

1 Improving the precision of time synchronization
2 protocols in ultra-wideband networks estimating the
3 time of flight of the radio signal

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8 **Abstract**

9 Modern applications of wireless sensor networks such as the conduction
10 of collaborative tasks, the distributed detection of events or the alignment of
11 data samples gathered by several nodes, require a precise time coordination
12 of the nodes composing the network. Ultra Wide Band (UWB) technology
13 has enabled the development of precise time synchronization protocols. The
14 intrinsic properties of this technology allow an accurate estimation of the
15 time of flight (ToF) of the radio signal in scenarios covering short distances.
16 The integration of UWB transceivers in Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN)
17 nodes is nowadays possible due to the availability of commercial chips im-
18 plementing this technology. This combination facilitates the development
19 of accurate time synchronization protocols that establish a global common
20 clock throughout the network. In this context, the main contribution of this
21 work is a protocol that allows the synchronization of the local clocks of these
22 nodes with a common global reference kept in the master node. The master
23 periodically broadcasts synchronization packets to keep the rest of the nodes
24 synchronized. However, since the precision achieved in the time synchroniza-
25 tion of the local clocks with UWB technology is comparable to the ToF of
26 the RF signal for distances in the order of several meters, some consider-
27 ations to estimate this delay are required. In this paper, a new algorithm
28 is proposed that performs the estimation of the ToF of the UWB signal as
29 well as the implementation of linear models to synchronize the local clocks of
30 the network node, eliminating the dependence on the ToF. The experiments
31 conducted with real devices reveal that an accuracy of tens of nanoseconds
32 can be achieved regardless of the distance separating the network nodes.

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35 1. Introduction

36 Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN) constitute a pervasive and ubiquitous
37 technology that has been applied successfully in a vast number of relevant
38 applications for our society, such as: environmental monitoring [1], smart
39 cities [2], intelligent transport systems [3], health care [4], smart grids [5],
40 and industrial automation [6]. An important aspect that must be considered
41 in the development of these networks is the maintenance of a global time to
42 keep the local clocks of the nodes synchronized. This global time enables the
43 temporal alignment of the data samples coming from different nodes and the
44 realization of in-network collaborative tasks. The timing service provided
45 by Global Navigation Satellite Systems (GNSS) represents an accurate solu-
46 tion that can be used to establish a global network clock. The term GNSS
47 encompasses different systems such as the USA's Global Positioning System
48 (GPS), Russia's GLONASS, Europe's GALILEO and China's BEIDOU. The
49 time synchronization accuracy achieved with the GNSS service that relies on
50 pseudo-range information and carrier phase analysis is in the order of tens
51 of nanoseconds [7]. However, this time synchronization mechanism is not
52 suitable for degraded or denied GNSS scenarios, such as indoor or under-
53 ground environments where the GNSS signals are not available. In these
54 conditions, non-GNSS time synchronization methods must be applied. This
55 work addresses these scenarios without GNSS coverage in which synchroniza-
56 tion must be performed by means of some alternative wireless communication
57 technology.

58 Low-cost hardware embedded in the network nodes limits the stability of
59 the local clocks, producing a continuous change of the relative offsets among
60 them [8, 9]. Time synchronization protocols in WSN estimate periodically
61 the offset between the different nodes local clocks transmitting information
62 through a wireless communication link. Usually, these protocols perform a
63 sequence of packets exchanges to collect timestamps at the medium access
64 layer. Timestamps at different nodes are captured using their own local
65 clocks and the synchronization protocol combines them to estimate their off-
66 sets. However, the drift of the local clocks causes this estimate to become
67 out of date after a short period of time. Besides, the accuracy of the estimate

is affected by the precision of the node local clock as well as the capturing process after transmitting or receiving the packets. In this context, the integration of low-cost Ultra Wide Band (UWB) transceivers in the network nodes facilitates the implementation of accurate time synchronization protocols due to the high time resolution of the pulses transmitted with this technology.

The IEEE 802.15.4 - 2011 standard [10], which establishes the features of the physical layer of this radio technology, defines a signal with a bandwidth greater than 500 Mhz composed by pulses of very short duration (in the order of nanoseconds) referred as Impulse Radio UWB. This standard is focused on the implementation of localization algorithms and applications requiring low data rates. The UWB radio frequency pulses reduce the influence of multipath interference during the signal reception and allow a precise determination of the signal transmission and reception timestamps. The high time resolution makes this technology a perfect candidate for implementing localization systems, since accurate estimates of the Time of Flight (ToF) of the signal can be obtained. Current UWB transceivers include high frequency timers to provide very accurate timestamps, which enables the implementation of ranging algorithms with an error of less than 10 cm [11].

