrency Control: coordinating concurrent access to resources

TIME AND CLOCKS

Slide 11

TIME

Global Time:

- 'Absolute' time
 - Einstein says no absolute time
 - Absolute enough for our purposes
 - Astronomical time
 - Based on earth's rotation
 - Not stable
 - International Atomic Time (IAT)
 - Based on oscillations of Cesium-133
 - Coordinated Universal Time (UTC)
 - Leap seconds
 - Signals broadcast over the world
-

Local Time:

- Slide 13**
- Relative not 'absolute'
 - Not synchronised to Global source

USING CLOCKS IN COMPUTERS

Timestamps:

- Used to denote at which time an event occurred

Synchronisation Using Clocks:

- Slide 14**
- Performing events at an exact time (turn lights on/off, lock/unlock gates)
 - Logging of events (for security, for profiling, for debugging)
 - Tracking (tracking a moving object with separate cameras)
 - Make (edit on one computer build on another)
 - Ordering messages

PHYSICAL CLOCKS

Based on actual time:

- $C_p(t)$: current time (at UTC time t) on machine p
- Ideally $C_p(t) = t$
- ✗ Clock differences causes clocks to *drift*
- Must regularly synchronise with UTC

Computer Clocks:

- Slide 15**
- Crystal oscillates at known frequency
 - Oscillations cause timer interrupts
 - Timer interrupts update clock

Clock Skew:

- Crystals in different computers run at slightly different rates
- Clocks get out of sync
- Skew: instantaneous difference
- Drift: rate of change of skew

SYNCHRONISING PHYSICAL CLOCKS

Internal Synchronisation:

- Clocks synchronise locally
- Only synchronised with each other

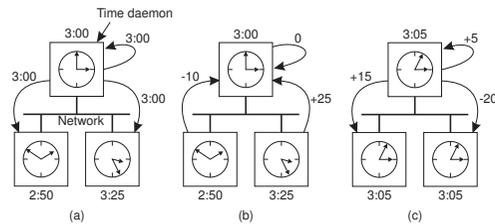
External Synchronisation:

- Slide 16**
- Clocks synchronise to an external time source
 - Synchronise with UTC every δ seconds

Time Server:

- Server that has the correct time
- Server that calculates the correct time

BERKELEY ALGORITHM



Slide 17

Accuracy: 20-25 milliseconds

When is this useful?

NETWORK TIME PROTOCOL (NTP)

Hierarchy of Servers:

- Primary Server: has UTC clock
- Secondary Server: connected to primary
- etc.

Slide 19

Synchronisation Modes:

Multicast: for LAN, low accuracy

Procedure Call: clients poll, reasonable accuracy

Symmetric: Between peer servers. highest accuracy

CRISTIAN'S ALGORITHM

Time Server:

- Has UTC receiver
- Passive

Algorithm:

Slide 18

- Clients periodically request the time
- Don't set time backward *Why not?*
- Take propagation and interrupt handling delay into account
 - $(T1 - T0)/2$
 - Or take a series of measurements and average the delay
- Accuracy: 1-10 millisec (RTT in LAN)

What is a drawback of this approach?

Synchronisation:

Slide 20

- Estimate clock offsets and transmission delays between two nodes
- Keep estimates for past communication
- Choose offset estimate for lowest transmission delay
- Also determine unreliable servers
- Accuracy 1 - 50 msec

Slide 21

LAMPOR



- Safety, Liveness
- Logical clocks and vector clocks
- Snapshots
- Byzantine generals
- Paxos consensus
- TLA+, LaTeX
- Turing Award 2013

Comments about his papers: Google: [lamport my writings](#)

Slide 22

LOGICAL CLOCKS

Event ordering is more important than physical time:

- Events (e.g., state changes) in a single process are ordered
- Processes need to agree on ordering of causally related events (e.g., message send and receive)

Local ordering:

- System consists of N processes $p_i, i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$

→ Local event ordering \rightarrow_i :

If p_i observes e before e' , we have $e \rightarrow_i e'$

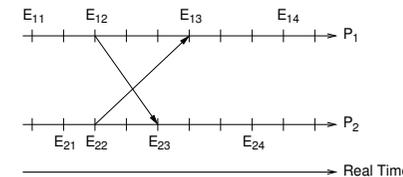
Global ordering:

