



Tian, Guo-Song and Tian, Yu-Chu and Fidge, Colin J. (2008) *High-precision relative clock synchronization using time stamp counters*. In: 13th IEEE International Conference on Engineering of Complex Computer Systems, 31 March-4 April 2008, Belfast, UK.

© Copyright 2008 IEEE

Personal use of this material is permitted. However, permission to reprint/republish this material for advertising or promotional purposes or for creating new collective works for resale or redistribution to servers or lists, or to reuse any copyrighted component of this work in other works must be obtained from the IEEE.

High-Precision Relative Clock Synchronization Using Time Stamp Counters

Guo-Song Tian, Yu-Chu Tian and Colin Fidge

Faculty of Information Technology,
Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD 4001, Australia

Abstract

In this paper we show how to use a computer processor's Time Stamp Counter register to provide a precise and stable time reference, via a high-precision relative clock synchronization protocol. Existing clock synchronization techniques, such as the Network Time Protocol, were designed for wide-area networks with large propagation delays, but the millisecond-scale precision they offer is too coarse for local-area applications such as instrument monitoring systems, high-quality digital audio systems and sensor networks. Our new clock synchronization technique does not require specialized hardware but instead uses the Time Stamp Counter already available in the widely-used Intel Pentium processor. Experimental results show that we can achieve a synchronization precision in the order of 10 microseconds in a small-scale local area network using TSC registers, which is much higher than can be achieved by using a computer processor's Time-Of-Day clock.

1 Introduction

With the emergence of new time-critical distributed computing paradigms, such as distributed control converters, human-robot physical interaction and ad hoc networks composed of large numbers of disposable sensors, clock synchronization is again becoming a critical issue in distributed computing environments [1, 3, 6, 9, 14, 15]. In a typical business application network, the only synchronization requirement is the need to keep clocks in a Wide-Area Network (WAN) loosely synchronized with an absolute Time-Of-Day reference. By contrast, distributed control systems require strong, relative clock consistency in a Local-Area Network (LAN) [4].

Relative clock synchronization refers to the mechanisms and protocols used to maintain mutually-consistent clocks in a coordinated network of computers. That is, relative clock synchronization focuses on the time difference between clocks, not the offset of each clock against absolute time (sometimes called 'wall clock time'). The accuracy re-

quirements for relative clock synchronization in control systems are of the order of millisecond or even sub-millisecond precision. For instance, real-time controllers typically assume that important events occur at predetermined times, and the system's calculations might be wrong if sensors are not sampled at the assumed rate or if signals are not sent to actuators at the expected times.

High-precision clock synchronization can be achieved either by hardware or software clocks. The clocks may be Time-Of-Day (TOD) clocks using an oscillator that is consistent with Coordinated Universal Time or a software clock using other absolute time sources such as Internet time servers or a satellite radio clock. In this paper, however, our clock synchronization method is *relative* only, so does not rely on an external high-precision hardware timer.

Generally, the precision of network clock synchronization depends on two aspects: determining the one-way transmission delay of timestamp messages and the precision of a local clock. The well-known four-timestamp offset-calculation mechanism of the Network Time Protocol (NTP) is widely used by synchronization protocols to improve the accuracy of estimated one-way transmission delays. Networks using NTP-like synchronization mechanisms typically provide precision of the order of one millisecond [12]. In our work, the adopted timestamp mechanism is derived from NTP.

One of keys to achieving high-precision relative clock synchronization is the use of high accuracy local clocks because the goal of the synchronization is to correct local clocks accurately before they drift out of acceptable range. Unfortunately, Time-Of-Day clocks rely on potentially unstable crystal oscillators [9]. Compared with an oscillator, however, we note that a computer processor's Time Stamp Counter (TSC) register has several advantages for achieving high precision relative clock synchronization. The TSC register counts processor cycles and is normally used for measuring short time intervals. Its time resolution is much higher than an oscillator's. For example, for a processor running at a frequency of 800MHz, its TSC register can provide a time resolution of 1.25 nanoseconds. Also, the time required to read from a TSC register is far less than that of

reading from the computer's TOD clock. Finally, a computer's Central Processing Unit (CPU) frequency is usually more stable than that of the oscillator used to drive the TOD clock.

In this paper we present a high-precision relative clock synchronization protocol with a master-slave synchronization structure. The protocol is intended to support high-precision real-time calculations in Local-Area Networks, rather than the usual low-precision timestamping mechanism supported in Internet applications. Since we are interested in intra-network clock consistency, rather synchronizing clocks against an absolute time standard, the protocol does not require a high-precision time server whose precision has to be guaranteed by additional hardware clocks [3, 12]. The protocol is suitable for use with networks of processors that provide access to a TSC register. Thanks to the stability of the TSC register, the precision achieved by our protocol can be much greater than that of synchronization methods using Time-Of-Day functions, as we demonstrate by experiments performed under a simple synchronization structure.

2 TOD clock and TSC clock characterization

This section introduces the characteristics of both Time-Of-Day and Time Stamp Counter clocks, and compares the performance of timing measurement using a TOD clock and a TSC-based clock. Also the effects of clock skew are measured using TSC-based clocks.