The standard IEEE 802.15.4 - 2015 [12] adds a new physical layer and distinguishes the two versions using different names: a) High-Rate Pulse (HRP), which refers to the physical layer defined in the initial standard, and b) Low-Rate Pulse (LRP), which denotes the new physical layer added. The main difference between them is the rate at which the pulses are transmitted. HRP mode transceivers transmit more but smaller pulses than in LRP mode, although remaining the maximum transmitted energy the same in both cases. Due to the higher peaks used in LRP, the instantaneous signal to noise is better and the complexity and the power consumption of the receiver is greatly reduced. This makes LRP transceivers more suitable for applications where the devices must be powered by batteries. Finally, the standard IEEE 802.15.4z - 2020 [13] proposes new enhancements for both physical modes (HRP and LRP) to improve the signal detection with new coding, packet preambles and modulations.

In this regard, the work in [14] has shown how the interconnection of commercial UWB transceivers, such as the Qorvo's DW1000 [15] based on the IEEE 802.15.4 - 2011 standard, to a microcontroller timer allows the development of protocols capable of reducing the synchronization error between two nodes to values of tens of nanoseconds, which is close to the timers

106 resolution. The capturing process of the timestamps at the microcontroller
 107 is supported by the activation of an output at the UWB transceiver after
 108 the detection of the Start of Frame Delimiter (SFD) field, which is included
 109 in the IEEE 802.15.4 UWB packet format. This output is connected to the
 110 capture input of the microcontroller timer to acquire precise timestamps just
 111 when the SFD field is detected at the receptor transceiver. The acquisition of
 112 these timestamps relies on hardware elements and eliminates random delays
 113 that can appear at the software layers of the protocol. Once a set of times-
 114 tamps is saved, the protocol performs a linear regression to predict future
 115 offset values between the clocks of the nodes. However, the acquisition of
 116 the timestamps carried out in this work are based on the one way packet
 117 transmission. This mechanism simplifies the packet exchange protocol be-
 118 tween the network nodes. It only requires a packet transmission from the
 119 master node, which is the node with the global network time, while the other
 120 nodes (slaves) will capture and track it. Notice that the ToF of the UWB
 121 signal cannot be obtained with this packet transmission scheme and the er-
 122 ror produced by the existence of different ToF values can not be eliminated.
 123 Therefore, the error committed by not considering the different ToF delays
 124 associated with each node, prevents the algorithm to achieve an accurate
 125 time synchronization when the difference in the radio range between nodes
 126 is greater than 10m [14].

127 In this paper, we propose a new packet exchange mechanism between the
 128 master and the network nodes that allows an efficient estimation of the ToF
 129 of the UWB signal. Once the ToF is estimated and cancelled, the resulting
 130 synchronization protocol can predict future offset values applying linear re-
 131 gression with a time precision that does not depend on the node position.
 132 The performance of the protocol has been validated in an experimental de-
 133 ployment with static nodes.

134 The paper is divided in the following sections. Section 2 is devoted to
 135 presenting the related work. In section 3, the mechanism to acquire the
 136 timestamps at the different nodes jointly with the ToF estimation is ex-
 137 plained. Section 4 describes the synchronization algorithm applied to predict
 138 the global time with ToF cancellation. In section 5, the conducted experi-
 139 ments and the obtained results are presented. Finally, section 6, includes the
 140 conclusions and summarizes the contributions of this paper.

141 2. Related Work

142 Time synchronization is a major issue in the development of WSN. The
143 local clock of the nodes is commonly implemented with a timer that receives
144 periodic impulses from an oscillator that integrates a quartz crystal. The
145 stability of the crystal is indicated by the manufacturer, which provides the
146 maximum deviation from the nominal frequency in ppm (parts per million).
147 The divergence from the nominal frequency is caused by changes in the en-
148 vironmental conditions such as temperature, pressure and acceleration, but
149 also by the supply voltage, the board capacitors, aging factors and imper-
150 fections in its manufacture [8, 9]. All these effects produce an unpredictable
151 and continuous drift of the oscillation frequency and change the relative skew
152 that exists between clocks. In this sense, WSN synchronization protocols deal
153 with these clocks drift and try to establish a common global clock throughout
154 the whole network. In this section a revision of the more important protocols
155 found in the literature is provided.