- Leslie Lamport's **happened before** relation \rightarrow
- Smallest relation, such that
 1. $e \rightarrow_i e'$ implies $e \rightarrow e'$
 2. For every message m , $send(m) \rightarrow receive(m)$
 3. Transitivity: $e \rightarrow e'$ and $e' \rightarrow e''$ implies $e \rightarrow e''$

The relation \rightarrow is a partial order:

- If $a \rightarrow b$, then a **causally affects** b
- We consider unordered events to be **concurrent**:

Example: $a \not\rightarrow b$ and $b \not\rightarrow a$ implies $a \parallel b$



Slide 23

→ Causally related: $E_{11} \rightarrow E_{12}, E_{13}, E_{14}, E_{23}, E_{24}, \dots$

$E_{21} \rightarrow E_{22}, E_{23}, E_{24}, E_{13}, E_{14}, \dots$

→ Concurrent: $E_{11} \parallel E_{21}, E_{12} \parallel E_{22}, E_{13} \parallel E_{23}, E_{11} \parallel E_{22}, E_{13} \parallel E_{24}, E_{14} \parallel E_{23}, \dots$

Lamport's logical clocks:

- Software counter to locally compute the happened-before relation \rightarrow
- Each process p_i maintains a **logical clock** L_i
- **Lamport timestamp**:
 - $L_i(e)$: timestamp of event e at p_i
 - $L(e)$: timestamp of event e at process it occurred at

Slide 24

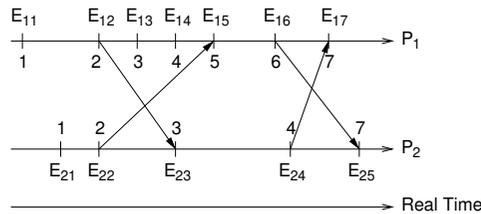
Implementation:

1. Before timestamping a local event p_i executes $L_i := L_i + 1$
2. Whenever a message m is sent from p_i to p_j :
 - p_i executes $L_i := L_i + 1$ and sends L_i with m
 - p_j receives L_i with m and executes $L_j := \max(L_j, L_i) + 1$ ($receive(m)$ is annotated with the new L_j)

Properties:

- $a \rightarrow b$ implies $L(a) < L(b)$
- $L(a) < L(b)$ does not necessarily imply $a \rightarrow b$

Example:



Slide 25

How can we order E_{13} and E_{23} ?

Total event ordering:

- Complete partial to total order by including process identifiers
- Given local time stamps $L_i(e)$ and $L_j(e')$, we define global time stamps $\langle L_i(e), i \rangle$ and $\langle L_j(e'), j \rangle$
- **Lexicographical ordering:** $\langle L_i(e), i \rangle < \langle L_j(e'), j \rangle$ iff
 - $L_i(e) < L_j(e')$ or
 - $L_i(e) = L_j(e')$ and $i < j$

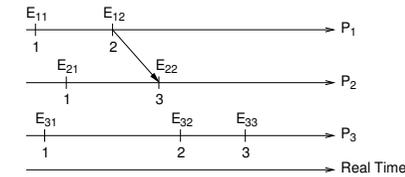
Slide 26

$E_{13} = 3, E_{24} = 4$. Did E_{13} happen before E_{24} ?

VECTOR CLOCKS

Main shortcoming of Lamport's clocks:

- $L(a) < L(b)$ does not imply $a \rightarrow b$
- We cannot deduce causal dependencies from time stamps:



Slide 27

- We have $L_1(E_{11}) < L_3(E_{33})$, but $E_{11} \not\rightarrow E_{33}$
- Why?
 - Clocks advance independently or via messages
 - There is no history as to where advances come from

Vector clocks:

- At each process, maintain a clock for every other process
- I.e., each clock V_i is a vector of size N
- $V_i[j]$ contains i 's knowledge about j 's clock
- Events are timestamped with a vector

Implementation:

- ① Initially, $V_i[j] := 0$ for $i, j \in \{1, \dots, N\}$
- ② Before p_i timestamps an event: $V_i[i] := V_i[i] + 1$
- ③ Whenever a message m is sent from p_i to p_j :
 - p_i executes $V_i[i] := V_i[i] + 1$ and sends V_i with m
 - p_j receives V_i with m and **merges** the vector clocks V_i and V_j :

