CS321: Time Synchronization





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Why Do We Need Time Coordination?

- What is the time now?
- Do we all agree? Why/why not?
- Where are we sourcing our time from?
- How accurate do we need time?

Why Do We Need Time Coordination?

- Major reasons for timesync:
 - Determine temporal relationships of observations between sensors
 - Events with timestamps
 - e.g. Acoustic source localization: Accuracy 30us ~ 1cm error
 - Data with timestamps
 - e.g. Golden Gate bridge monitoring: Accuracy 10us
 - Delay measurements for distance estimation/location
 - e.g. Audio/sound/noise propagation: Accuracy 1ms 10ms
 - e.g. Radio propagation: Accuracy 10ns 1us
 - Coordinated actuation of sensors, reacting to sensed events in real time
 - e.g. TDMA: a few us
- In sensor networks, each node has its own clock
 - Clocks drift apart from each other
 - different startup times
 - manufacturing differences, environmental effects (battery power, temperature, humidity)

Time Synchronization Challenges

 Time synchronization: a system service maintaining a common notion of time across multiple nodes over possibly multi-hop links

Challenges:

- large variety of timesync needs
 - no method is optimal for all applications
- heterogeneous and rapidly evolving hardware platforms
- high accuracy application requirements but resource constrained hardware

Would traditional solutions work?

- NTP (Network time protocol)
- Lamport's logical clocks
- GPS at each node

Network Time Protocol



NTP [Mills 1995]

- the Internet timekeeper
- uses a unique "leader" clock
- advanced and tested in large scale

Overview

- Designed for static networks
- Global reference time is injected to the network by time servers (Stratum 1)
 - synced out of band by GPS
- Nodes participating in NTP form hierarchy
- Timesync information is frequently obtained from parents (RTT time)
- Statistical techniques overcome RTT nondeterministic delays in Internet

Network Time Protocol



NTP [Mills 1995]

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Problems

- No accuracy guarantee: 2—100ms is typical
- Scarce resources may preclude out-of-band synchronization
- Not energy optimized e.g. requires all nodes to be synced with max accuracy
- NTP servers must accept timesync requests at any time (no radio off)
- End-to-end delay is unpredictable, routes may be long (hop-wise)
- Statistical techniques require significant computation and memory

Lamport's Logical Clocks

Logical Clock

- Assign relative time to events, so that their causality is not violated
- Time may deviate from absolute local time
- For distributed "make", only order of events is important!

Happens before relation (\rightarrow):

- On the same node:
 - $a \rightarrow b$, if time(a) < time(b)
- If n1 sends m to n2: send(m) → receive(m)
- Transitivity:

If a \rightarrow b and b \rightarrow c then a \rightarrow c



Leslie Lamport [1978]

- All nodes use a counter (clock) with initial value of zero
- A node increments its counter when it sends a message or detects an event
- Messages carry timestamps
- On message receipt, the receiver's counter is updated



Frequent message exchange reduces clock deviation

Lamport's Logical Clocks

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Problems:

- Delivery order of messages in WSNs does not imply causality of events due to MAC, routing delays
- Partial order only

Traditional Approaches Do Not Always Work

GPS at every node

- Accurate: some GPSs provide 1 pps @ O(10ns) accuracy
- But doesn't work everywhere and has cost, size, and energy issues

NTP

- optentially long and varying paths to time-servers due to multi-hopping and short-lived links
- delay and jitter due to MAC and store-and-forward relaying
- discovery of time servers
- Perfectly acceptable in many cases (coarse grain synchronization), but inefficient when fine-grain sync is required

Logical clocks

Delivery order of messages in WSNs does not ensure causality of events

Traditional Approaches Do Not Always Work

NTP

Logica

optentially long and varying paths to time-servers due to multi-hopping and <u>short-lived links</u>

- dela

 Improve accuracy of time-synchronization
- disc
 Enable resource efficient implementation with
 Perfeineffi
 low computation and memory requirements
 - Allow for dynamic changes in topology and adhoc deployments

Delivery order of messages in WSNs does not assure causality of events

GPS at every node

- Accurate: some GPSs provide 1 pps @ O(10ns) accuracy
- But doesn't work everywhere and has cost, size, and energy issues

Computer Clocks



- Sensors do not have clocks (due to cost) !
 - Typical sensor CPU has counters that increment by each cycle, generating interrupt upon overflow (oscillations of a quartz)
 - External oscillators (with HW counter) can keep time when CPU is off
 - A counter represents the passing of time:

H_i(t)

The OS can maintain SW Clock by scaling and adding an offset to a counter:

 $C_i(t) = \alpha H_i(t) + \beta$

- C_i(t) is typically implemented by a 32-bit word, representing microseconds that have elapsed at time t
- Successive events can be distinguished if the clock resolutions is smaller that the time interval between the two events



- Computer clocks, like any other clocks tend not to be in perfect agreement !!
- Clock skew: the difference between the times on two clocks $|C_i(t) C_i(t)|$
- Clock drift: clocks count time at different rates

 $dC_i/dt != dC_j/dt$

Clock Drift

Clock makers specify a maximum drift rate ρ ppm

- Ordinary cheap quartz crystals drift by ~ 1sec in 2 days (10⁻⁵ secs/sec)
- Clock drift is often given in parts-per-million (e.g. 10 ppm)
- By definition

 $1-\rho \le dC/dt \le 1+\rho$

- Clock drifts depend on
 - manufacturing defects,
 - temperature, and
 - power supply variation



Typical Oscillator Data



Time Synchronization

- The main objective is to determine relative drifts of the clocks of different sensor nodes
- This is a multi-step process
 - Node-to-node instantaneous synchronization
 - Node-to-node continuous synchronization
 - Multi-hop synchronization

Node to Node Instantaneous Synchronization

determine difference between local clocks of 2 nodes
most popular method is timestamping radio messages



Delays incurred in the process of timestamping:

send time: the time used to assemble the msg and issue the send request to MACaccess time: the delay incurred waiting for access to the transmit channel up to the point when transmission begins

transmission time: the time required for the sender to transmit the message.

propagation time: required for message
 to propagate from sender to the receiver
reception time: the time required for the

receiver to receive the message.

receive time: time to process the incoming message and to notify the receiver application.