156 The first group of synchronization protocols considered is focused on pro-
157 tocols supported by the initial version of the IEEE 802.4.15 standard, often
158 referred to as Zigbee, or wireless technologies with similar capabilities in the
159 2.4Ghz frequency band. The two main references in this group are: Timing-
160 sync Protocol for Sensor Networks (TPSN) [16] and Reference Broadcast Syn-
161 chronization (RBS) [17]. The former is a pairwise synchronization algorithm
162 that collects four timestamps following a sender-receiver [16] mechanism after
163 the transmission and reception of two packets. These timestamps allows the
164 algorithm to calculate the instantaneous offset between the clocks of the two
165 nodes with a synchronization precision of $16.9 \mu s$ using Mica nodes [16]. The
166 later proposes a different approach based on a receiver-receiver procedure. In
167 this case, a broadcast packet is sent from the reference node and is received
168 by the rest of nodes located in its same radio range. After capturing the
169 reception timestamps, all the nodes inside the broadcast domain exchange
170 their timestamps and estimate their relative offsets. The precision achieved
171 with this protocol employing Mica nodes is $11.2 \mu s$.

172 The above protocols are mainly focused on short-term time synchroniza-
173 tion as they estimate the offset just after exchanging the synchronization
174 packets. However, the offset between the clocks of the nodes changes con-
175 tinuously due to the clocks drift and the estimate becomes out of date after
176 a short time. Within this framework, there are some alternative protocols
177 that model the different skew of the clocks by means of a linear regression to

178 achieve better estimates of future offsets. These protocols provide long-term
 179 time synchronization and estimate periodically the relative skew between lo-
 180 cal clocks considering the previous timestamps. The Flooding Time-Synch
 181 Protocol (FTSP) [18] pertains to this group of protocols. FTSP can syn-
 182 chronize nodes in a multi-hop network transmitting broadcast packets with
 183 a period of 30 s and applying linear regression to estimate the relative skew
 184 of the clocks. The experimental results of this protocol show that a precision
 185 of $1.48 \mu\text{s}$ in a one hop network with Mica2 nodes can be achieved. Scaling
 186 up the network to 60 nodes in a 6-hop topology the accuracy slightly worsens
 187 to $3 \mu\text{s}$. Tiny-Sync and Mini-Sync [19] protocols follow the same approach
 188 and apply linear regression to obtain the relative skew and offset between two
 189 nodes but establishing upper and lower bounds to these values to improve
 190 the estimation accuracy. An important issue that must be considered with
 191 these algorithms is the window size, i.e. the number of previous timestamps
 192 considered in the linear regression. There are some protocols that attempt
 193 to obtain an optimal window size, because short ones limit the accuracy of
 194 the model and too long sizes are not suitable to follow the drifts of the local
 195 clocks. Rate Adaptive Time Synchronization (RATS) in [20] is an example of
 196 protocol that selects the optimum window to minimize the synchronization
 197 error. In that work is shown how using Mica2 devices the error can be min-
 198 imized to a value of $1.6 \mu\text{s}$ employing a time window of 8 minutes. Another
 199 example is the Adaptive Window Size (AWS) protocol [21], where an algo-
 200 rithm to obtain the optimum window size is proposed. The results of this
 201 work show that a pairwise synchronization with TelosB nodes can achieve
 202 an average accuracy of $8.95 \mu\text{s}$, whereas in a 4-hop topology the accuracy
 203 worsens to $12.42 \mu\text{s}$. Finally, the work in [22] presents the Gradient Time
 204 Synchronization Protocol (GTSP), which introduces a completely distributed
 205 protocol where the nodes periodically broadcast synchronization beacons to
 206 their neighbours. After some time, the logical clock estimated by each node
 207 converges to a common logical clock establishing the global synchronization.
 208 Experiments on a testbed with a network of 20 Mica2 devices demonstrates
 209 that the average synchronization error achieved in this case is $4 \mu\text{s}$.

210 Protocols presented so far relied on wireless transceivers that are com-
 211 pliant with early versions of the IEEE 802.4.15 standard. A significant im-
 212 provement in the accuracy of the protocols can be fulfilled considering UWB
 213 communications supported by the standards IEEE 802.15.4 - 2015 and IEEE
 214 802.15.4z - 2020. Currently, there are commercially available low-cost UWB
 215 transceivers, such as the Qorvo's DW1000 UWB transceiver [15], which allow