Slide 28

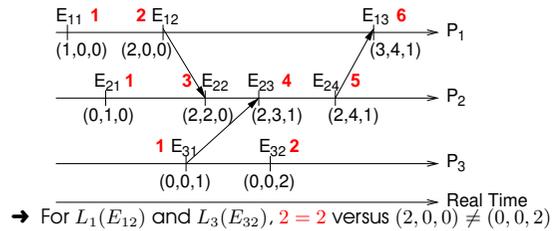
$$V_j[k] := \begin{cases} \max(V_j[k], V_i[k]) + 1 & , \text{if } j = k \\ \max(V_j[k], V_i[k]) & , \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Properties:

- For all $i, j, V_i[i] \geq V_j[i]$
- $a \rightarrow b$ iff $V(a) < V(b)$ where
 - $V = V'$ iff $V[i] = V'[i]$ for $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$
 - $V \geq V'$ iff $V[i] \geq V'[i]$ for $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$
 - $V > V'$ iff $V \geq V' \wedge V \neq V'$
 - $V \parallel V'$ iff $V \not\geq V' \wedge V' \not\geq V$

Example:

Slide 29



Slide 30

GLOBAL STATE

GLOBAL STATE

Determining global properties:

- Distributed garbage collection: Do any references exist to a given object?
- Distributed deadlock detection: Do processes wait in a cycle for each other?
- Distributed termination detection: Did a set of processes cease all activity? (Consider messages in transit!)
- Distributed checkpoint: What is a correct state of the system to save?

Slide 31

CONSISTENT CUTS

Determining global properties:

- We need to combine information from multiple nodes
- Without global time, how do we know whether collected local information is consistent?
- Local state sampled at arbitrary points in time surely is not consistent
- We need a criterion for what constitutes a globally consistent collection of local information

Slide 32

Slide 33

Local history:

- N processes $p_i, i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$
- For each p_i ,
 - event: e_i^j local action or communication
 - history: $h_i^k = \langle e_i^0, e_i^1, \dots, e_i^k \rangle$
 - May be finite or infinite

Process state:

- s_i^k : state of process p_i immediately before event e_i^k
- s_i^k records all events included in the history h_i^{k-1}
- Hence, s_i^0 refers to p_i 's initial state

Global history and state:

- Using a total event ordering, we can merge all local histories into a **global history**:

$$H = \bigcup_{i=1}^N h_i$$

Slide 34

- Similarly, we can combine a set of local states s_1, \dots, s_N into a global state:

$$S = (s_1, \dots, s_N)$$

- Which combination of local state is **consistent**?

Cuts:

- Similar to the global history, we can define **cuts** based on k -prefixes:

$$C = \bigcup_{i=1}^N h_i^{c_i}$$

Slide 35

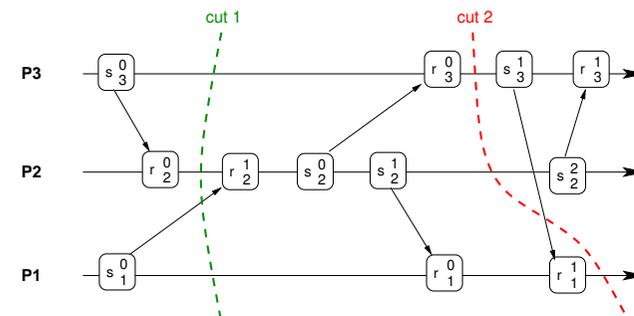
- $h_i^{c_i}$ is history of p_i up to and including event $e_i^{c_i}$
- The cut C **corresponds** to the state

$$S = (s_1^{c_1+1}, \dots, s_N^{c_N+1})$$

- The final events in a cut are its **frontier**:

$$\{e_i^{c_i} \mid i \in \{1, \dots, N\}\}$$

Slide 36



Consistent cut:

→ We call a cut **consistent** iff,

$$\text{for all events } e' \in C, e \rightarrow e' \text{ implies } e \in C$$

→ A global state is consistent if it corresponds to a consistent cut

→ Note: we can characterise the execution of a system as a sequence of consistent global states

Slide 37

$$S_0 \rightarrow S_1 \rightarrow S_2 \rightarrow \dots$$

Linearisation:

→ A global history that is consistent with the happened-before relation → is also called a **linearisation** or **consistent run**

→ A linearisation only passes through consistent global states

→ A state S' is **reachable** from state S if there is a linearisation that passes through S and then S'

CHANDY & LAMPORT'S SNAPSHOTS

→ Determines a consistent global state

→ Takes care of messages that are in transit

→ Useful for evaluating stable global properties

Properties:

Slide 38

→ Reliable communication and failure-free processes

→ Point-to-point message delivery is ordered

→ Process/channel graph must be strongly connected

→ On termination,

- processes hold only their local state components and
- a set of messages that were in transit during the snapshot.