Maintaining a TOD clock requires the computer to generate a clock-tick signal at a predetermined rate. The source of a computer's system timer is a basic uncompensated quartz crystal oscillator whose frequency is 14.31818 MHz. Dividing the basic frequency by 12 gives 1.19318 MHz (thus the period is 0.8381 microseconds), which is the clock frequency used by the computer's system timers [2].

The precision of a TOD clock is affected by not only the resolution of the computer's system timer but also the periodic timer interrupt. The Time-Of-Day function in general-purpose computers is commonly implemented using clock readings from an uncompensated quartz crystal oscillator and counter, which delivers a pulse train with a period ranging from 10 to 1 milliseconds. Each pulse causes a timer interrupt, which increments a software logical clock variable by a fixed value scaled in microseconds or nanoseconds. Therefore, the precision of a TOD clock may be greater than 0.8381 microseconds, even as much as 10 milliseconds for conventional Linux systems, which represent wall time as two 32-bit words in seconds and microseconds/nanoseconds from UTC midnight, 1st of January 1970, with no provision for leap seconds [13].

In this paper, a TSC-based clock is defined as a software clock based on a computer processor's TSC register. Many

Table 1. Test configuration

Hardware	Intel Pentium III 800MHz 256M/512M SDRAM Memory
Operating systems	Fedora 3/Linux kernel 2.6.12.1
Network adapter	Network adapter 3COM 3c59x Fast Ethernet Card
Ethernet switch	Baystack 303 Ethernet Switch

processors contain a timer that operates at the clock cycle level. The timer is a special register that gets incremented every single clock cycle. Although there is no uniform, platform-independent interface by which programmers can make use of these counters, it is easy to create a program interface for any specific machine with just a small amount of assembly code. The Time Stamp Counter is a cycle counter used in the P6 microarchitecture (the PentiumPro and its successors). It is a 64-bit unsigned number, which counts the number of cycles since the CPU was powered up or last reset. Although the CPU chip's frequency is affected by external factors, such as age and operating temperature, higher CPU speeds allow finer time resolution of this counter.

The current "time" of a TSC clock tt , relative to the CPU's last start-up or reset, can be calculated easily from the value of the TSC register T and the measured CPU frequency f_m as follows.

$$tt = \frac{T}{f_m} \quad (1)$$

The value of the TSC register can be read by an 'rdtsc' instruction. Unfortunately in non-real-time operating system, it is hard to measure the CPU's frequency exactly without an external high-precision timer, because of effects such as context switching, caching and branch predication. For example, the precision achieved by a coarse CPU frequency measurement may be as much as 1.0% [2]. Therefore, a (relative) TSC-based clock tt and an (absolute) TOD clock t may run at a different speeds.

The precision of a software clock is determined by at least two factors: the time cost of reading the hardware clock and the hardware clock's intrinsic frequency error. The time required to read a hardware clock can be affected by factors such as the scheduling characteristics of the operating system and the CPU's computational capabilities. The intrinsic frequency error of the hardware clock further deteriorates the precision of the derived software clock, and accumulated errors cause clock drift.

To inform our synchronization protocol, we need to understand the magnitude of these errors in the system configuration of interest. In the remainder of this section we present the results of experiments we conducted to measure how long it takes to read from hardware clocks and the effects of clock drift. Table 1 summarises the configurations

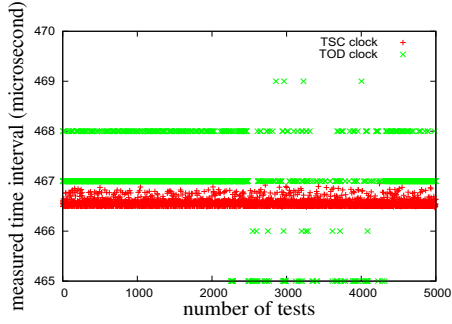


Figure 1. Comparison in timing measurement using a TOD clock and using a TSC register

of the machines used in all experiments in this paper.

2.1 Time cost of clock reading

As noted earlier, the overhead of reading a clock is one of the factors that affects the precision of timing measurements, particularly when the measurement interval is very small. For conventional Linux systems, the overhead commonly consists of two parts: the time cost of reading the hardware clock and context switching. It is known that the value of the Time Stamp Counter register can be read easily by executing an `rdtsc` instruction and its time cost is almost constant and comparatively small [10]. Therefore, to compare the performance of timing measurements using TSC registers and Time-Of-Day clocks in a conventional Linux system, we designed a simple experiment.

We wrote a program based on the assumption that the time cost of executing `nop` instruction repeatedly 50000 times is constant. To reduce the error caused by other tasks and variability in the tick interval (i.e., the separation of timer interrupts), only the testing program was executed during the experiment and the time difference between tests was set to 20 milliseconds, which is larger than the processor's tick interval of 10 ms. TSC-based and time-of-day clocks were used to measure the time interval respectively. The number of tests performed was 5000.

The scatterplot in Figure 1 shows that the fluctuation range of the measured time interval using a TSC register was much smaller than that using a TOD clock. That is, the time cost of reading a TSC register is more stable than that of reading a TOD clock in a conventional Linux system.

2.2 Measuring clock drift

All clocks inevitably drift from absolute time and from one another due to their intrinsic frequency error. Therefore, clock drift affects the precision of our relative clock

synchronization, so we also need to examine its impact on the TOD clock and the TSC register.