216 the acquisition of very accurate timestamps during the packet transmission or
 217 reception. Moreover, the timestamps are captured using the internal timers
 218 of the UWB transceivers that are connected to high frequency clocks (64 GHz
 219 in the case of the DW1000 transceiver). Main applications of the networks
 220 built with such devices are related to the implementation of indoor localiza-
 221 tion systems. In this scenario, the network is normally composed of a group
 222 of distributed anchors, placed at known locations, and there is one or more
 223 tags whose coordinates must be estimated. The position estimation can be
 224 computed basically by two different types of measures: Time of Flight (ToF)
 225 or Time Difference of Arrival (TDoA). The acquisition of ToF measures of
 226 the signal transmission between the tag and the anchors requires the use of
 227 a Two-Way Ranging (TWR) mechanism [23], similar to the sender-receiver
 228 procedure of the TPSN protocol. Some alternative TWR methods have been
 229 proposed in the literature to avoid the inaccuracies produced by clocks drift.
 230 The Symmetrical Double-Sided Two-Way Ranging (SDS-TWR) [10] method
 231 utilizes three packets to improve the accuracy of the ToF measurement. How-
 232 ever, this method requires equal reply times during the reception and the
 233 transmission of the packets involved in the process in both nodes, which is
 234 difficult to accomplish. This requirement can be avoided with the alterna-
 235 tive double-sided TWR (ADS-TWR) [23], which still needs the transmission
 236 of three packets but estimates the ToF in a non-linear manner. Thus, the
 237 ADS-TWR error depends only on the clock drift of one device and reduces
 238 significantly the complexity of the packet exchange process. On the other
 239 hand, localization methods based on TDoA follow the One-Way Ranging
 240 (OWR) mechanism, which requires the transmission of only one packet from
 241 the tag to the anchors or vice versa. However, these methods need a very
 242 strict time synchronization between the clocks integrated in the transceivers
 243 to determine the time difference of arrival accurately [24]. To enhance the
 244 synchronization accuracy, the work in reference [25] utilizes two reference
 245 nodes with DW1000 transceivers that periodically broadcast the synchroniza-
 246 tion packets. The primary reference node transmits synchronization packets
 247 that are received by all the anchors and one of them serves as a secondary
 248 reference to retransmit this information after a predefined delay. In this way,
 249 anchors that are too far can receive the synchronization packets from the sec-
 250 ondary reference. The protocol compensates the effect of the clocks drift and
 251 achieve a precision of 1.5 ns for 90 % of the TDoA measurements. Another
 252 example is the work in [26], which proposes a master-slave synchronization
 253 protocol similar to the TPSN between the anchor with the reference clock

254 and the rest. Besides, the protocol performs the calculation of the skews be-
 255 tween different clocks and employs a Kalman filter to reduce the noise in the
 256 collected timestamps. Simulation results included in the paper prove the im-
 257 provement achieved in the TDoA estimation. In the same line, the algorithm
 258 in [27] carries out a TDoA localization procedure transmitting packets under
 259 the OWR method. It avoids the influence of the clocks drift and estimates
 260 the position of the tags applying an extended Kalman filtering. In [28] the
 261 authors propose the Broadcast Relative Localization and Clock Synchroniza-
 262 tion (BLAS) algorithm that carries out a joint localization and clock synchro-
 263 nization procedure for multiagent applications. The algorithm collects real
 264 time spatio-temporal information that is distributed among the nodes to find
 265 pairwise clock parameters applying Kalman filters. The ranging accuracy ac-
 266 complished in this way is equivalent to a clock synchronization of 0.172 ns.
 267 The work in [29] presents an optimized clock synchronization protocol that
 268 estimates the distance and the delay of the UWB signal transmission with
 269 DW1000 transceivers. The algorithm uses a proportional-integral estimator
 270 that makes the error converge to a sub-nanosecond time scale. Finally, the
 271 work in [30] introduces an asymptotic gradient clock synchronization, which
 272 addresses the chaotic nature of the gradient synchronization and improves
 273 the estimation of the relative clocks dynamics with a Kalman filter. The
 274 results obtained show a synchronization accuracy in the order of tens of pi-
 275 coseconds. It should be notice that the synchronization accuracy achieved
 276 in all these protocols relays on the timestamps captured with the local clock
 277 of the DW1000 UWB transceiver. This timer uses a clock signal with a
 278 frequency of 64 GHz and a time resolution of 15.6 ps. However, this timer
 279 cannot be used as the local clock of the node to get timestamps triggered by
 280 the internal microcontroller events.

281 It is worth mentioning some other synchronization algorithms that com-
 282 bine the DW1000 transceiver with some other hardware components to cap-
 283 ture timestamps on the microcontroller timers or generate a Pulse Per Second
 284 (PPS) type output signal. The work in [31] proposes a time synchronization
 285 approach that is conceived as a side effect of the indoor localization proce-
 286 dure implemented with the DWM1001 Real-Time Location System (DRTLs)
 287 kit. The authors take advantage of the SFDLed output pin of the DW1000
 288 UWB transceiver, which is connected to the capture input of one timer, to
 289 obtain a reference signal for the reception timestamps. The results of this
 290 work characterize the OWR time synchronization performance of two nodes,
 291 obtaining a maximum jitter of 3.3 μ s and a standard deviation of 0.7 μ s.

