

Dealing with Packet Delay Variation in IEEE 1588 Synchronization Using a Sample-Mode Filter

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Abstract—In this paper, we characterize the delay profile of an Ethernet cross-traffic network statically loaded with one of the ITU-T network models and a larger Ethernet inline traffic loaded with uniformly-sized packets, showing how the average time interval between consecutive minimum-delayed packets increases with increased network load. We compare three existing skew-estimation algorithms and show that the best performance is achieved by solving a linear programming problem on “de-noised” delay samples. This skew-estimation method forms the basis of

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a new sample-mode algorithm for packet delay variation filtering. We use numerical simulations in OPNET to illustrate the performance of the sample-mode filter in the networks. We compare the performance of the proposed PDV filter with those of the existing sample minimum, mean, and maximum filters and observe that the sample-mode filtering algorithm is able to match or outperform other types of filters, at different levels of network load.

I. Introduction

Mobile telecommunications operators are now in the process of upgrading their base station backhaul networks from traditional circuit-switched E1 links to packet-switched networks such as Carrier Ethernet [1]–[5]. There has also been consideration for using Digital Enhanced Cordless Telecommunications (DECT) video systems

connected over an Ethernet backbone in transportation applications such as train carriages. This migration to Ethernet has been driven by the desire to reduce installation and deployment costs, as well as the need to provide increased bandwidth for new types of services.

Since Ethernet was not designed for the transport of synchronization, this is an important migration consideration. Cellular systems require frequency synchronization in order to preserve connection integrity and facilitate seamless handover, while Time Division Duplexing (TDD) or Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA) systems need to be synchronized in time in order to improve system capacity and reduce interference. For instance, there has been interest in providing frame and multi-frame time synchronization for DECT base stations [4]. The authors of [5] and [6] have also studied time synchronization in base stations for mobile backhaul applications. For both mobile backhaul and DECT applications, the required synchronization accuracy is in the microseconds range.

Three basic methods exist for providing precision synchronization in Ethernet networks: by means of telecoms-grade GPS receivers deployed at each node, via the physical layer e.g., Synchronous Ethernet (SyncE), or by exchanging time-stamps using a packet protocol. The GPS solution is expensive, due to the cost of installation at each node. Additionally, GPS receivers require a view of the sky in order to function. SyncE [7] adds a physical-layer synchronous signal to traditional Ethernet, in order to deliver the same effect as the E1 frame. Although SyncE can deliver a high level of frequency accuracy without susceptibility to packet delay variation (PDV), it cannot provide time synchronization [8]. The most popular packet-based synchronization protocols are Network Time Protocol (NTP) [9] and IEEE 1588 Precision Time Protocol (PTP) [10]; however unlike PTP, NTP cannot deliver the sub-microsecond synchronization accuracy required for the DECT and mobile backhaul applications. A reserved timing network such as the new PTP-based Ethernet Audio Video Bridging (AVB) standard [11] can also transport synchronous information; however our goal is to provide time synchronization on a legacy network without reservation.

When PTP is deployed in a network, the synchronization traffic must contend for the network path and share existing network elements with the non-synchronization traffic. This contention causes PDV at the output queue buffers of network switches, which can adversely affect the synchronization accuracy. The PTP standard recognizes this issue and offers some recommendations for dealing with PDV, such as deploying PTP transparent clocks or boundary clocks at intermediate nodes in the network, traffic design, priority tagging of synchronization traffic, and PDV filtering. Other techniques in the literature deal with PDV by coordinating the background traffic packet departures with the synchronization packet generation so as to completely eliminate PDV [12], or by applying Kalman filtering to the received synchro-

nization packets in order to estimate the master time [13], [14]. This paper, however, focuses on PDV filtering.

In general, the goal of PDV filtering is to select at least one “good” packet out of the received synchronization traffic and then use these packets to achieve synchronization. For most of the PDV filtering algorithms in the literature [15]–[17], a “good” packet has been defined as one with the shortest transit time through the network.

These sample-minimum filtering algorithms can work effectively, as long as packets with minimal queuing delay are delivered at appropriate intervals. In [18], [19], the authors show that this is true for cross-traffic networks with moderate levels of background traffic (less than 45% utilization). However, they observed that for a heavily-loaded cross-traffic network and moderately-loaded high-hop in-line traffic network, the probability of finding a minimum-delay packet was reduced. They thus proposed sample-mean and sample-maximum filters based on the observed delay distributions in the networks.

