# Robotics Time sensors

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http://robot.unipv.it/toolleeo

#### Time sensors

**time** is a fundamental parameter, which must be accounted in almost every application

the measurement of time is done in a computing system for several purposes:

- to associate a timestamp to an event
- to execute an operation at a given time instant
- to determine the duration of an event
- to keep the time ordering of a sequence of events

the time sensor is based on the so-called clock

#### Definition of second

in the 13rd conference on weights and measures (1967), the second has been defined as

the duration of 9.192.631.770 periods of the radiation corresponding to the transition between the two hyperfine levels of the ground state of the caesium 133 atom

in 1997 the definition has been made more accurate by stating that

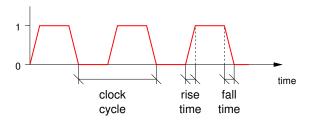
refers to a caesium atom at rest at a temperature of  $0\ K$ 

#### The oscillator

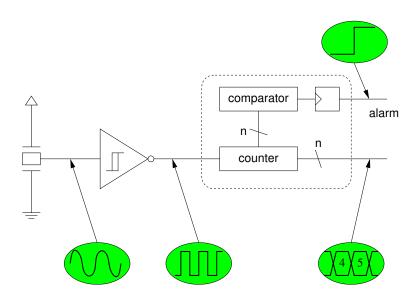
in electronics, the time is measured by counting the number of state changes of an oscillator having known frequency



a typical clock signal has the following features:

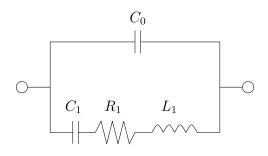


# Circuit that generates the clock



#### Quartz oscillators

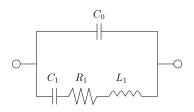
a quartz oscillator has the following equivalent circuit:



its impedence is

$$Z(s) = \left(\frac{1}{sC_1} + sL_1 + R_1\right) \| \left(\frac{1}{sC_0}\right)$$

# Equivalent circuit



- $R_1$ ,  $C_1$  and  $L_1$  depend from the characteristics of the crystal
- $C_0$  is the capacity formed by the two faces of the crystal where probes are applied (usually  $C_0 \gg C_1$ )
- the oscillator is characterized by two resonance frequencies, namely the series  $(\omega_s)$  and parallel  $(\omega_p)$  frequency

$$\omega_s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{L_1 C_1}} \qquad \omega_p = \sqrt{\frac{C_1 + C_0}{L_1 C_1 C_0}}$$

# Types of oscillators

#### **ATCXO**: analog temperature controlled c.o.

- the profile of variation of the frequency as a function of the temperature is measured
- a compensation table is implemented in silicon into the component

# **OCVCXO**: oven-controlled temperature compensated c.o.

- the crystal is located within a temperature-compensated room
- the room is insulated and thermo-resistors are used to maintain the desired temperature
- very good performance, but required extra input power

# **VCTCXO**: voltage controlled voltage-controlled c.o.

- the frequency is stabilized by controlling the supply voltage of the crystal
- the voltage can also (but by a limited extent) compensate the effect of the temperature

# Types of oscillators

**ATCXO** analog temperature controlled c.o. (crystal oscillator)

CDXO calibrated dual c.o.

MCXO microcomputer-compensated c.o.

**OCVCXO** oven-controlled voltage-controlled c.o.

OCXO oven-controlled c.o. RbXO rubidium c.o. (RbXO)

TCVCXO temperature-compensated voltage-controlled c.o.

TCXO temperature-compensated c.o.

TSXO temperature-sensing c.o., an adaptation of the TCXO

**VCTCXO** voltage controlled temperature compensated c.o.

VCXO voltage-controlled c.o.

DTCXO digital temperature compensated c.o.

#### Characteristics of oscillators

	TCXO	MCXO	OCXO	RbXO	caesium
Aging/year	$5 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$2 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$5 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$2 \cdot 10^{-10}$	0
Size (cm <sup>2</sup> )	10	50	20-200	1200	6000
Warmup	0.1	0.1	4	3	20
time (min.)	$1\cdot 10^{-6}$	$2 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$1 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$5 \cdot 10^{-10}$	$2 \cdot 10^{-11}$
Power (W)	0.05	0.04	0.6	0.65	30
Price ( $\sim$ \$)	100	1000	2000	10000	40000

- aging may be confused with the drift
- more precisely:
  - the aging is a parameter of an oscillator
  - the drift depends on the application, being affected by the aging and other factors

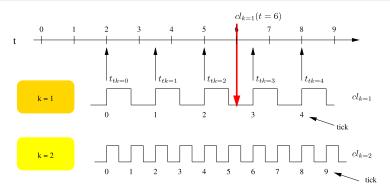
#### The clock drift

in many applications (e.g., distributed systems) it is mandatory for the involved machines to share the same value of the time due to the limited accuracy of oscillators, in few time the clock generated by the oscillators tends to drift from the "true" time

#### this is the so-called clock drift

- oscillators having different characteristics have different drifts as well
- oscillators having similar characteristics have slightly different drifts anyway
- the temperature plays an important role in the clock drift

#### True time and local clocks



- t is the true time
- cl<sub>k</sub> is the physical local clock of the device k
- $cl_k(t)$  indicates the value of  $cl_k$  at time t
- $t_{tk}$  is the true time value associated to the tk-th system tick (tk = 0, 1, 2, ...)