292 Another example is the work in [32], where the microcontroller and the UWB
 293 transceiver share an external 38.4 MHz reference clock to enhance the preci-
 294 sion of the captured timestamps. In addition, a Phase-Locked Loop (PLL)
 295 circuit based on a chip-scale atomic clock has been integrated to increase the
 296 clock stability. With this platform and a synchronization protocol based on
 297 the TWR mechanism to cancel the ToF, the nodes provide a PPS output
 298 signal with an average accuracy of 2.12 ns and a standard deviation of 0.84
 299 ns. However, although this reference presents outstanding synchronization
 300 results, the cost of the hardware components employed hampers its practical
 301 use in applications requiring a large number of nodes like WSN. In [33] a
 302 synchronization algorithm denoted as Wicsync is presented. The network
 303 nodes have a PPS output and are based on the DWM1000 UWB transceiver
 304 and additional hardware implemented in a FPGA. The protocol relies on the
 305 TWR to collect the timestamps at the local clocks of the UWB transceivers.
 306 The experiments conducted show an instantaneous clock synchronization ac-
 307 curacy of 3.4 ns and an average time error of 0.141 ns covering distances up
 308 to 75m. Finally, reference [14] proposes a synchronization protocol utilizing
 309 low-cost hardware components and the DW1000 UWB transceiver. The pro-
 310 tocol allows the synchronization of all the nodes in the same radio range of
 311 the master node. It is based on the OWR mechanism and the SFDLeD output
 312 pin of the transceivers to sample the timestamps at the timers of the micro-
 313 controllers. The main contribution of this work is the proposal of a linear
 314 regression algorithm to achieve long-term synchronization of the local clocks
 315 of the microcontrollers with an accuracy in the order of tens of nanoseconds.
 316 However, the main limitation of this protocol is the impact that the distance
 317 separating the nodes has on the algorithm performance, since the ToF of the
 318 radio signal begins to be comparable to the error committed for distances
 319 greater than 5 meters.

320 Table 1 summarizes the synchronization protocols presented in this sec-
 321 tion. The table provides the mean error of the synchronization protocol, the
 322 wireless technology used, jointly with the platform and the transceiver inte-
 323 grated in the network nodes. The synchronization timer shows the hardware
 324 component that implements the register where the local clock is kept and
 325 the oscillator frequency.

326 As a conclusion, it should be pointed out that although there are many
 327 time synchronization algorithms for UWB devices in the literature most of
 328 them are designed to meet the requirements of the TDoA-based indoor lo-
 329 calization. The main goal of these methods is to synchronize the internal

Table 1: Summary of time synchronization protocols with different wireless technologies and platforms. The Synchronization Timer column indicates the hardware that comprises the register where the local clock is implemented and the frequency of its oscillator.

Reference	Mean error (one hop)	Technology/Platform/Transceiver	Synchronized timer with clock frequency or output signal
TPSN [16]	16.9 μ s	ASK 2.4 GHz/Mica/TR1000	Processor timer with 4MHz
RBS [17]	11.2 μ s	ASK 2.4 GHz/Mica/TR1000	Processor timer with 500KHz
FTSP [18]	1.48 μ s	FSK 2.4 GHz/Mica2/CC1000	Processor timer with 7.37MHz
RATS [20]	1.6 μ s	FSK 2.4 GHz/Mica2/CC1000	Processor timer with 125KHz
GTSP [22]	4 μ s	FSK 2.4 GHz/Mica2/CC1000	Processor timer with 921KHz
TinySync [19]	10.78 μ s	Zigbee/Telos/CC2420	Processor timer with 32KHz
AWS [21]	8.95 μ s	Zigbee/Telos/CC2420	Processor timer with 32KHz
[25]	1.5 ns	UWB/-/DW1000	TDoA using DW1000 timer with 64GHz
[26]	0.2 ns	simulation	TDoA estimation
[27]	0.8 ns	UWB/-/DW1000	TDoA using DW1000 timer with 64GHz
BLAS [28]	0.172 ns	UWB/STM32F427/DW1000	ToA using DW1000 timer with 64GHz
[29]	> 1 ns	UWB/STM32F103/DW1000	DWM1000 timer with 64GHz
[30]	40 ps	UWB/DWM1001/DW1000	DWM1000 timer with 64GHz
[31]	0.7 μ s	UWB/DWM1001/DW1000	SFDLed output signal
Pulsar [32]	2.12 ns	UWB/Specific/DW1000	PPS output signal
Wicsync [33]	0.141 ns	UWB/Specific/DW1000	PPS output signal