In this paper, we characterize the delay distributions of a cross-traffic network at different network load levels and illustrate how the time interval between consecutive minimum-delayed packets increases with the network load. We further consider the delay distribution of a large in-line traffic network. For observed delay distributions, we suggest the type of existing filter that performs best. Then, we consider three existing skew-estimation algorithms and compare their performance with a new skew-estimation algorithm that uses features from two existing algorithms. This algorithm forms the basis of a new iterative sample-mode PDV filtering technique that filters packets via a mode bin to achieve synchronization. Finally, we compare the performance of this sample mode filter with existing filters for the network scenarios whose delay distributions were profiled.

Section II of this paper defines some clock terminology and describes how the performance of PDV filtering algorithms can be impacted by the delay profile of a network. In Section III, the existing approaches to PDV filtering are summarized, while the proposed sample-mode filtering algorithm is described in Section IV. Simulation results and analysis are presented in Section V. Finally, conclusions are drawn in Section VI.

II. Characterizing Packet Delays

In this section, we consider how network queuing delays give rise to PDV and how the delays can be profiled using Probability Distribution Functions (PDFs). But first of all, we introduce some of the terminology commonly used to describe clock behavior.

A. Clock Terminology

Mathematically, a clock $C(t)$ is a piecewise continuous function of t that is twice differentiable except on a finite set of isolated jump points where the clock is reset [20], [21].

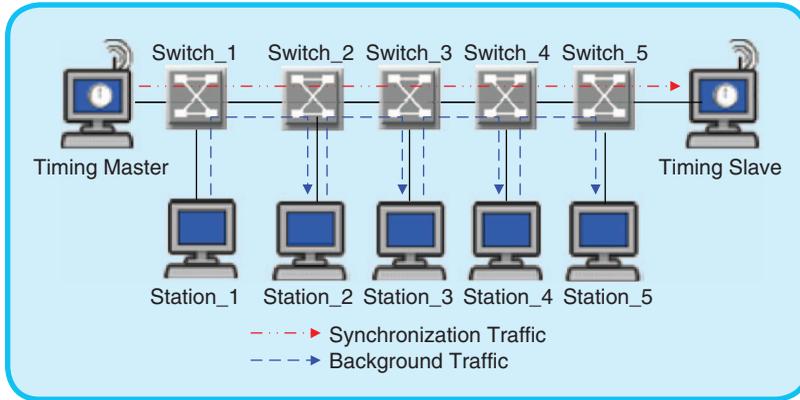


FIG 1 5-hop network topology for cross traffic.

A perfect clock or “true” clock runs at a constant rate of unity and reports the “true” time at any time. For a “true” clock C_i ,

$$C_i(t) = t.$$

Real clocks do not report “true” time. Given two real clocks C_a and C_b , we can define a clock’s offset as the instantaneous difference between the clock’s reading and “true” time. The offset of C_a is $(C_a(t) - t)$, while the relative offset of clock C_b with respect to C_a at time $t \geq 0$ is $C_b(t) - C_a(t)$. Clock frequency refers to the rate at which the clock progresses. The frequency of C_a at time t is $C'_a(t)$. If $C'_a(t) > 1$, then C_a runs faster than the “true” clock C_i ; else if $C'_a(t) < 1$, then C_a runs slower than C_i . Clock skew is the difference in the frequencies of a real clock and the “true” clock. The skew of C_a is $(C'_a(t) - 1)$, while the relative skew of clock C_b with respect to C_a is $C'_b(t) - C'_a(t)$. Lastly, clock drift is defined as the rate at which the frequency of a clock changes, often due to temperature variation or oscillator aging. The drift of C_a is $C''_a(t)$. In this paper, we denote a clock’s frequency as μ and a clock’s skew as σ .

B. Packet Delay Variation

In the PTP protocol, the master node multicasts a 44 byte SYNC packet to the slaves every synchronization interval. The SYNC packet includes the master’s origin timestamp M_i and each slave records the time S_i at which it received the i th SYNC packet. The end-to-end delay experienced by each packet is given by:

$$d_i = d_{\text{trans}} + d_{\text{prop}} + d_{\text{queue},i}.$$

Since the packet size is fixed for all SYNC packets, the transmission delay d_{trans} is constant and if the packets follow the same route to the slave, the propagation delay d_{prop} will also be constant. It is the variable queuing delay $d_{\text{queue},i}$ that gives rise to PDV.

