

# Fast Computation of Maximum Time Interval Error by Binary Decomposition

Stefano Bregni, *Senior Member, IEEE*, and Stefano Maccabruni

**Abstract**—Maximum time interval error (MTIE) is historically one of the main time-domain quantities for the specification of clock stability requirements in telecommunications standards. Nevertheless, plain computation of the MTIE standard estimator proves cumbersome in most cases of practical interest, due to its heavy computational weight. In this paper, MTIE is first introduced according to its standard definition. Then, a fast algorithm based on binary decomposition to compute the MTIE standard estimator is described. The computational weight of the binary decomposition algorithm is compared to that of the estimator plain calculation, showing that the number of operations needed is reduced to a term proportional to  $N \log_2 N$  instead of  $N^2$ . A heavy computational saving is therefore achieved, thus making feasible MTIE evaluation based on even long sequences of time error (TE) samples.

**Index Terms**—Clocks, digital communication, jitter, SONET, synchronization, synchronous digital hierarchy, time domain measurements.

## I. INTRODUCTION

A major topic of discussion in standard bodies dealing with network synchronization [1]–[4] is clock noise characterization and measurement. Among the quantities considered in international standards for specification of phase and frequency stability requirements, the maximum time interval error (MTIE) has played historically a major role for characterizing time and frequency performance in digital telecommunications networks [5]–[12]. Specifications in terms of MTIE are well suited to support the design of equipment buffer size.

In this paper, MTIE is first introduced according to its formal definition. Then, the main issue of its experimental measurement is pointed out: the heavy computational weight in most cases of practical interest, due to the number of operations nested in the direct, plain calculation of the MTIE standard estimator. Therefore, a fast algorithm to compute the MTIE standard estimator is described, thus making feasible MTIE evaluation based on even long sequences of Time Error (TE) samples. Finally, the computational weight of this fast algorithm is compared to that of the estimator plain calculation.

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## II. DEFINITION OF MTIE

A thorough treatment of MTIE and of its properties can be found in [13]. A further specific analysis is reported in [14]. Here, solely the main definitions are summarized for the sake of understanding and to provide the reader with the background concepts.

A general expression describing a pseudo-periodic waveform which models the timing signal  $s(t)$  at the clock output is given by [15]–[18]

$$s(t) = A \sin \Phi(t) \quad (1)$$

where  $A$  is the peak amplitude and  $\Phi(t)$  is the *total instantaneous phase*, expressing the ideal linear phase increasing with  $t$  and any frequency drift or random phase fluctuation.

The generated *Time* function  $T(t)$  of a clock is defined, in terms of its total instantaneous phase, as

$$T(t) = \frac{\Phi(t)}{2\pi\nu_{\text{nom}}} \quad (2)$$

where  $\nu_{\text{nom}}$  represents the oscillator nominal frequency. It is worthwhile noticing that for an ideal clock  $T_{\text{id}}(t) = t$  holds, as expected. For a given clock, the time error function  $\text{TE}(t)$  [in standards also called  $x(t)$ ] between its time  $T(t)$  and a reference time  $T_{\text{ref}}(t)$  is defined as

$$x(t) \equiv \text{TE}(t) = T(t) - T_{\text{ref}}(t). \quad (3)$$

The *Maximum Time Interval Error* function (MTIE)  $(\tau, T)$  is the maximum peak-to-peak variation of TE in all the possible observation intervals  $\tau$  (in former standards [5] and [6], denoted as  $S$ ) within a measurement period  $T$  (see Fig. 1) and is defined as

$$\text{MTIE}(\tau, T) = \max_{0 \leq t_0 \leq T-\tau} \left\{ \max_{t_0 \leq t \leq t_0+\tau} [\text{TE}(t)] - \min_{t_0 \leq t \leq t_0+\tau} [\text{TE}(t)] \right\}. \quad (4)$$

It should be noted, however, that the standards in force specify the MTIE limits simply as a function of  $\tau$  (or  $S$ ), thus implicitly assuming

$$\text{MTIE}(\tau) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \text{MTIE}(\tau, T). \quad (5)$$