#### The clock drift

the clock granularity g is defined as

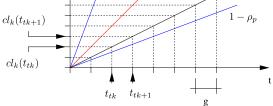
$$t_{tk+1} - t_{tk} = g$$

to be of any practical use, a clock must have a bounded drift; i.e., a value  $\rho_{p}$  must exist such as

$$0 \leq 1 - \rho_{p} \leq \frac{cl_{k}(t_{tk+1}) - cl_{k}(t_{tk})}{g} \leq 1 + \rho_{p}$$

#### The clock drift

$$0 \le 1 - \rho_p \le \frac{cl_k(t_{tk+1}) - cl_k(t_{tk})}{g} \le 1 + \rho_p$$



#### Clock synchronization

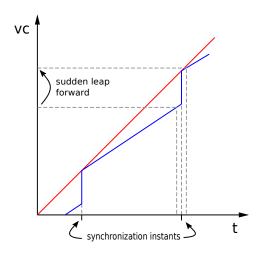
# global clock (virtual clock)

it is the global vision of the time as shared by all the machines composing the distributed system

- in the initial condition, the virtual clock vck of each node k is close to a global value
- since the clocks constantly drift away, they must be periodically synchronized

### Instantaneous synchronization

the virtual clock of one machine is periodically re-set to be close to a reference clock

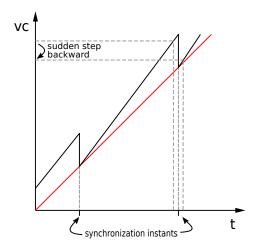


**PROBLEM**: there are discontinuities in the function that describes the virtual clock

- the sudden leap forward may lead to a deadline violation
- the sudden step backward may lead to wrong ordering of events

### Instantaneous synchronization

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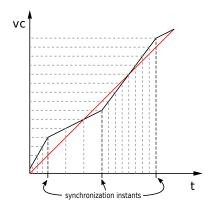


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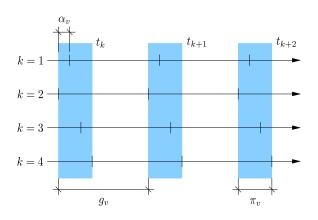
# Continuous synchronization

there is a periodic update of the mapping between the virtual clock and the associated physical clock durations



the logical duration of one tick or the virtual clock changes between different synchronization instants

# Clock synchronization



•  $g_v$ : granularity •  $\alpha_v$ : accuracy

•  $\pi_{v}$  : precision

# Parameters and properties

the convergence  $\delta_v$  indicates how much the virtual clocks of 2 machines k and l are close each other just after the synchronization event tk = sync:

$$|t(vc_k^{tk=sync}) - t(vc_l^{tk=sync})| \le \delta_v$$

the precision  $\pi_{\nu}$  indicates how much two clocks are close each others at any time instant:

$$\forall tk \geq 0 : |t(vc_k^{tk}) - t(vc_l^{tk})| \leq \pi_v$$

- the precision can not be better than the convergence
- it depends from the drift of local clocks
- it is user-defined: can be balanced with the overhead due to the necessary synchronizations

### Parameters and properties

the drift rate  $\rho_v$  indicates the instantaneous drift occurring at two consecutive ticks, i.e., for  $0 \le t_{tk} \le t_{tk+1}$ 

$$0 \leq 1 - \rho_{v} \leq \frac{vc_{k}(t_{tk+1}) - vc_{k}(t_{tk})}{g} \leq 1 + \rho_{v}$$

the envelope rate  $ho_{lpha}$  indicates the long-period drift, i.e., for  $t \geq 0$ 

$$0 \le 1 - \rho_{\alpha} \le \frac{vc_k(t) - vc_k(0)}{t} \le 1 + \rho_{\alpha}$$

the accuracy  $\alpha_v$  indicates how much a virtual clock is close to an external reference of true time, i.e., for  $\forall tk$ 

$$|t(vc_k^{tk})-t_{tk}|\leq \alpha_v$$

# Accuracy and external synchronization

- the concept of accuracy makes sense when one or more machines need to be synchronized with an external clock source
- the use of the GPS is an effective technique for centralized synchronization ( $\alpha_{\rm g} \leq 100$  ns)
- the GPS is a typical example of external clock source to which a machine may wish to be synchronized