If the slave clock is perfectly synchronized to the master, the difference between the two timestamps for each SYNC packet $\delta_i = S_i - M_i$ will be equal to the end-to-end delay d_i experienced by each packet. If the clocks have a non-zero

skew, then δ_i will also include an accumulated offset, as shown in (1).

$$\delta_i = d_i + (M_i + d_i)\sigma. \quad (1)$$

This accumulated offset $(M_i + d_i)\sigma$ causes δ_i to gradually increase or decrease over time, depending on whether the slave clock runs faster or slower than the master clock.

C. Packet Delay Profiling

In order to characterize the delay profile and appreciate the effects of PDV on the synchronization performance of the network, we simulated a 5 hop network with data-centric background traffic based on the ITU-T G.8261 Network Traffic Model 2 [22], as illustrated in Fig. 1. Each node generates background traffic that follows the same path as the SYNC packets. The next node extracts the background traffic and injects new (independent) traffic along the synchronization path. In the literature, this type of traffic pattern is referred to as cross-traffic [19]. Quality of Service (QoS) was implemented in the model so that the SYNC packets were transmitted with strict priority queuing at the switch output ports. Simulations were carried out for 20%, 40%, 60% and 80% background traffic load levels. Other simulation parameters are provided in Table 1.

For each SYNC packet received at the slave, the end-to-end delay was measured and used to generate an experimental PDF of the packet delay, as shown in Fig. 2. At low loads (typically less than 45%), most of the packets experienced no queuing in the network, as evidenced by the very strong modes at the minimum delay value. As the load increases, the probability of finding a packet with minimum delay decreases. For example, Fig. 3 shows that there is no packet at the minimum delay value at 70% load, as all the packets experience queuing in the network. In fact, the PDFs at higher loads have well-defined shapes and can be fitted to Erlang density distributions.

Inspection of the delay profiles in Fig. 2 suggests that the low load scenarios are amenable to sample-minimum filtering, while the higher load scenarios might benefit from sample-mean filtering.

We also consider the network scenario depicted by Fig. 4, where the background traffic follows the same

Table 1. Simulation parameters for packet delay profiling.

Distance Between Nodes	Synchronization Interval	Fractional Frequency Offset of Slave	Line Rate
50 metres	3.90625 milliseconds	2 parts per million	100 Mbps

path as the synchronization traffic. This type of traffic, termed in-line traffic, has practical significance in access aggregation networks such as in mobile backhaul systems where a network controller provides both timing traffic and background traffic (such as voice and data) to base stations. We modelled a 16-hop network in which the size of the packets was uniformly distributed between 64 bytes and 1500 bytes, which are the minimum and maximum packet sizes for Ethernet, respectively. The other simulation parameters were unchanged.

We observed that at 20% load level, the delay PDFs in this network can again be fitted to a theoretical Erlang PDFs, as depicted in Fig. 5; however, none of the packets experienced the minimum delay due to the long chain of queuing elements in the network. As the load increases, most of the packets tend to experience the maximum amount of delay. The resulting PDFs for these increased-congestion scenarios do not fit any popular distributions, but rather resemble mirror-images of the Erlang density distribution with negative values of the shape parameter.

Since the delay distributions at higher loads and for higher hop counts tend to follow an Erlang distribution, then in theory, an optimal PDV filter can be designed based on the Erlang distribution parameters. However, the expected computational overhead of such a filter would make it unsuitable for real-time use.

Inspection of the shapes of the delay profiles in Fig. 5 suggests that none of the scenarios would also be amenable to sample-minimum filtering. Sample-maximum filtering might benefit the 80% load scenario, while the other load scenarios might benefit from sample-mean filtering.

III. Existing Packet Filtering Techniques

As previously mentioned, the performance of a PDV filter depends on the probability of finding “good” packets among a sequence of arriving packets within a window. Thus the aim of PDV filtering is to select packets that experienced similar amount of delay through the network. If the distribution of the delay is known a-priori, then the best filter to use is the one which matches the delay distribution, thus maximizing the chances of finding good packets. However, if the delay distribution does not quite match up with any of the filters, then the residual clock offset after synchronization might be greater than desired.