## III. MEASURING MTIE

MTIE measurement is usually based on the time-domain measurement of the TE process  $x(t)$  between the output of the clock under test (CUT) and a reference timing signal, which may be its input if the CUT is a slave clock (*synchronized clocks*

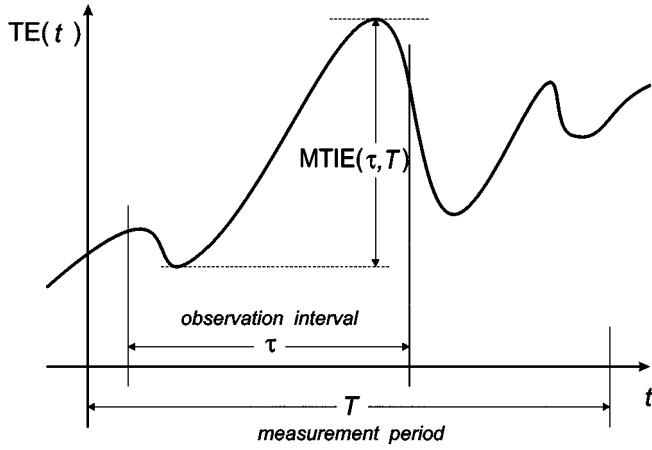


Fig. 1. Definition of  $MTIE(\tau, T)$ .

configuration), or the output of a second reference clock if the CUT is a free-running clock (*independent clocks configuration*) [7], [11]. Sequences of TE samples  $\{x_i\}$ , defined as

$$x_i = x(t_0 + (i - 1)\tau_0) \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (6)$$

where  $t_0$  is the initial observation time and  $\tau_0$  is the sampling period, are measured using digital counters and stored for numerical post-processing over a total measurement period  $T$  [12], [13]. The samples  $x_i$  are typically measured between two corresponding zero-crossings of the timing signals involved.

Starting from the sequence  $\{x_i\}$  of TE samples measured, the definition (4) may be applied directly to compute  $MTIE(\tau, T)$ . Letting  $N_T = T/\tau_0 + 1$  be the total number of available samples and  $N_\tau = \tau/\tau_0 + 1$  be the number of samples available in a window (observation interval) of span  $\tau$ , for *each* single value  $MTIE(\tau, T)$  the following expression has to be computed:

$$MTIE(\tau, T) = \max_{j=1}^{N_T - N_\tau + 1} \left[ \max_{i=j}^{N_\tau + j - 1} (x_i) - \min_{i=j}^{N_\tau + j - 1} (x_i) \right]. \quad (7)$$

The above is the MTIE standard estimator recommended in [7], [11].

MTIE masks currently specified in standards span over a wide range of  $\tau$ : four decades, namely, from  $10^{-1}$  s up to  $10^3$  s. For a long time this range was even wider, from a few milliseconds up to  $10^5$  s. Furthermore, more specific studies may require investigation over different wide ranges.

As pointed out in [13], the number of samples  $N_T$  to process gets easily to the order of  $10^5$  in most cases of practical interest, if we are interested in a somehow accurate characterization of the clock noise. It obviously appears that the plain computation of the estimator (7) is unadvisable and quickly tends to be unmanageable, due to the number of operations nested in evaluation loops. Hence it comes the need of contriving a suitable algorithm effective in cutting down the computational weight of a plain implementation of the estimator (7).

#### IV. MTIE COMPUTATION BY BINARY DECOMPOSITION

The fast algorithm proposed in this paper is based on a binary decomposition of a TE sequence  $\{x_i\}$  made of  $N_T = 2^{k_{MAX}}$  samples in nested windows made of  $N_\tau = 2^k$  samples ( $k =$

$1, 2, 3, \dots, k_{MAX}$ ). MTIE can be then evaluated recursively for each window size  $2^k$ .

As the first step ( $k = 1$ ), all the possible 2-points windows ( $\tau = \tau_0$ ) are analyzed in the TE sequence: for each of them, the maximum and minimum values are stored. Their difference is the  $MTIE(\tau_0)$  measured in that window, and the maximum of the MTIE values of all the 2-points windows is the resulting  $MTIE(\tau_0, T)$  of the whole sequence. At this first step, there is no computational saving yet compared to the plain computation of the standard estimator.