The oscillators used to implement TOD clocks usually have an intrinsic frequency error resulting in linear clock drift on the order of several parts per million (PPM) in the normal course of operation [9]. There are no explicit means to control crystal ambient temperature, power level, voltage regulation or mechanical stability. For instance, in a survey of about 20,000 Internet hosts synchronized by the Network Time Protocol, the median intrinsic frequency error was 78 PPM, with some hosts having as much as 500 PPM [13]. That is, when the intrinsic frequency error is 500 PPM, the absolute clock deviation may be as much as $500 \mu\text{s}$ per second. For relative clock synchronization, this means the time difference between two clocks caused by intrinsic frequency error may be as much as 1 ms.

The drift of a TSC register-based clock will be caused by errors in the measured CPU frequency. Because a modern microprocessor's CPU frequency is almost constant, we expect that TSC-based clock drift caused by intrinsic frequency error will be strictly linear.

To confirm this, we designed an experiment to measure the impact of clock drift on relative clock synchronization using TOD clocks or TSC registers separately. The time difference between two clocks in two computers was measured and used to determine the relative drift between the clocks. The computers were interconnected by Ethernet and a single switch. The hardware configurations are shown in Table 1. To avoid interference, the traffic load was generated by the experimental software only. Under these circumstances, the time required for one-way transmission is almost constant. At a predetermined interval (usually 100 ms), one machine sent UDP packets to the other machine continually. The length of packets at the MAC protocol layer is 64 bytes, which is the minimum in Ethernet configurations. Sending and receiving timestamps were recorded by the network interface card (NIC) driver for accuracy. Since Fedora 3 is not a real-time operating system, and cannot guarantee periodic tasking in the presence of multiple tasks, only the testing programs were run on the two machines.

The relative clock drift between two clocks on the communicating machines was measured as the time difference between receiving timestamp t_R and sending stamp t_S for each periodic message. Figure 2 shows that the time difference between two TOD clocks grows linearly, and its threshold behavior is obvious. Figure 3, which uses a finer scale, reveals that the time difference may jump by more than 1 ms during a short time (less than 0.2 s). The same experiment was then implemented using timestamps derived from TSC register readings. As shown in Figure 4, the TSC-based clock drifts smoothly with minimal threshold effects.

In summary, relative clock drift when using a TSC-based

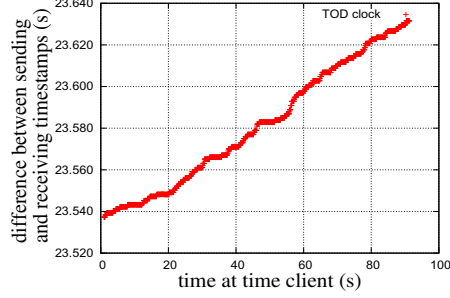


Figure 2. Relative Time-Of-Day clock drift during an interval of 90 seconds

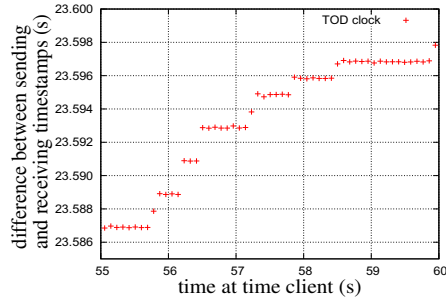


Figure 3. Relative Time-Of-Day clock drift in 5 seconds

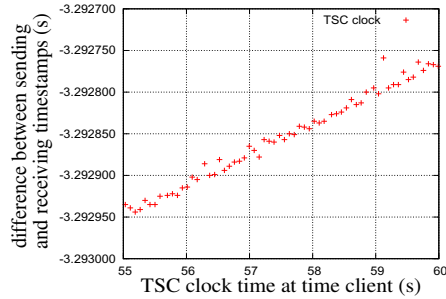


Figure 4. Relative Time Stamp Counter clock drift in 5 seconds

clock is more deterministic and predictable than when using a TOD clock. This is why a TSC-based clock is a better choice for a high precision timing measurement when the measurement interval is small.

3 High precision relative clock synchronization protocol

This section discusses the design and implementation of our relative clock synchronization protocol, based on the assumption that every computer processor in the synchronization structure is equipped with a Time Stamp Counter register. In this section, we assume that t_x is the absolute time, and T_x and tt_x are the ticks of the TSC register and the current time of a TSC-based clock, respectively, both relative to the CPU's last startup or reset.

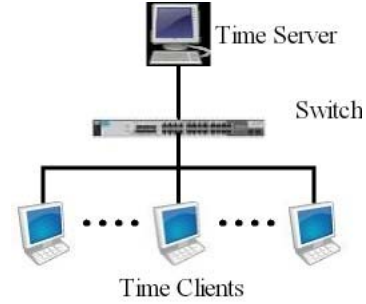


Figure 5. Assumed synchronization structure

3.1 Synchronization structure

We adopt a master-slave structure for the clock synchronization protocol. The distributed system consists of a set of nodes interconnected via an Ethernet switch, as shown in Figure 5. There are two kinds of nodes, a single master node (the time server) and several slave nodes (the time clients). All slave nodes are to be synchronized to the master node.