Three main types of filters have been considered for PDV filtering, namely sample minimum, sample maximum and sample mean.

Given a window with W SYNC packets, master origin timestamp M_i , slave reception timestamp S_i , and delay $\delta_i = S_i - M_i$ for the i th packet ($0 < i \leq W$), good packets are defined as those that satisfy (2) for a sample-minimum filter [15]–[17], (3) for a sample-maximum filter, and (4) for a sample-mean filter [19]; where δ_{\min} , δ_{\max} , and δ_{mean} are the minimum, maximum, and mean, respectively, of

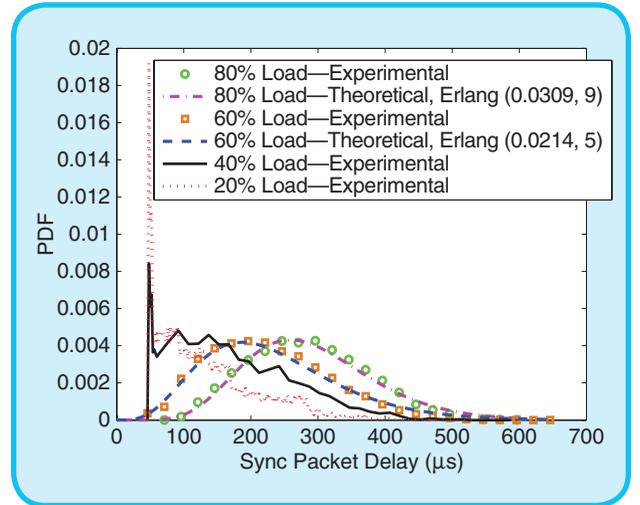


FIG 2 Packet delay distribution for a 5-hop cross traffic network.

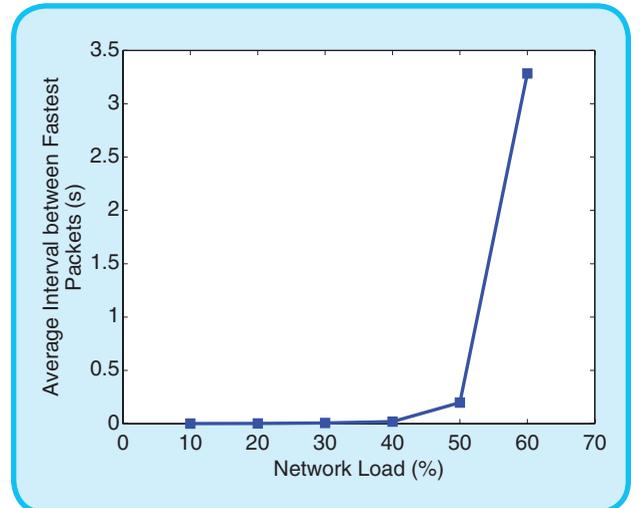


FIG 3 Average interval between minimum-delayed packets for 5-hop cross traffic network topology.

all W δ_i samples in the window, and the threshold value α depends on the desired accuracy.

$$\delta_i \leq \delta_{\min} + \alpha. \quad (2)$$

$$\delta_i \geq \delta_{\max} - \alpha. \quad (3)$$

$$(\delta_{\text{mean}} - \alpha/2) \leq \delta_i \leq (\delta_{\text{mean}} + \alpha/2). \quad (4)$$

IV. Proposed Packet Filtering Approach

The goal of our proposed sample-mode PDV filter is to maximize the chances of finding good packets by selecting packets from within the mode bin. The rationale behind this approach is that when the delay distribution does not quite match up with any of the existing filters, the sample mode will yield the largest number of good packets. Thus the sample mode filter should give a good fit for all traffic distributions, with a relatively low computational overhead.

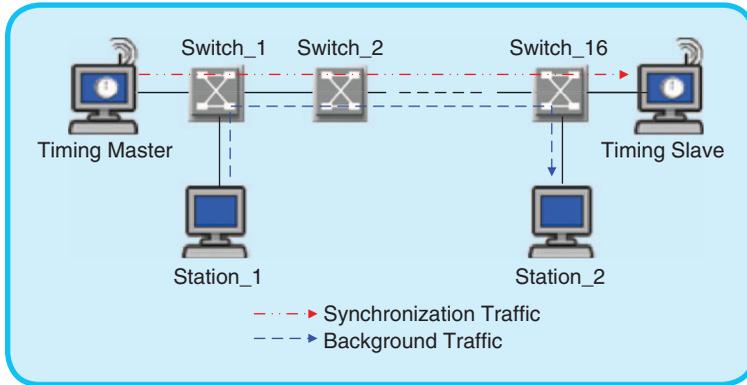


FIG 4 16-hop network topology for in-line traffic.