Then, as second step ( $k = 2$ ), all the possible 4-points windows ( $\tau = 3\tau_0$ ) are considered. The maximum and minimum values of each of these windows can be obtained by comparing the maximum and minimum values of the two 2-points windows in which the 4-points window can be split. The difference between the maximum of the two maxima and the minimum of the two minima is the  $MTIE(3\tau_0)$  measured in that 4-point window. The maximum of the MTIE values of all the 4-points windows is the resulting  $MTIE(3\tau_0, T)$  of the whole sequence.

The next step ( $k = 3$ ) is to consider all the possible 8-points windows ( $\tau = 7\tau_0$ ), split in two 4-points windows. Then so on for increasing integer values of  $k$ . The computational saving of this algorithm, compared to the plain computation of the standard estimator, lies in avoiding the comparison of all the samples in the windows of size larger than 2. The price to pay is that we have to limit the evaluation of  $MTIE(\tau, T)$  just to the  $\log_2 N_T$  values corresponding to the windows made of  $N_\tau = 2^k$  samples (this corresponds to a bit more than three MTIE values per decade on the  $\tau$  axis, which may be considered sufficient in most practical applications).

More formally, starting from the TE sequence vector  $\mathbf{x}$  made of  $N_T = 2^{k_{MAX}}$  TE samples  $x_i$ , two matrices  $\mathbf{A}_M$  and  $\mathbf{A}_m$  are built. Matrices are made of  $N_T - 1$  columns (indexed by  $i$ ) and  $\log_2 N_T$  rows, indexed by  $k$ . The first  $N_T - 2^k + 1$  elements of each  $k$ th row of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}_M$  contain the maximum values of all the possible  $2^k$ -points windows sliding from left to right along the TE sequence  $\{x_i\}$ . The matrix  $\mathbf{A}_m$  contains, in an analogous fashion, the corresponding minimum values of the  $2^k$ -points windows. Therefore, the set of all the possible  $2^k$ -points windows in the whole TE sequence is completely described by the couple of vectors

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}_{M/k} &= \{a_{M/k, i}\} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N_T - 2^k + 1 \\ \mathbf{a}_{m/k} &= \{a_{m/k, i}\} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where  $\mathbf{a}_{M/k}$  and  $\mathbf{a}_{m/k}$  are the  $k$ th rows taken from the matrices  $\mathbf{A}_M$  and  $\mathbf{A}_m$ , respectively.

The first row ( $k = 1$ ) of matrices  $\mathbf{A}_M$  and  $\mathbf{A}_m$  is obtained directly by the TE sequence vector  $\mathbf{x}$  as

$$\begin{aligned} a_{M/1, i} &= \max(x_i, x_{i+1}) \\ a_{m/1, i} &= \min(x_i, x_{i+1}) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N_T - 1$ . The next rows ( $k > 1$ ), instead, are obtained recursively as

$$\begin{aligned} a_{M/k, i} &= \max(a_{k-1, i}, a_{k-1, i+p}) \\ a_{m/k, i} &= \min(a_{k-1, i}, a_{k-1, i+p}) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where  $p = 2^{k-1}$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N_T - 2^k + 1$ .

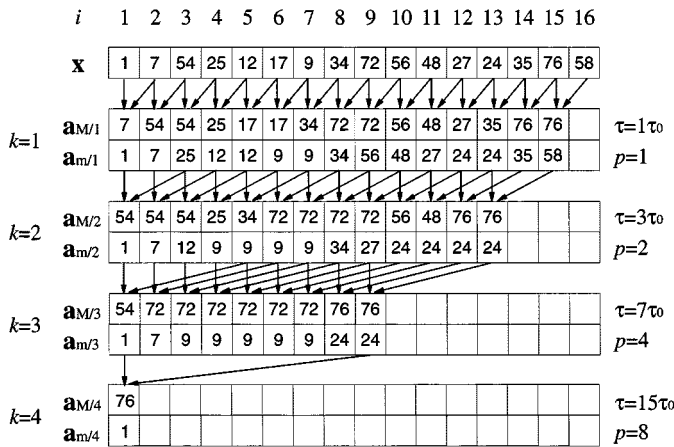


Fig. 2. Example of execution of the binary decomposition algorithm ( $N_T = 16$ ).