Normally in clock synchronization protocols it is required that root time servers are connected to a reliable external time source, such as a satellite radio clock or telephone network time server [12]. Unlike other clock synchronization protocols, however, our *relative* clock synchronization protocol does not require a high-precision hardware absolute time source accessible by the master node.

3.2 Synchronization model

The synchronization model is based on the usual four-timestamp mechanism of the Network Time Protocol as shown in Figure 6. This commonly-used mechanism measures the transmission delay between communicating nodes and uses this to estimate the offset between their respective clocks, in order to determine the error in the client node's

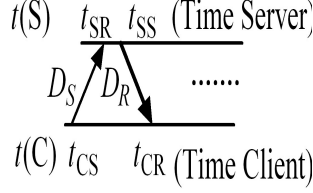


Figure 6. Synchronization model

clock with respect to the time server's clock. At predetermined intervals, a client sends a request to the time server and waits for a response. This exchange of messages results in four clock timestamps, t_{CS} at the first message's sending time, t_{SR} at its receiving time, t_{SS} at the second message's sending time, and t_{CR} at its receiving time. Timestamps t_{CS} and t_{CR} are read from the client node's clock and timestamps t_{SR} and t_{SS} are read from the server node's clock. The server's timestamps are sent to the client in the second message. The client then uses the four timestamps to calculate the clock offset and roundtrip message delay relative to the server. The client can then reset its own clock to compensate for any difference with the server's clock.

The timestamping mechanism is designed based on an assumption that the forward and backward communication delays are symmetric. The time difference t_d between the time $t(C)$ on the client and the time $t(S)$ on the time server can be computed as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} t_d &= t(C) - t(S) \\ &= \frac{(t_{CS} + t_{CR}) - (t_{SS} + t_{SR})}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(T_{CS} + T_{CR})}{f_C} - \frac{(T_{SS} + T_{SR})}{f_S} \right] \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

Here f_C and f_S are the CPU frequencies of the client and the server.

Similarly, using TSC-based software clocks the time difference tt_d between the time $tt(C)$ on the client and the time $tt(S)$ on the server can be computed as follows. This equation is the basis of our synchronization protocol.

$$\begin{aligned} tt_d &= tt(C) - tt(S) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(T_{CS} + T_{CR})}{f_{mC}} - \frac{(T_{SS} + T_{SR})}{f_{mS}} \right] \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

Here T_{CS} , T_{SR} , T_{SS} and T_{CR} are timestamps (the ticks of TSC registers) on the server and the client corresponding to t_{CS} , t_{SR} , t_{SS} and t_{CR} , and f_{mC} and f_{mS} are the *measured* values of the CPU frequencies of the client and the server, respectively.

Figure 7 shows the time difference t_d between $t(C)$ and $t(S)$ that are absolute time at the client and the server, and

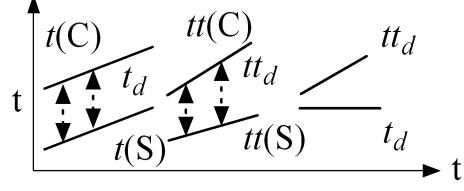


Figure 7. Time difference between time client and server provided by TOD and TSC clocks

the time difference tt_d between $tt(C)$ and $tt(S)$ that are the time of TSC-based clocks at the client and the server, respectively. We assume that there is no intrinsic frequency error in both clocks in the client and the server. So the *absolute* time difference t_d is flat using absolute time clocks. Unlike absolute time clocks, TSC-based clocks in the server and the client may run at different speeds, and the *relative* time difference tt_d between them increases with time. When measured clock frequency is equal to the real clock frequency, tt_d is equal to t_d . The error in measured CPU frequencies and its impact on the precision of relative clock synchronization will be discussed in Section 4.

3.3 Implementation

In this section we describe our prototype clock synchronization implementation, based on Time Stamp Counter time differences calculated as per Equation 3.

3.3.1 Operating system

The prototype protocol is currently implemented in a conventional Linux kernel, rather than a specialised real-time operating system. The kernel, therefore, guarantees no bounds on interrupt servicing latencies. The frequency of timer interrupts in conventional Linux is 100 Hz, i.e., the tick interval is 10 ms. Both transmission and reception of timestamp messages are interrupt-driven events. Variations in interrupt latencies produce errors in the delay estimates that the synchronization protocol uses to coordinate clocks. When the CPU is lightly loaded, the error in time measurements caused by variability in the tick interval is very small, even negligible. Therefore, with some care, the precision achieved for relative clock synchronization using conventional Linux for our experiments was considered satisfactory.

3.3.2 The TSC-based clock

To compute the time for a TSC-based clock, an `rdtsc` instruction is used to read the local TSC register and a kernel

module was developed for measuring the CPU frequency.

When booting up a Linux system an attempt is made to calibrate the CPU frequency by comparing it with the Programmable Interval Timer (PIT). The calibration result is in the format of TSC ticks per microsecond. This 50 ms calibration is coarse, with a precision of 100 parts per million because it is flawed by the I/O delays in accessing the PIT. The measured CPU frequency can be read from the file `/proc/cpuinfo`.