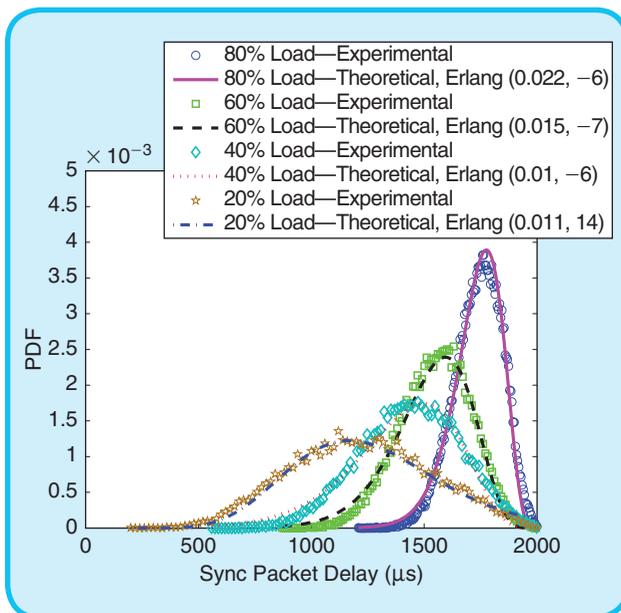


FIG 5 Packet delay distribution for a 16-hop inline traffic network.

For each SYNC packet received at the slave, $\delta = S - M$ is computed from the master origin and slave reception timestamps and stored. After W samples have been obtained, a histogram is created to approximate the delay distribution of the received packets. If two or more bins have the same number of samples, the mode bin is selected as the bin with the minimum delay value. Good packets are defined as packets selected from within the mode bin, i.e.,

$$(\delta_{\text{mode}} - \alpha/2) \leq \delta_i \leq (\delta_{\text{mode}} + \alpha/2), \quad (5)$$

where δ_{mode} is the sample mode and α represents the width of each histogram bin.

A. Skew Correction

The first step in our sample mode PDV filter algorithm is the computation of the rate compensation factor (RCF). This RCF is used to correct for the relative clock skew at the

slave with respect to the master clock. After the first computation of the RCF, subsequent computations are done for every frequency synchronization interval, rather than for every iteration. This is due to the well-known fact that changes in clock rates are usually caused by aging of the oscillators or temperature changes, and as such they tend to occur extremely slowly. In fact, if the maximum clock drift rate ρ is known, then the frequency synchronization interval f can be estimated from the target synchronization accuracy η as follows:

$$f = \frac{\eta}{2\rho}. \quad (6)$$

In our previous work [25], we showed that the RCF could be calculated using the largest origin timestamp M_{max} , least origin timestamp M_{min} , largest reception timestamp S_{max} , and least reception timestamp S_{min} within the mode bin as follows:

$$\text{RCF} = \frac{S_{\text{max}} - S_{\text{min}}}{M_{\text{max}} - M_{\text{min}}}. \quad (7)$$

For an accurate computation of RCF using (7), the packets received by the slave at timestamps S_{max} and S_{min} must have experienced the same delay in the network. In Appendix A, we prove that it is possible for packets that experience different delays to end up in the same bin. If this happens within the mode bin, the RCF computed using (7) may not accurately reflect the actual amount of skew between the master and slave. Conversely, it is also possible for packets that experience the same delay to end up in different bins, as shown in Appendix B. If similarly-delayed packets are in separate bins, then it might be better to utilise all the samples within a window when computing the RCF, rather than selected samples from the mode bin. Thus, we have explored other algorithms for correcting the skew.