local clocks of the UWB transceivers of the system anchors. Thus, the algorithm presented in [30], which presents a significant synchronization accuracy, has been conceived to deal with the intrinsic features of the DW1000 local timer and the error produced during the timestamp capturing process in this transceiver. This fact prevents a direct application of this algorithm to the timestamps obtained in the microcontroller timer. Other approaches, such as [32] and [33], are focused on the development of synchronization hardware elements that provide an accurate PPS synchronization output, but they rely on specific and expensive hardware elements to achieve this objective. In contrast, our goal is the synchronization of the internal clocks of the low-cost microcontrollers embedded in the network nodes. The work presented in this paper is a continuation of the work included in reference [14], but in this case we propose a new algorithm that estimates the ToF of the RF signal and eliminates its impact in the synchronization process to improve the protocol accuracy. Therefore, the main contributions of this paper are twofold. On the one hand, the new protocol optimizes the acquisition of the timestamps at the network nodes to estimate the ToF accurately. On the other hand, the implementation of a long-term synchronization algorithm based on linear regression that is able to compensate for the error produced by the different ToF values estimated at every node.

350 3. Timestamps acquisition and ToF estimation

351 This section presents the protocol proposed to perform the acquisition
352 of the timestamps in the UWB transceivers and the microcontrollers of the
353 network nodes. The protocol considers that there is a master node respon-
354 sible of maintaining and disseminating the network global time. The master
355 periodically broadcasts packets for the other nodes to synchronize their lo-
356 cal clocks. All the network nodes are assumed to be within the radio range
357 of the master and keep their own local clocks in a timer of the microcon-
358 troller. The transmission and reception of a packet produces the acquisition
359 of timestamps at the UWB transceiver, but the capture of the timestamps
360 at the microcontroller is performed only on the reception. This is due to
361 the time capturing process implemented in the microcontroller, determined
362 by SFDLed output pin of the UWB transceiver. The SFDLed is activated
363 only in reception and as it was characterized in reference [14]. As it is shown
364 in [14], the activation of the SFD line on two UWB transceivers placed side
365 by side exhibited an average time difference and standard deviation of 2.3
366 ns and 22.4 ns, respectively. Therefore, the uncertainty in the SFDLed line
367 activation is low enough to allow the implementation of precise synchroniza-
368 tion protocols with the timestamps captured at the internal timers of the
369 microcontroller.

370 3.1. Synchronization packets transmission

371 As it is shown in Fig. 1, the synchronization algorithm will require an
372 accurate estimation of ToF of the RF signal received from the master and
373 for this, the protocol takes advantage of the UWB transceivers to get it. As
374 it is stated in the previous section, the ADS-TWR algorithm provides the
375 most precise estimate of the ToF. It requires requires the exchange of three
376 packets and the acquisition of 6 timestamps, (T1 to T6) in Fig. 1, at the
377 UWB transceivers.

378 The estimation of the ToF can be performed as it is explained in [23]:

$$TOF = \frac{T_{round1} \cdot T_{round2} - T_{reply1} \cdot T_{reply2}}{T_{round1} + T_{round2} + T_{reply1} + T_{reply2}} \quad (1)$$

379 For our goal, ADS-TWR must be performed sequentially between the
380 master and each node in the network. The ADS-TWR requires the trans-
381 mission of three packets per node, however an optimized protocol is proposed

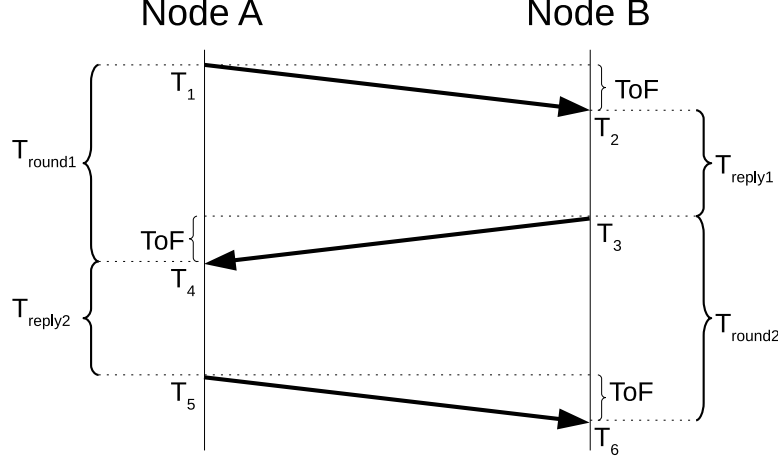


Figure 1: Three way packet exchange.