Finally, the value  $\text{MTIE}(\tau, T)$  for  $\tau = (N_\tau - 1)\tau_0$  and  $N_\tau = 2^k$  (here denoted as  $\text{MTIE}_k$  for the sake of brevity) can be evaluated from the  $k$ th rows of the matrices  $\mathbf{A}_M$  and  $\mathbf{A}_m$  as

$$\text{MTIE}_k = \max_{i=1, \dots, N_\tau - 2^k + 1} (a_{M/k, i} - a_{m/k, i}). \quad (11)$$

An example of the binary decomposition tree, applied on a TE sequence  $\{x_i\}$  made of  $N_T = 16$  samples ( $k_{\text{MAX}} = 4$ ), is shown in Fig. 2, which depicts the four couples of vectors  $\mathbf{a}_{M/k}$  and  $\mathbf{a}_{m/k}$  (for  $k = 1, 2, 3, 4$ ) built recursively starting from the TE vector  $\mathbf{x}$ .

## V. COMPUTATIONAL SAVING

The number of operations involved in the estimator plain computation and in the binary decomposition algorithm has been evaluated, in order to assess the resulting computational saving.

### A. Plain Computation of the Estimator

As far as a plain computation of the estimator (7) is concerned, three nested loops can be identified:

- 1) an external loop increasing the observation interval  $\tau$ , executed one time per each single value  $\text{MTIE}(\tau, T)$  to compute;
- 2) a first internal loop executed, given  $\tau$ , for each  $N_\tau$ -points sliding window [the external  $\max[\cdot]$  function in (7)], i.e.  $N_T - N_\tau + 1$  times;
- 3) the most internal loop to find the maximum and minimum value in a set of  $N_\tau$  samples, thus involving  $2(N_\tau - 1)$  comparison test branches and a variable number of assignments according to the particular TE sequence (we neglect here the possibility to use a more efficient algorithm to extract the maximum and minimum values).

If we limit MTIE computation to one value per octave on the  $\tau$  axis, as in the binary decomposition algorithm, then the first loop is executed  $k_{\text{MAX}} = \log_2 N_T$  times, the second loop  $N_T - 2^k + 1$  times ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, k_{\text{MAX}}$ ) and the third loop involves  $2^{k+1} - 2$  branches. Thus, the computational weight

results are approximately (from now on,  $N_T$  will be denoted simply as  $N$  for the sake of brevity):

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{4}{3} N^2 + \dots && \text{comparison test branches} \\ & 3(N \log_2 N - 2N) + \dots && \text{assignments (best case)} \\ & \frac{2}{3} N^2 + \dots && \text{assignments (worst case)} \\ & N \log_2 N - 2N + \dots && \text{additions.} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Comparison test branches are the most time-consuming operations.

It is worthwhile noticing that MTIE plain computation turned out to be a  $N^2$ -problem because we decided to limit MTIE computation to one value per octave on the  $\tau$  axis. If MTIE is computed for all the possible  $N - 1$  values of  $\tau$ , then the number of operations required becomes proportional to  $N^3$  instead.

### B. Binary Decomposition Algorithm

As far as the binary decomposition algorithm is concerned, on the other hand, the following loops can be identified:

- 1) a first loop initializing the first row ( $k = 1$ ) of matrices  $\mathbf{A}_M$  and  $\mathbf{A}_m$  and then computing  $\text{MTIE}_1$ , involving in particular  $2(N - 1)$  comparison test branches;
- 2) a second main loop increasing the row index  $k$  ( $k > 1$ ), executed  $\log_2 N - 1$  times;
- 3) a loop, internal to the previous one, to compute the next rows ( $k > 1$ ) of matrices  $\mathbf{A}_M$  and  $\mathbf{A}_m$  and to evaluate the corresponding  $\text{MTIE}_k$ , involving in particular  $3(N - 2^k + 1)$  comparison test branches.