1) Paxson's Algorithm

Paxson's algorithm [24], [25] was designed to remove clock skew from a set of path delay measurements. The W δ_i are partitioned into \sqrt{W} segments, and the minimum delay measurement from each segment is selected. The selected measurements are referred to as the “de-noised” one-way transit times (OTTs). The slopes of all possible pairs of the “de-noised” OTTs are computed, and the median slope is selected. If the median slope is negative, the algorithm assumes that the skew is negative. On the other hand, if the median slope is positive, a positive skew is assumed. A cumulative minima test is then performed to see if the number of cumulative minima is large enough to indicate that the sign of the skew is probabilistically likely. If the test is successful, the median slope is output as the skew estimate; otherwise the algorithm outputs a skew of zero.

Appendix A. Proof That Packets with Different Delays Can End Up in the Same Bin

Consider the i th and j th SYNC packets received within the same window, where $j - i = n$ and $n > 0$. From (1), the corresponding timestamp differences are given by $\delta_i = d_i + (M_i + d_i)\sigma$ and $\delta_j = d_j + (M_j + d_j)\sigma$, respectively. Assuming no packet loss and equal synchronisation interval f , $M_{i+n} = M_i + nf$. Subtracting δ_i from δ_j with substitution and simplification yields

$$\delta_{i+n} - \delta_i = (d_{i+n} - d_i)(1 + \sigma) + nf\sigma. \quad (S1)$$

For the two packets to end up in the same bin, the difference in their δ values must be within the bin width α , i.e.,

$$\alpha \geq (d_{i+n} - d_i)(1 + \sigma) + nf\sigma. \quad (S2)$$

Appendix B. Proof That Packets with the Same Delay Can End Up in Different Bins

Again consider the i th and j th SYNC packets received within the same window, where $j - i = n$ and $n > 0$. In this case, the end-to-end delay is $d_i = d_j = d$. From (1), the corresponding timestamp differences are given by $\delta_i = d + (M_i + d)\sigma$ and $\delta_j = d + (M_j + d)\sigma$, respectively. Assuming no packet loss and equal synchronisation interval f , $M_{i+n} = M_i + nf$. Subtracting δ_i from δ_j with substitution and simplification yields

$$\delta_{i+n} - \delta_i = nf\sigma. \quad (S3)$$

For the two packets to end up in different bins, the difference in their δ values must be greater than the bin width α , i.e.,

$$\alpha < nf\sigma. \quad (S4)$$

2) Linear Programming

The method of [20] can be used to formulate a linear programming problem from (1). Assuming that $\bar{\delta}_i = \delta_i - d_i$ and $\bar{M}_i = M_i - M_1$ then from (1) we have

$$\bar{\delta}_i = (d_i - d_1)(1 + \sigma) + \bar{M}_i\sigma. \quad (8)$$

Using the relation $\mu = 1 + \sigma$, (8) can be re-written as

$$\bar{\delta}_i = (d_{r_i} - d_{r_1}) + \bar{M}_i(\mu - 1), \quad (9)$$

where $d_{r_i} = \mu d_i$ represents the end-to-end delay of the i th packet measured at the slave. From (9), $\bar{\delta}_i$ differs from d_{r_i} by $\bar{M}_i(\mu - 1)$ minus a constant d_{r_1} . If $\mu > 1$, $\bar{M}_i(\mu - 1)$ grows linearly with \bar{M}_i and $\bar{\delta}_i$ gets larger. If $\hat{\mu}$ is the estimate of μ or RCF and \hat{d}_{r_i} and \hat{d}_{r_1} are the estimates of d_{r_i} and d_{r_1} , respectively, then from (9) we can obtain

$$\hat{d}_{r_i} = \bar{\delta}_i - \bar{M}_i(\hat{\mu} - 1) + \hat{d}_{r_1}. \quad (10)$$

The goal is to estimate μ , given $\bar{\delta}_i$ and \bar{M}_i . Since the delay \hat{d}_{r_i} must always be positive, the linear programming problem can be formulated as

$$\bar{\delta}_i - \bar{M}_i(\hat{\mu} - 1) + \hat{d}_{r_1} \geq 0, \quad 1 \leq i \leq W. \quad (11)$$

The corresponding objective function is stated as

$$\min \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^W (\bar{\delta}_i - \bar{M}_i(\hat{\mu} - 1) + \hat{d}_{r_1}) \right\}. \quad (12)$$

It is important to note that once $\hat{\mu}$ and \hat{d}_{r_1} are obtained, the resulting estimated end-to-end delay of d_{r_i} calculated as $(\bar{\delta}_i - \bar{M}_i(\hat{\mu} - 1) + \hat{d}_{r_1})$ will be greater than zero, instead of being greater than $\min_i d_{r_i}$. Thus, \hat{d}_{r_1} is actually an estimate of $(d_{r_1} + \min_i d_{r_i})$ and $(\bar{\delta}_i - \bar{M}_i(\hat{\mu} - 1) + \hat{d}_{r_1})$ is actually the variable portion of the end-to-end delay or the PDV. Hence, the linear programming algorithm tries to minimize the sum of the PDV.