382 to reduce the total amount of packets. The sequence of synchronization pack-
 383 ets transmitted to capture the timestamps is depicted in the Fig. 2. Every
 384 node is assigned an address which establishes the order in which they per-
 385 form the packet exchange with the master. In the header of each packet,
 386 the master includes the address of the intended receiver that responds con-
 387 forming a two way packet exchange. The third packet servers to capture the
 388 last timestamps of the ADS-TWR procedure, but it is also the first packet
 389 transmission for the next node. Thus, using this protocol only two pack-
 390 ets per node are needed to implement the ADS-TWR algorithm, with the
 391 exception of the last node that requires a one final packet more to gather
 392 the 6 timestamps. As it is represented in Fig. 2, the UWB transceivers pro-
 393 vide timestamps in both cases, transmissions and receptions, these values are
 394 denoted as $T_{UWBn,m}$ where n is the node address and m is the timestamp
 395 number. In contrast, the microcontroller can only capture timestamps dur-
 396 ing packet reception, producing the marks $T_{MCUn,m}$, where n and m have the
 397 same meaning. The master regularly initiates a new round of synchroniza-
 398 tion packets transmission with a Synchronization Period (SP) that is set in
 399 advance.

400 3.2. ToF estimation

401 The protocol depicted in Fig. 2 allows every node to estimate the ToF of
 402 the RF signal during the packet exchange with the master. However, since

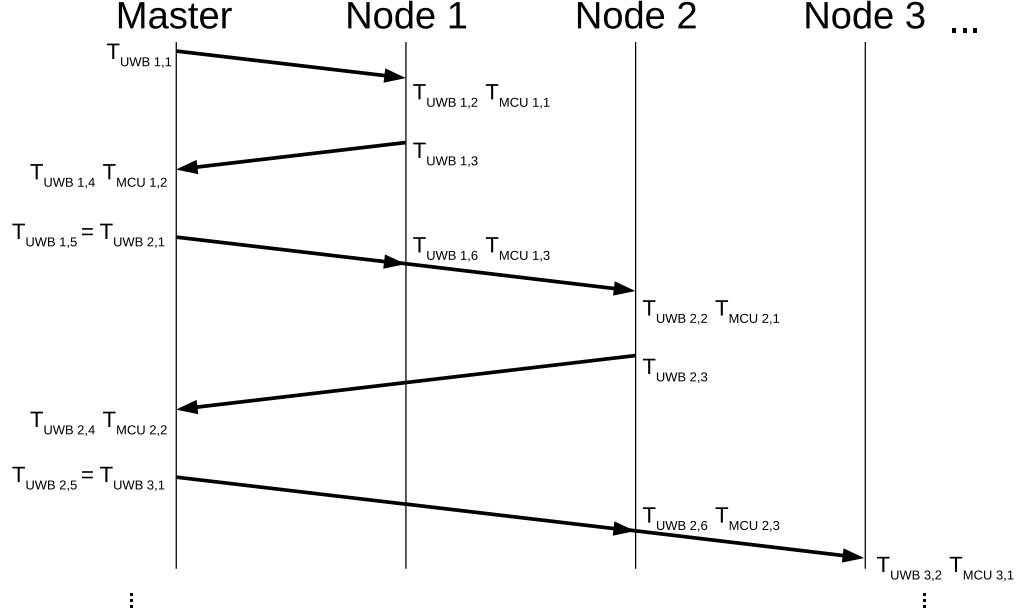


Figure 2: Sequence of synchronization packets transmitted to capture the timestamps at every node according to the proposed protocol.

the nodes are assumed to be static this value remains stable throughout the network operation time. Thus, it can be established a bootstrap procedure in which the nodes estimate the ToF using the ADS-TWR algorithm. Once all the nodes determine their ToF, the protocol in Fig. 2 changes to the OWR scheme since the nodes responses to the master synchronization packets are no longer needed. The master is aware of the end of this process by the lack of response packets from the nodes. At this stage, when all the nodes have completed the estimation of the ToF, the protocol changes and the master transmits only one broadcast packet periodically to synchronize all the nodes, reducing significantly the total amount of packets sent.

Notice that the ToF estimation stage is divided in two steps. The first one comprises the time required by the timers of the UWB transceivers to reach a steady operation. As it was reported by other authors [34] and the manufacturer of the transceiver [35], the instability at the beginning is related to the warm-up period of the crystal oscillators when each node starts its operation. The duration of this period can be determined by checking the

419 internal temperature of the UWB transceiver. Once the UWB chip reaches a
 420 steady operating temperature, the UWB clock becomes stable and the ToF
 421 estimation is more precise. Since the crystal oscillator stability depends on
 422 the variations of the internal temperature of the UWB transceiver, during
 423 this step the node waits for the stabilization of this temperature. Then, when
 424 the node boots up, the temperature rises rapidly, and after some minutes it
 425 reaches a steady value that remains stable during the rest of the network op-
 426 eration time. So, the detection of the end of the warm-up period is performed
 427 by the nodes sampling the UWB internal temperature and calculating an ap-
 428 proximation to its first derivative. The instant at which the approximation
 429 to the first derivative becomes zero determines the end of this period allowing
 430 the node to start the estimation of the ToF avoiding the initial fluctuations.