# PROBLEM the GPS signal is not available everywhere

# Centralized synchronization

- a master node periodically sends a synchronization message to all client nodes
- the message contains a timestamp of the master clock
- all nodes get synchronized with the master clock

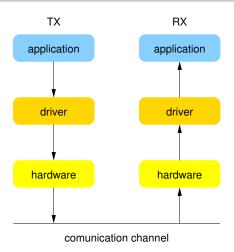
# time critical path

time is required for the following operations:

- acquisition of the timestamp by the server
- send the message containing the timestamp
- reception of the message by the client
- application of the clock synchronization algorithm

# Time-stamping

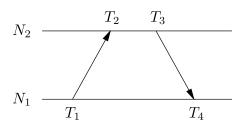
association of a timing information (timestamp) to an event



#### Network Time Protocol

- the Network Time Protocol (NTP) is the most common method to synchronize the clocks of several machines (computers) connected to a network (Internet or LAN)
- it has a layered client-server organization
- it is based on the exchange of UDP message between the client who requests the synchronization information, and the server who provides such information
- it achieves an accuracy of around 10 ms for computers connected to the Internet, and up to  $200\mu s$  if connected to a LAN

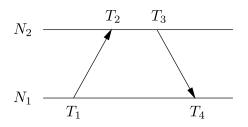
#### NTP and clock correction



- client  $N_1$  sends a message containing the timestamp  $T_1$
- ② server  $N_2$  receives the message and timestamps it with  $T_2$
- ullet after the processing,  $N_2$  replies with a message containing all the timestamps, plus  $T_3$ , i.e. the timestamp associated to the outgoing reply
- $lacktriangledown N_1$  receives the message, and timestamps it with  $T_4$

at this point,  $N_1$  knows all the four timestamps  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $T_3$  and  $T_4$ 

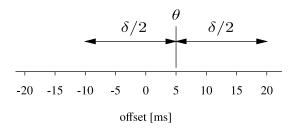
#### NTP and clock correction



the following values can be calculated:

round-trip delay 
$$\delta = (T_2 - T_1) - (T_3 - T_4)$$
 offset 
$$\theta = \frac{(T_2 - T_1) + (T_3 - T_4)}{2}$$

#### NTP and clock correction

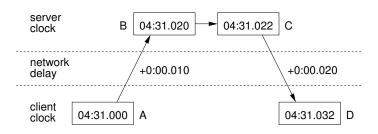


- the clock of the client has offset 0
- it can be proved that for the exact correction  $\theta_0$  it holds

$$\theta - \frac{\delta}{2} \le \theta_0 \le \theta + \frac{\delta}{2}$$

 the offset is instead the correction that most probably approximates the best correction with the available information

### NTP and clock correction: example



- in the example,  $\delta = 0.03$ s and  $\theta = 0.005$ s
- it holds that  $-0.01 \le \theta_0 \le 0.02$ , i.e.,  $0.005 0.03/2 \le \theta_0 \le 0.005 + 0.03/2$
- without additional information, the NTP applies the correction of 0.005s
- to obtain the exact correction, the correction should have been equal to  $\theta_0=0.01\mathrm{s}$

#### Correction interval of the NTP

- let x be the true time interval between the departure of the message A and its arrival B (network delay)
- if  $\theta_0$  is the real delay of B relative to A, it holds that  $x + \theta_0 = T_2 T_1$
- since x > 0, it holds  $x = (T_2 T_1) \theta_0 \ge 0$ , i.e.,  $\theta_0 \le (T_2 T_1)$
- similarly, if y is the true time interval between the departure of the message C and its arrival D,  $\theta_0$  is the exact offset of D relative to C, it holds  $y \theta_0 = T_4 T_3$
- since y > 0, it holds  $y = \theta_0 + (T_4 T_3) \ge 0$ , i.e.,  $\theta_0 \ge (T_3 T_4)$
- it is obtained  $(T_3 T_4) \le \theta_0 \le (T_2 T_1)$

#### Correction interval of the NTP

now, it is necessary to prove that

$$(T_3 - T_4) \le \theta_0 \le (T_2 - T_1) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \theta - \frac{\delta}{2} \le \theta_0 \le \theta + \frac{\delta}{2}$$

which is done considering the following rewriting of previous equations:

$$T_3 - T_4 = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{2} + \frac{T_3 - T_4}{2} - \left(\frac{T_2 - T_1}{2} - \frac{T_3 - T_4}{2}\right) = \theta - \frac{\delta}{2}$$

$$T_2 - T_1 = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{2} + \frac{T_3 - T_4}{2} + \left(\frac{T_2 - T_1}{2} - \frac{T_3 - T_4}{2}\right) = \theta + \frac{\delta}{2}$$