3) Linear Regression

The standard linear regression technique can also be used for fitting a line to the set of $\bar{\delta}_i$ and \bar{M}_i values. For skew estimation, the linear regression algorithm computes estimates of μ and \hat{d}_{r_1} that minimize the mean square error e in

$$\sum_{i=1}^W \{ \bar{\delta}_i - \bar{M}_i(\hat{\mu} - 1) + \hat{d}_{r_1} \}^2. \quad (13)$$

B. Offset Correction

Once the RCF has been computed, subsequent iterations of the algorithm aim to reduce the clock offset between the master and the slave. At least one good packet is required for the offset computation. The packet selection rate is computed as the quotient of the number of packets in the mode bin and the window size W , and then compared with a packet selection threshold. If the selection rate exceeds the threshold level, the window size can be reduced. On the other hand, if no packet is found within the mode bin after increasing the window size to the maximum, the slave sends a management message to halve the synchronization interval at the master.

V. Simulation and Results

To determine the best skew-estimation algorithm, we used OPNET Modeler 16.0 [26] to simulate the 5-hop cross traffic network depicted in Fig. 1. The synchronization interval was set to 976.5625 μ s, the window size was set to 10000 samples. The slave skew was fixed at 2 parts per million while the master skew was fixed at 0 parts per million. The three skew-estimation algorithms previously described were implemented, for different levels of network load. Additionally, we consider a new “de-noised” linear programming algorithm which applies the linear programming algorithm described in [20] to Paxson’s [24], [25] “de-noised” delay samples.

Fig. 6 shows the residual error after RCF estimation, using the different algorithms. The linear regression algorithm gives unpredictable results because it is not robust in

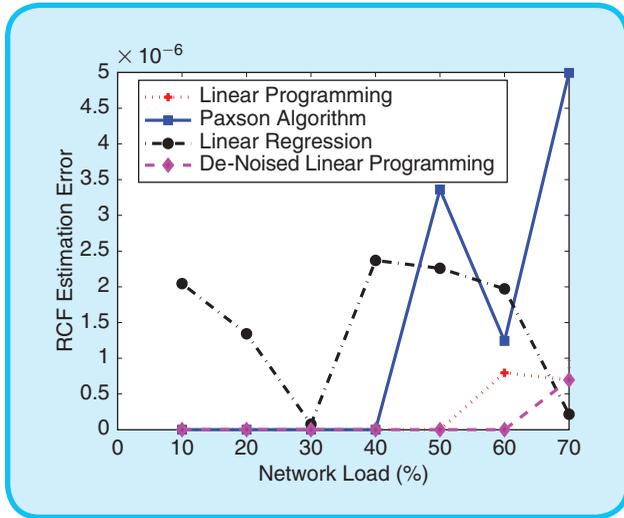


FIG 6 RCF estimation error for 5-hop cross traffic network.

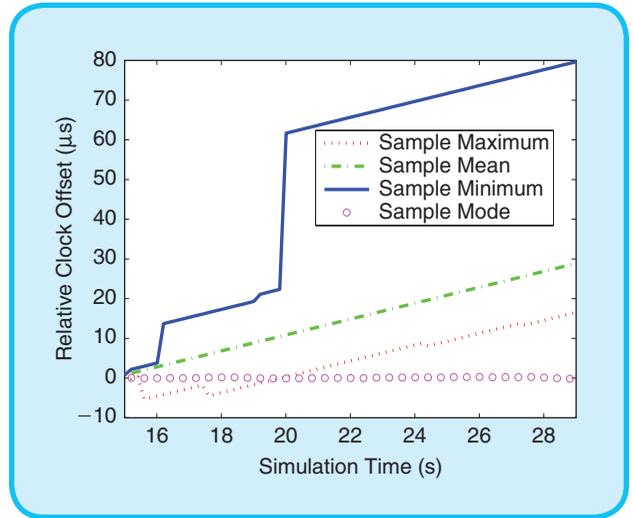


FIG 8 Relative clock offset for 16-hop inline traffic network at 80% load.