Using the same method, we programmed a CPU frequency test as a module that runs in the kernel. The module performs a 50 ms test repeatedly, 100 times. The fluctuation range of the measured CPU frequency during 100 tests is about 50 PPM. Although the program runs in kernel space and disables some interrupts, such as the speaker's, the expected 50 ms interval between two consecutive readings of the TSC register may be prolonged by enabled interrupts. Therefore, the maximum measured CPU frequency among 100 tests is close to the true CPU frequency, and is used as the measured CPU frequency f_m to compute the time of TSC clock tt .

0	16	31
Receiving Timestamp (64bit)		
Sending Timestamp (64bit)		
Time Difference (64bit)		
identifier 32bit	Reserved 32bit	

Figure 8. Synchronization message's format

3.3.3 Synchronization message's format

We send all synchronization messages via the UDP protocol under Linux, because this protocol is a better choice for real-time applications than the TCP protocol [1,5]. Figure 8 shows the synchronization message including two timestamps, a message identifier and information fields. Two timestamps are 64-bit words whose values are set using TSC register values. The message's identifier is used to match timestamps in the time server and time client, and detect packet loss. The time difference is computed in the client. The time server learns of the computed time difference via the time difference field received from the time client. Finally, the four 'reserved' bytes will be used to change the frequency of message transmission in terms of achieved precision of synchronization in future work.

3.3.4 Operating system modification

As a multi-tasking computing environment, conventional Linux provides two modes of background process, user space and kernel space. For accuracy, the synchronization protocol relies on simple kernel-space routines for the message timestamps.

Our program interfaces with the kernel through standard Linux system calls. The sending and receiving timestamps are recorded in the *NIC* driver, via an `rdtsc` instruction, and the timestamps are passed to the user space by an `IOCTL()` call. The entire modification is small, requiring only a few tens of lines of code. The timestamping mechanism can be implemented in Linux kernel 2.4 and 2.6.

4 Error analysis

As well as implementing the synchronization process, it is important that we understand the worst-case accuracy of the result. In this section we therefore analyze the potential errors in the time difference measurements that are used in the synchronization protocol.

As shown in Figure 6, D_S and D_R are the one-way transmission delay of the two synchronization messages. Let D_{S-R} denote D_S minus D_R . Then the absolute time difference between the client and server is related to the four timestamps of the message and one-way transmission delay of the messages as follows.

$$t_d = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(T_{CS} + T_{CR})}{f_C} - \frac{(T_{SS} + T_{SR})}{f_S} \right] + \frac{D_{S-R}}{2} \quad (4)$$

We assume that the errors in these measurements are Δf_{mC} and Δf_{mS} . Let Δf_X be CPU frequency f_X minus measured value of CPU frequency f_{mX} . Then the measured TSC-based time difference between the client and time server can be computed by the client using the following formula.

$$\begin{aligned} tt_{md} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(T_{CS} + T_{CR})}{f_{mC}} - \frac{(T_{SS} + T_{SR})}{f_{mS}} \right] \\ &= \left[\frac{\frac{\Delta f_C}{f_{mC}} - \frac{\Delta f_S}{f_{mS}}}{1 + \frac{\Delta f_C}{f_{mC}}} \right] \left(\frac{T_{CS}}{f_{mC}} + t_{mRRT} \right) + \frac{f_S}{f_{mS}} t_d - \frac{f_S}{f_{mS}} \left(\frac{D_{S-R}}{2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where the round trip time t_{mRRT} measured by the client is the difference between two time stamps using TSC register at the client ($T_{CR} - T_{CS}$), divided by measured CPU frequency of the client f_{mC} .

We observe that one term of the measured time difference,

$$\left[\frac{\Delta f_C/f_{mC} - \Delta f_S/f_{mS}}{1 + \Delta f_C/f_{mC}} \right] \left(\frac{T_{CS}}{f_{mC}} \right),$$

is time-varying if the CPU frequencies of the server and the client, and their measured values are constant. Therefore, the measured time difference is expected to be proportional to the time of TSC-based clock T_{CS}/f_{mC} at the client. The slope of the drift is

$$K = \frac{\Delta f_c/f_{mC} - \Delta f_s/f_{mS}}{1 + \Delta f_c/f_{mC}}.$$

It is clear that the drift results from the different speeds at which the two TSC-based clocks in the client and the server run. The difference between speeds is called clock skew [7]. When the measurement period is long enough, this non-zero slope can be estimated accurately by some clock frequency synchronization methods such as a skew estimation algorithm [7, 11, 16, 17]. For simplicity, linear regression is used for clock skew correction in this paper.

When the measured CPU frequency of the time client is corrected based on the estimated slope, the speeds of the two TSC-based clocks in the client and server are synchronized. We assume that the time of the two TSC-based clocks in the client and the server are $tt(C)$ and $tt(S)$. Figure 9 shows the process of clock skew correction. Two TSC-based clocks in the client and the server run at different speeds, so measured time difference tt_d drifts. Also the measured CPU frequency of the client is regulated using the estimated slope, so the time of the TSC-based clock in the client is changed from $tt(C)$ to $tt'(C)$ correspondingly, which is computed by the measured CPU frequency and the value of TSC register. After clock skew correction, the drift caused by the clock skew is eliminated and the measured time difference becomes constant from tt_d to tt'_d , as shown in Figure 9.