Node to Node Instantaneous Synchronization



Time	Magnitude	Distribution
Send and Receive	0 – 100 ms	nondeterministic, depends on the processor load
Access	10 – 500 ms	nondeterministic, depends on the channel contention
Transmission / Reception	10 – 20 ms	deterministic, depends on message length
Propagation	< 1µs for distances up to 300 meters	deterministic, depends on the distance between sender and receiver

RBS ['02]

- Eliminates send and access times
- Requires additional radio communication

FTSP ['05]

- Timestamps after MAC granted
- Single broadcast syncs multiple receivers



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TPSN ['04]

- Two way (unicast) communication
- Determines both offset and drift



Node to Node Instantaneous Synchronization



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Propagation	< 1µs for distances up to 300 meters	deterministic, depends on the distance between sender and receiver

RBS ['02]

Implementation: no special access to radio is required



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FTSP ['05]

Efficiency: single message multiple receivers



Value: Both offset and drift are found

All three algorithms achieve a few μs accuracy.

Node to node continuous synchronization

Relative drift synchronization:

- most commonly, we continuously estimate both rate and offset of the local clocks of 2 nodes
- synchronization in rounds: a popular method is **linear regression**
- For nodes n_i , n_i a linear relation $C_i(t) = \alpha C_i(t) + \beta$ is postulated
- α , β are determined by minimizing square differences of the times



Linear Regression



RBS: 7usec error after 60 seconds of silence

FTSP: The distribution of the errors of linear-regression

Continuous accuracy of a few μ s is possible using LR.

Multi-hop synchronization

Multi-hop needs to be dealt with explicitly – overlaying could introduce large errors, techniques to organize multi-hop synchronization:

- a) Single-hop synchronization: with a set of master nodes which are synced out of band. (e.g., using GPS)
- b) Single-hop synchronization in overlapping clusters, gateway nodes translate time stamps. (RBS)
- c) Tree hierarchy with a single master node at the root. (TPSN)
- d) Unstructured, master node is elected. (FTSP)



Continuous multi-hop accuracy of a few µs is possible.

Specific Problems in WSNs

 Certain WSN scenarios may prevent us from deploying sensor nodes at precise locations, or to provide more reliable, GPS equipped leader nodes

Ad-hoc operation is required

 Power supply is limited and continuous synchronization is a resource demanding service

Power efficient methods are required

Ad-hoc Mode of Operation - FTSP

Overview

- Global time is synchronized to the local time of an elected leader
- No hierarchy is maintained, instead asynchronous diffusion is utilized: each node sends one synchronization msg per 30 seconds, constant network load
- Sequence number, incremented only by the elected leader
 - to determine when the leader fails
 - to distinguish old and new timestamps

Robustness

- If leader fails, new leader is elected automatically. The new leader keeps the offset and skew of the old global time
- When leader failure is detected, all nodes become leaders; election algorithm rapidly resolves this anarchy
- Fault tolerant: nodes can enter and leave the network, links can fail, nodes can be mobile, topology can change



sequence numbers

FTSP experimental evaluation



topology:

Continuous vs Post-facto Synchronization

So far we have only seen continuous mode of operation – **virtual global time service**

Post-fact techniques

- Synchronize after an event was detected
- Enable power saving mode
- However, timestamps are not available immediately (wait for synchronization)

TDOA (time-difference-of-arrival) apps:

- Special post-facto case
- Only differences of event detection times are important
- Transmit age of events, rather than event times, root calculates time differences per its local clock
- Can be piggybacked to existing radio traffic
- 5.7 µs average, 80 µs maximum error were achieved in a 10-hop, 45-node network



Timesync in Practice: A Countersniper System



Sensor Fusion Requires Timesync



Proactive or Reactive Timesync?

Proactive timesync

- All nodes continuously synchronize
- Shot events are timestamped with global time
- Base station (BS) combines global times to find the sniper location

Cons:

- Active synchronization may reveal the countersniper system
- Active synchroinzation is power demanding

Reactive timesync

- Nodes are turned on only when a shot is detected
- Shot events are timestamped with local times and rapidly sent to BS
- Base station combines local times to find the sniper location

Pros:

- Power efficient, stealthy mode
- As long as a collection tree exists, we do not worry about nodes entering/leaving, or mobility
- Timestamps can be embedded in the routing messages

Conclusion

- we saw how time sync has different needs & opportunities in wireless sensor networks than for traditional LAN/WAN/Internet
- propagation delay often insignificant
- special techniques to deal with radio/MAC/system delays
- there are quite varied alternatives for how to synchronize in multihop networks
 - single-hop beacon (like GPS) good for some situations
 - time sync strategies can be similar to routing protocol structures (trees, zones)
 - extra care may be required for ad-hoc and power efficient operation
- virtual global time service is expensive, consider post-facto techniques for energy efficiency