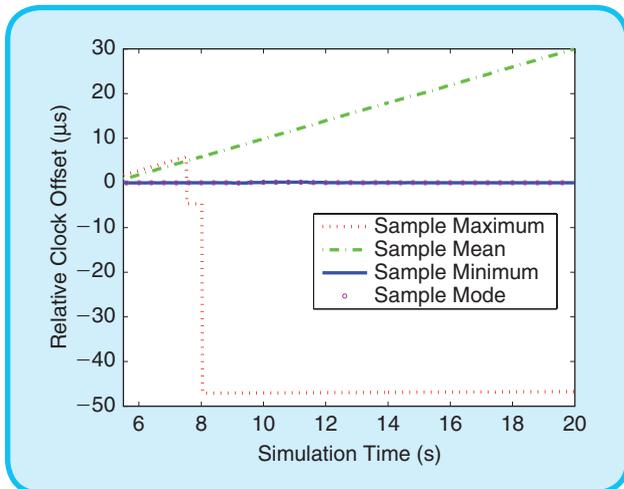


FIG 7 Relative clock offset for 5-hop cross traffic network at 40% load.

the presence of outliers. Furthermore, it is only optimal in the mean square sense if the network delays have a normal distribution. Paxson’s algorithm is accurate at low levels of load, where it is possible to find minimum-delayed packets. Since the linear programming objective function aims to minimize the sum of the variable delays, the algorithm works well for low levels of PDV. Combining linear programming with “de-noising” yields the best performance, since “de-noising” gets rid of excess PDV.

We also compared the performance of the proposed sample-mode with those of the existing filters, by simulating the networks depicted in Fig. 1 and Fig. 4. In order to allow a like-for-like comparison of the filters, we fixed the window size at 500 samples for all filters, the threshold value α was set at $0.2 \mu\text{s}$, the synchronization interval was $976.5625 \mu\text{s}$ and the residual fractional frequency offset at the slave after the initial RCF estimation was 50 parts per billion.

In Fig. 7, we compare the results obtained from the four different filters after synchronization in a 40% 5-hop cross-traffic scenario. As observed in the corresponding delay profile of Fig. 2, most of the packets experience the minimum delay; hence the sample-minimum filter is a good match and performs optimally. Since the mode corresponds to the minimum delay point, the performance of our sample mode filter is also optimal, and is in fact identical to that of the sample-minimum. As expected, the sample-mean and sample-maximum filters perform poorly, because they struggle to find “good” packets.

In Fig. 8, we compare the results obtained after synchronization in an 80% 16-hop inline-traffic scenario. As observed in the corresponding delay profile of Fig. 5, none of the packets experience the minimum delay; hence the sample-minimum filter has the worst performance. The delay profile does not match well with the sample-mean or sample-maximum filters either, hence their performance is also sub-optimal. Thus, the sample-mode filter gives the best performance.

As a final analysis, we can observe the performance of a specific filter in both of these scenarios and see how the performance is influenced by the corresponding delay profile. The sample-maximum filter, for example, yields the worst performance in the first scenario, as most packets experience the minimum delay. On the other hand, it performs better than both the sample-minimum and sample-mean filters in the larger heavier-loaded network scenario which has higher levels of queuing. The converse is true for the sample-minimum filter.

VI. Conclusions

We have characterized the IEEE 1588 PTP synchronization packet delay profiles for a small cross-traffic network and a large in-line traffic network with different levels of background traffic and observed from the shape of the

distributions that the existing sample-minimum, sample-maximum, and sample-mean filters perform sub-optimally for some of the load levels in these scenarios. A new skew-estimation algorithm has been proposed, by utilizing some features of two existing algorithms. This skew-estimation algorithm forms the basis of a low-computation sample-mode filtering algorithm which selects packets from the mode bin and uses these “good” packets to achieve synchronization. Numerical simulations have shown that when the delay profile is a good match for an existing filter, the sample-mode filter performs as well as the existing filter. When the delay profile is not a good match for an existing filter, the sample-mode filter outperforms the existing filters.

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