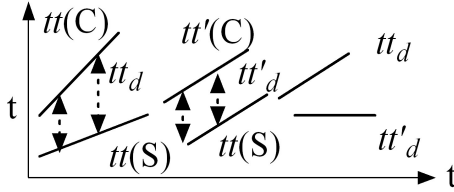


Figure 9. TSC clock of time client correction

A simple experiment was designed to verify the expected drift, and validate the clock skew correction. Similar to the experiment in Section 2.2, two machines were interconnected via Ethernet and a switch. At a predetermined interval (usually 100 ms) one machine transmits UDP packets to the other machine continuously, 5000 times. In terms of the timestamps mechanism, four timestamps were acquired by the TSC-based clock at the Network Interface Card driver for accuracy.

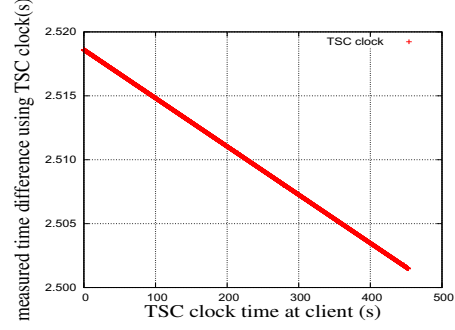


Figure 10. Measured time difference between time client and server using TSC clocks

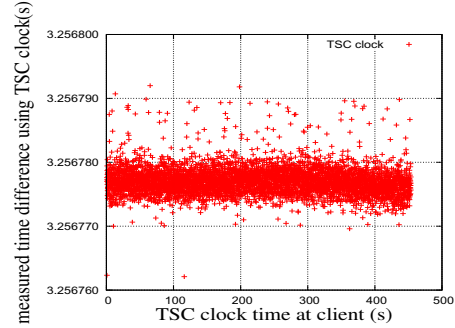


Figure 11. Measured time difference between time client and server using TSC clock after correction

Measured time difference tt_{md} is computed by four timestamps. The TSC-based clock at time client is set to zero when the experiment starts. Figure 10 shows the drift caused by the clock skew between the client and the server is linear as expected and Figure 11 indicates the drift caused by the clock skew is almost eliminated.

After the clock skew is corrected, the measured time difference tt_{md} between the time client and time server can be estimated by the following formula.

$$tt_{md} = \left[\frac{\frac{\Delta f_c}{f_{mC}} - \frac{\Delta f_s}{f_{mS}}}{1 + \frac{\Delta f_c}{f_{mC}}} \right] t_{mRRT} + \frac{f_s}{f_{mS}} t_d - \frac{f_s}{f_{mS}} \left(\frac{D_{S-R}}{2} \right) \quad (6)$$

The measured time difference tt_{md} can be used to estimate the absolute time difference t_d . Its accuracy, however, cannot be guaranteed, particularly when the absolute time difference t_d is very large. For example, assume that the error in the measured CPU frequency is 50 PPM, and the absolute time difference is 10000 s, then the error in the

measured time difference may be as much as 500 ms. Fortunately, the deviation of absolute time difference Δt_d can be estimated accurately by the deviation of measured time difference Δtt_{md} when the synchronization update interval is small enough. The error E_{TSC} between Δtt_{md} and Δt_d is measured as the precision of synchronization, and can be computed by the following formula.

$$\begin{aligned} E_{TSC} &= \Delta tt_{md} - \Delta t_d \\ &= \left[\frac{\frac{\Delta f_C}{f_{mC}} - \frac{\Delta f_S}{f_{mS}}}{1 + \frac{\Delta f_C}{f_{mC}}} \right] (\Delta t_{mRRT}) + \\ &\quad \frac{\Delta f_S}{f_{mS}} \Delta t_d - \frac{f_S}{f_{mS}} \left(\frac{\Delta D_{S-R}}{2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Because the measured CPU frequencies of the time client and server have been coordinated, the main source of error is asymmetric one-way transmission delays. This error E_{TSC} can be estimated as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} E_{TSC} &\approx -\frac{f_S}{f_{mS}} \left(\frac{\Delta D_{S-R}}{2} \right) \\ &\approx -\frac{\Delta D_{S-R}}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

By contrast, when the software clocks in the client and the server are TOD clocks, the precision of synchronization using a timestamp exchange mechanism is $-\frac{\Delta D_{S-R}}{2}$. The practical performance comparison of relative clock synchronization using TOD clocks versus TSC-based clocks is discussed in the next section.

5 Performance tests

In this section we summarise the results of several experiments conducted to assess the performance of our clock synchronization protocol.

5.1 Test set-up

The hardware configuration of the time client and server is shown in Table 1, and the structure of the computers used in the experiments was the same as the synchronization structure, as explained in Section 3.1. Beside the time client and server, one computer was used as a traffic generator, running Windows XP on an Intel Pentium 4 processor with a 2.0 GHz CPU and 1 GB DDRAM memory. To reduce interference from other software processes, most of the background processes and tasks were shut down during the experiments. The sending and receiving timestamps were recorded at the *NIC* driver via the modified Linux kernel. The software clocks on the time server and time clients were TSC register-based as defined in Section 2.

5.2 The precision of relative clock synchronization

The two main sources of synchronization error are asymmetric one-way transmission times and the intrinsic frequency errors of the CPUs, as per the error analysis in Section 4. In this section we analyze the precision achieved by relative clock synchronization under different traffic patterns.