Thus, the computational weight results are approximately:

$$\begin{aligned} & 3N \log_2 N - 7N + \dots && \text{comparison test branches} \\ & 2N + \dots && \text{assignments (best case)} \\ & 3(N \log_2 N - 2N) + \dots && \text{assignments (worst case)} \\ & N \log_2 N - 2N + \dots && \text{additions.} \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

### C. Comparison in Terms of Computational Weight

It is worthwhile noticing that, in the binary decomposition algorithm, the number of comparison test branches and worst-case assignments needed has been reduced to a term proportional to  $N \log_2 N$  instead of the  $N^2$  involved in the plain computation of the estimator (7).

The graph of Fig. 3 compares, on a logarithmic scale, the number of comparison test branches needed by the two algorithms considered as a function of the total number of available TE samples  $N$ , for  $2^1 \leq N \leq 2^{25}$  [to build this graph, all the lower-order terms not shown in (12) and (13) have been taken into account]. Moreover, the ratio between the two numbers (i.e., the computational saving factor) is plotted as well for ease of comparison. It may be noticed that in the most common range  $2^{14} \leq N \leq 2^{19}$  (i.e.,  $16384 \leq N \leq 524288$ ) the saving factor turns out to be in the remarkable order of  $10^3$  to  $10^4$ .

Finally, it may be interesting to know how long do both algorithms take to execute with practical values of  $N$  on some average/low-power computer (any quantity intended for routine measurements should not require a supercomputer to be computed). To this purpose, both algorithms have been programmed in C language, compiled and run for testing on a SUN Sparc

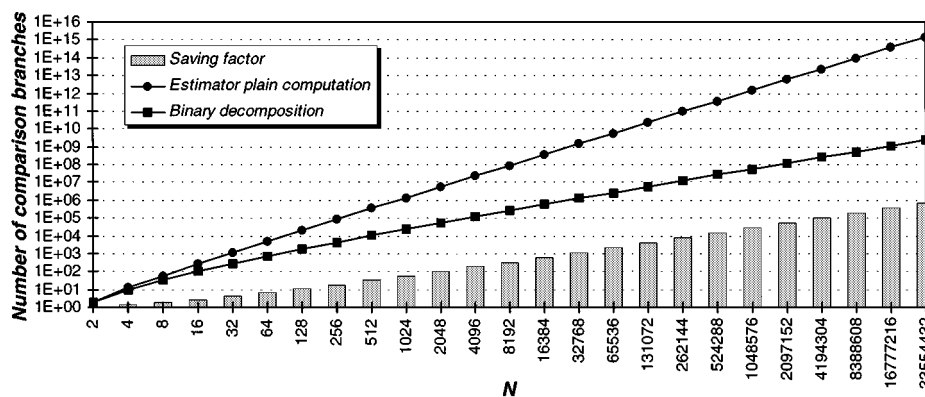


Fig. 3. Number of comparison test branches required by the MTIE estimator plain computation and the binary decomposition algorithm as a function of the total number of TE samples  $N$ .

Server 10 under UNIX operating system. The plain computation of the MTIE estimator, one value per octave as described in Section V-A, required about 1100 s of actual execution time (without any other CPU-time consuming processes) on a sequence of  $N = 65\,536$  samples. The binary decomposition algorithm, on the same sample sequence, needed just something more than one second to complete execution. These results are in good agreement with the graph of Fig. 3, which for  $N = 65\,536$  reports a saving factor in the order of  $10^3$ .

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, a fast algorithm based on binary decomposition to calculate the MTIE standard estimator was proposed. The computational weight of the binary decomposition algorithm was compared to that of the estimator plain computation.

The proposed algorithm proved effective in achieving a strong computational saving, by reducing the number of comparison test branches and worst-case assignments needed to a term proportional to  $N \log_2 N$  instead of  $N^2$  (see the graph in Fig. 3). Moreover, as a perhaps unnecessary check, its effectiveness and correctness were confirmed in paper [19] by computing the MTIE of TE sequences generated by simulation of the so-called *power-law* noise, the model most frequently used to represent clock output noise in the frequency domain [16]–[18].

This binary decomposition algorithm allows fast MTIE evaluation in most practical situations: even very long sequences of TE samples do not require more than a few seconds of MTIE computation time. Therefore, it may be conveniently adopted by telecommunications engineers involved in time-domain measurement of clock stability.

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