Outline of the algorithm:

① One process initiates the algorithm by

- recording its local state and
- sending a **marker message *** over each outgoing channel

② On receipt of a marker message over incoming channel c ,

- if local state not yet saved, save local state and send marker messages, or
- if local state already saved, channel snapshot for c is complete

③ Local contribution complete after markers received on all incoming channels

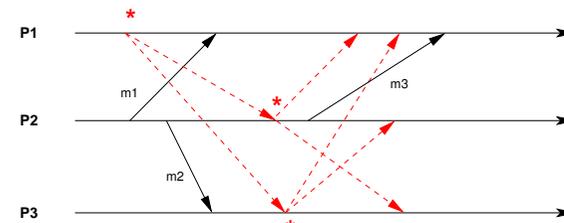
Slide 39

Result for each process:

→ One local state snapshot

→ For each incoming channel, a set of messages received after performing the local snapshot and before the marker came down that channel

Slide 40



SPANNER AND TRUETIME

Globally Distributed Database

- Want external consistency (linearisability)
- Want lock-free read transactions (for scalability)

Slide 41

WWGD? (what would Google do?)

Slide 42

USE A GLOBAL CLOCK!

EXTERNAL CONSISTENCY WITH A GLOBAL CLOCK

Data:

- versioned using timestamp

Read:

- Read operations performed on a *snapshot*
- Snapshot: latest version of data items \leq given timestamp

Slide 43

Write:

- Each write operation (transaction actually) has unique timestamp
 - Timestamps must not overlap!
 - Write operations are protected by locks
 - Means they don't overlap
 - So get global time during the transaction
 - Means timestamps won't overlap
-

Slide 44

BUT CLOCKS ARE NOT PERFECTLY SYNCHRONISED.

So transaction A could get the same timestamp as transaction B

TRUE TIME

Add uncertainty to timestamps:

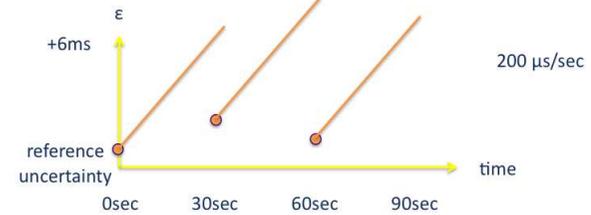
- `TT.now()`: current local clock value
- `TT.now().earliest()`, `TT.now().latest()`: maximum skew of clock

Slide 45

Add delay to transaction:

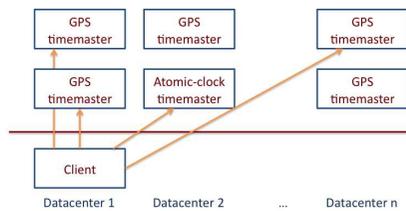
- so timestamps can't possibly overlap
- `s = TT.now(); wait until TT.now().earliest > s.latest`

SYNCHRONISATION



(from <http://research.google.com/archive/spanner-osdi2012.pptx>)

TRUETIME ARCHITECTURE



Slide 46

Compute reference [earliest, latest] = $\text{now} \pm \epsilon$

(from <http://research.google.com/archive/spanner-osdi2012.pptx>)

CONCURRENCY

Slide 48

CONCURRENCY

Concurrency in a Non-Distributed System:

Typical OS and multithreaded programming problems

- Prevent *race conditions*
- Critical sections
- Mutual exclusion
 - Locks
 - Semaphores
 - Monitors
- Must apply mechanisms correctly
 - Deadlock
 - Starvation

Slide 49

Concurrency in a Distributed System:

Distributed System introduces more challenges

- No directly shared resources (e.g., memory)
- No global state
- No global clock
- No centralised algorithms
- More concurrency

Slide 50

DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION

- Concurrent access to distributed resources
- Must prevent race conditions during critical regions

Requirements:

- ① **Safety:** At most one process may execute the critical section at a time
- ② **Liveness:** Requests to enter and exit the critical section eventually succeed
- ③ **Ordering:** Requests are processed in happened-before ordering (also Fairness)

Slide 51

RECALL: EVALUATING DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHMS

General Properties:

- Performance
 - number of messages exchanged
 - response/wait time
 - delay
 - throughput: $1/(delay + executiontime)$
 - complexity: $O()$
- Efficiency
 - resource usage: memory, CPU, etc.
- Scalability
- Reliability
 - number of points of failure (low is good)

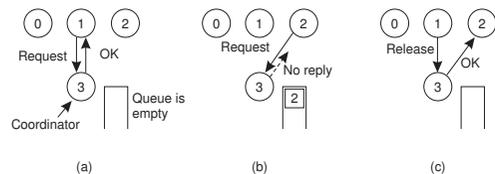
Slide 52

METHOD 1: CENTRAL SERVER

Simplest approach:

- Requests to enter and exit a critical section are sent to a lock server
- Permission to enter is granted by receiving a token
- When critical section left, token is returned to the server

Slide 53



Properties:

- Number of message exchanged?
- Delay before entering critical section?
- Reliability?
- Easy to implement
- Does not scale well
- Central server may fail

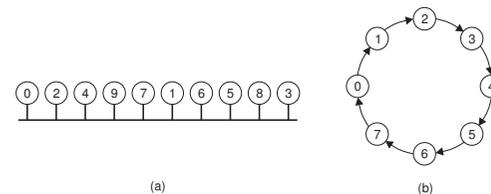
Slide 54

METHOD 2: TOKEN RING

Implementation:

- All processes are organised in a logical ring structure
- A token message is forwarded along the ring
- Before entering the critical section, a process has to wait until the token comes by
- Must retain the token until the critical section is left

Slide 55



Properties:

- Number of message exchanged?
- Delay before entering critical section?
- Reliability?
- Ring imposes an average delay of $N/2$ hops (limits scalability)
- Token messages consume bandwidth
- Failing nodes or channels can break the ring (token might be lost)

Slide 56

METHOD 3: USING MULTICASTS AND LOGICAL CLOCKS

Algorithm by Ricart & Agrawala:

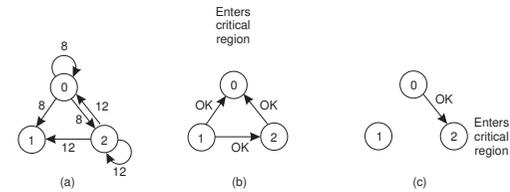
Slide 57

- Processes p_i maintain a Lamport clock and can communicate pairwise
- Processes are in one of three states:
 1. *Released*: Outside of critical section
 2. *Wanted*: Waiting to enter critical section
 3. *Held*: Inside critical section

Process behaviour:

Slide 58

- ① If a process wants to enter, it
 - multicasts a message $\langle L_i, p_i \rangle$ and
 - waits until it has received a reply from every process
- ② If a process is in *Released*, it immediately replies to any request to enter the critical section
- ③ If a process is in *Held*, it delays replying until it is finished with the critical section
- ④ If a process is in *Wanted*, it replies to a request immediately only if the requesting timestamp is **smaller** than the one in its own request



Slide 59

Properties:

- Number of message exchanged?
- Delay before entering critical section?
- Reliability?
- Multicast leads to increasing overhead (try using only subsets of peer processes)
- Susceptible to faults

MUTUAL EXCLUSION: A COMPARISON

Messages Exchanged:

- Messages per entry/exit of critical section
 - Centralised: 3
 - Ring: $1 \rightarrow \infty$
 - Multicast: $2(n - 1)$

Delay:

Slide 60

- Delay before entering critical section
 - Centralised: 2
 - Ring: $0 \rightarrow n - 1$
 - Multicast: $2(n - 1)$

Reliability:

- Problems that may occur
 - Centralised: coordinator crashes
 - Ring: lost token, process crashes
 - Multicast: any process crashes

HOMework

Slide 61

- How would you use vector clocks to implement causal consistency?
- Could you use logical clocks to implement sequential consistency?

HOMework

Hacker's edition:

Slide 62

- Modify the Ricart Agrawala mutual exclusion algorithm to only require sending to a subset of the processes.
 - Can you modify the centralised mutual exclusion algorithm to tolerate coordinator crashes?
-

READING LIST

Optional

Slide 63

Time, Clocks, and the Ordering of Events in a Distributed system Classic on Lamport clocks.

Distributed Snapshots: Determining Global States of Distributed Systems Chandy and Lamport algorithm.