Two experiments were designed to analyze the impact of two kinds of transmission delay on the precision of relative clock synchronization: delay in the network device (switch), and delay in the network interface cards (*NIC*). Delays in the *NIC* result from traffic jams when the *NIC* is sending or receiving too many packets. It is related to the processing capacity of the *NIC* and the operating system. Because the time server can easily modulate packet transmission by methods such as traffic smoothing [8], we only analyzed the delay in the *NIC* when the time server is receiving packets from the traffic generator.

The deviation E between two consecutive measured clock differences tt_{md} is defined as the precision of relative clock synchronization. In experiments, a time client and its time server were interconnected via an Ethernet switch. The traffic generator was used to simulate multiple time clients' environments, and different traffic patterns. The time client initiates synchronization requests and periodically sends a request message to its time server. Once the time server receives the request message, it responds with a message that contains two TSC timestamps. Because the timestamp information is caught at the *NIC*, not at the application layer, it has to wait for transmission until the next cycle. That is, the last two TSC timestamps in reply messages are recorded. Finally, the time difference is computed in the time client, and then transmitted to the time server if necessary.

In all experiments, the message interval was 100 ms, and the number of messages was 10000. Because the round trip time of a message in a LAN is normally less than 100 ms and the traffic stream caused by the designed protocol is almost negligible (less than 1 kbps), this message interval is practical in a LAN. Because some time clients may need to synchronize with the time server at the same time, the traffic generator sent multiple requests to the time server to simulate multiple time clients' environments during the experiments. The traffic load was about 33 Kbps.

In the first experiment, the deviation E between two consecutive measured time differences was measured when the switch is under traffic load (9.8 Mbps) and no traffic load. Their confidence limits under different confidence intervals are shown in Table 2. The precision of relative clock synchronization is about 10 μ s with an above 95% confidence interval whether the switch is under traffic load or not.

The second experiment measured the synchronization

Table 3. Precision achieved when the time server is under different traffic loads

Traffic load	Packet loss	CL	± 10 us	± 20 us	± 50 us
117 kbps	0	CI	94.76%	97.00%	97.30%
286 kbps	0	CI	91.15%	94.78%	95.10%
523 kbps	0	CI	81.53%	83.61%	84.47%
1.1 Mbps	0	CI	69.52%	71.46%	72.86%
2.3 Mbps	0	CI	44.97%	46.39%	47.65%
9.8 Mbps	1.16%	CI	0.66%	1.62%	4.01%

CL: Confidence limit CI: Confidence interval

Table 2. Precision achieved when the switch is under different traffic loads

Traffic load	CL	± 10 us	± 20 us	± 50 us
None	CI	97.54%	99.72%	99.86%
9.8 Mbps	CI	97.40%	99.76%	99.88%

CL: Confidence limit CI: Confidence interval

Table 4. Precision achieved using a TOD clock without traffic load

Confidence limit	± 10 us	± 20 us	± 50 us
Confidence interval	68.01%	84.70%	88.22%

precision when the time server was under different traffic loads. Table 3 indicates that the traffic jam at the NIC influences the precision of synchronization badly, and even causes synchronization message losses. The experimental results reveal that the synchronization precision can be guaranteed statistically when the speed of receiving packets in the time server is restricted to low enough. It is not hard to implement the necessary traffic restriction on the switch's port.

5.3 Synchronization using TOD clocks

The characteristics of a software clock implemented using a Time-Of-Day function were analyzed in Section 2. Similar to the first experiment in Section 5.2, an experiment was implemented to measure the precision of relative clock synchronization using a TOD clock. No traffic load was generated other than synchronization messages. The synchronization request interval was 100 ms, and the number of messages was 10000. The difference E_{TOD} between two consecutive measured time differences t_{md} was measured as the synchronization precision. Table 4 shows that the confidence of the synchronization precision is much worse than the precision achieved by using a TSC-based clock as per Table 2.

Table 5. Precision achieved by the NTP protocol

	CL	± 10 us	± 20 us	± 50 us
Computer A	CI	69.72%	91.96%	98.66%
Computer B	CI	64.28%	88.94%	96.26%

CL: Confidence limit CI: Confidence interval

As the most widely used clock synchronization protocol, NTP software uses the TOD function to access the time, and piggybacked timestamps to achieve absolute synchronization with respect to a time server. To deal with the clock drift caused by intrinsic frequency errors, the hybrid kernel Phase-Locked Loop/Frequency-Locked Loop (PLL/FLL) was designed by David Mills for the NTP project [13]. At the specified time interval (between 64 s and 1024 s), the NTP program updates the time client relative to the time server.

A simple experiment was designed to test the precision of synchronization achieved by the NTP. The timer server and experiment machines are in the same LAN. The NTP program ran continuously on two computers (A and B) whose hardware configuration is shown in Table 1. The clock update by the NTP program was performed 5000 times. The time adjustment by the NTP program at each computer was recorded during the experiment. As shown in Table 5, it is clear that the confidence of the synchronization precision achieved by the NTP program was much lower than that achieved by our method using TSC registers.

6 Conclusion and future work

To support time-critical computations in Local-Area Networks, we have presented a high-precision relative clock synchronization protocol built using the Intel Pentium processor's Time Stamp Counter register, rather than the Time-Of-Day clock usually used for this purpose. It was shown that a high precision of (relative) clock synchronization could be achieved using TSC registers, significantly outperforming the (absolute) synchronization possible under the

widely-used Network Time Protocol. This outcome offers a low cost time synchronization solution rather than using expensive customised hardware, such as a satellite radio receiver, while still providing high accuracy.

The precision of a local clock is influenced by the intrinsic frequency error of the hardware oscillator used, which may cause non-deterministic clock drift [9]. Although previous work has compensated for this problem as far as possible [13], a TOD clock is hard to use for high precision (sub-millisecond) timing measurements. Compared with a TOD clock, a clock derived from a Time Stamp Counter register is more stable and easier to read. Our experiments showed that for relative clock synchronization, the degree of confidence of the precision achieved using a TSC-based clock is much higher than that using traditional TOD clocks.

In future work, our method will be evaluated and improved in complex network architectures, because the symmetric delay assumed in this paper may not hold under large-scale network architectures with time-varying traffic load. The synchronization implementation will be packaged as a library routine, and may be integrated into one of the Linux-based operating systems.

Acknowledgement This work was supported in part by the Australian Research Council under Linkage Projects grant number LP0776344 to C. Fidge, by the Australian Government's Department of Education, Science and Training under International Science Linkages Scheme grant number CH070083 to Y.-C. Tian, and by the Natural Science Foundation of China under grant number 60774060 to Y.-C. Tian.

Thanks to the anonymous ICECCS 2008 reviewers for their helpful suggestions about future work.

References

- [1] P. Blum and L. Thiele. Clock synchronization using packet streams. In *Proc. of 16th International Symposium on Distributed Computing 2002*, pages 1–8, Toulouse, France, June 2002.
- [2] R. E. Bryant and D. R. O'Hallaron. *Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective*. Prentice Hall, 2003.
- [3] K. Correll, N. Barendt, and M. S. Branicky. Design considerations for software-only implementations of the IEEE 1588 precision time protocol. In *Proc. Conference on IEEE-1588 Standard for a Precision Clock Synchronization Protocol for Networked Measurement and Control Systems*, Winterthur, Switzerland, October 10-12 2005.
- [4] J.-D. Decotignie. Ethernet-based real-time and industrial communications. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Special Issue on Industrial Communication Systems*, volume 93, pages 1102–1117, 2005.
- [5] L. Fu and G. Dai. Delay characteristics and synchronization architecture of networked control system. In *1st International Symposium on Systems and Control in Aerospace and Astronautics ISSCAA 2006*, pages 1056–1060, Harbin, China, Jan 2006.
- [6] M. Hashimoto, H. Hashizume, and Y. Katoh. Design of dynamics for synchronization based control of human-robot interaction. In *Proceedings of the 2006 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Biomimetics ROBIO'06*, pages 790–795, Kunming, China, December 17 - 20 2006.
- [7] J.-C. G. Hechmi Khelifi. Estimation and removal of clock skew from delay measures. In *Proceedings of the 29th Annual IEEE International Conference on Local Computer Networks*, pages 144 – 151, New York, USA, Nov 2004.
- [8] H. Jin, M.-H. Zhang, and P.-L. Tan. Clock synchronization integrated with traffic smoothing technique for distributed hard real-time systems. In *Sixth International Conference on Computer and Information Technology (CIT 2006)*, page 176, Seoul, Korea, Sept 2006.
- [9] Johannessen.S. Time synchronization in a local area network. *Control Systems Magazine*, 2:61–69, April. 25-28 2004.
- [10] W.-W. Li, D.-F. Zhang, G.-G. Xie, and J.-M. Yang. A high precision approach of network delay measurement based on general pc. *Journal of Software*, 1.17(2):275–284, Feb 2006.
- [11] Z. L. Li Zhang and C. H. Xia. Clock synchronization algorithms for network measurements. In *Proceedings of IEEE INFOCOM '02*, volume 1, pages 160 – 169, New York, USA, June 2002.
- [12] D. L. Mills. Network time protocol (version 3) specification, implementation and analysis. Network working group report rfc-1305, University of Delaware, March 1992.
- [13] D. L. Mills. The network computer as precision timekeeper. pages 96–108, Dec 1996.
- [14] M.-Y. Ma, L. Hu, J.-D. Wu, X.-N. He, and H. Ma. Synchronization analysis on converters with distributed control. In *IECON 2006 - 32nd Annual Conference on IEEE Industrial Electronics*, pages 2232–2237, Nov 2006.
- [15] P. Marti, R. Vill, J. M. Fuertes, and G. Fohler. *Networked Control Systems Overview*, volume 1, pages 1–16. CRC Press, South San Francisco, California, USA, 2005.
- [16] M. S. Omer Gurewitz, Israel Cidon. Network clock frequency synchronization. In *Proceedings of INFOCOM 2006. 25th IEEE International Conference on Computer Communications*, pages 1–9, New York, USA, April 2006.
- [17] D. T. Sue B. Moon, Paul Skelly. Estimation and removal of clock skew from network delay measurements. In *Proceedings of IEEE INFOCOM '99*, pages 227 – 234, New York, USA, 1999.