431 The second step is focused on is focused on the calculation of the ToF
 432 applying Eq. 1 to the UWB timestamps acquired with the synchronization
 433 packets. With every new transmission initiated by the master, the nodes
 434 calculate a new ToF value. These transmissions are repeated periodically
 435 after the SP, which constitutes a configuration parameter of the protocol.
 436 Nonetheless, these ToF values must be considered as random samples, since
 437 the timestamps acquisition process is affected by uncertainties in the signal
 438 reception and the SFD detection. After getting a sequence of samples, the
 439 nodes can calculate the average to achieve a more precise estimate of the
 440 real ToF. Thus, the goal of this step is to obtain an accurate estimate of the
 441 mean value of the ToF, denoted as μ_{ToF} , from the samples acquired $ToF(i)$.
 442 The estimate is calculated as:

$$\overline{ToF} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{ToF(i)}{n} \quad (2)$$

443 The divergence of this estimate from μ_{ToF} is given by the confidence inter-
 444 val. Thus, if $2\Delta_{ToF}$ is the confidence interval and $(1 - \alpha)$ is the corresponding
 445 confidence level with $0 < \alpha < 1$, both quantities are related as:

$$P(\mu_{ToF} - \Delta_{ToF} \leq \overline{ToF} \leq \mu_{ToF} + \Delta_{ToF}) = 1 - \alpha \quad (3)$$

446 which implies that after taking a given number of samples n , $\overline{ToF}$ lies within
 447 the confidence interval $2\Delta_{ToF}$ in a proportion equal to $(1 - \alpha)\%$. When
 448 ToF_i are observations of an independent and normally distributed random
 449 variable, the confidence interval for the unknown average μ_{ToF} is:

$$2\Delta_{ToF} = \overline{ToF} \pm t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}} \cdot \widehat{\sigma_{ToF}} \quad (4)$$

where $t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ is the $(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2})$ critical value for the Student's t distribution of a two-sided test with $(n - 1)$ degrees of freedom and $\widehat{\sigma_{ToF}}$ is the estimate of the standard error of the mean:

$$\widehat{\sigma_{ToF}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(ToF(i) - \overline{ToF})^2}{n(n-1)}} \quad (5)$$

Eq. 4 can also be used in the case of independent and identically distributed random variables, since according to the central limit theorem, as the number of samples n increases the distribution of $\overline{ToF}$ approaches the normal distribution. Thus, when the number of samples is $n > 100$, the condition of being independent and identically distributed random variables is sufficient to obtain an accurate result. Furthermore, when $n > 30$ the Student's t distribution of Eq. 4 can be replaced by the standard normal distribution and the value $t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ becomes $z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$, which represents the critical value for the standard normal distribution with a two-sided test and a confidence level $(1 - \alpha)$. From the tables of the standard normal distribution, it is observed that for a two-sided test and a confidence level of 95% the critical value is ± 1.96 . Applying this approximations, the confidence interval amplitude (CIA) can be defined as:

$$CIA = 1.96 \cdot \widehat{\sigma_{ToF}} \quad (6)$$

The calculation of the CIA provides an assessment of the accuracy of the ToF estimate and indicates whether the number of samples is sufficient to achieve the required precision. Thus, after the warm-up step, the nodes start the acquisition of ToF samples for the estimation of the mean of the ToF applying Eq. 2. In general, as the number of samples increases the CIA becomes narrower and the ToF estimate becomes more accurate. This bootstrap procedure ends when the CIA is below a specific threshold that guarantees the achievement of the expected accuracy. Although this method allows the automatic adjustment of the number of ToF samples required to estimate the mean, a minimum number of 100 samples must be taken to meet the approximations introduced in the algorithm.

477 4. Time synchronization algorithm

478 In this section, the algorithm for calculating the parameters of the syn-
 479 chronization model is described. As it has been mentioned, the network
 480 nodes integrate a microcontroller that keeps the local clock in an internal
 481 timer. This timer receives periodic impulses from a quartz crystal, which
 482 drifts from its nominal frequency due to the changing environmental condi-
 483 tions. Thus, the relative deviation that exists between the clocks of different
 484 nodes changes over time. Nevertheless, the relationship between the local
 485 clock of a node and the clock of the master can be assumed to be linear over
 486 short periods of time [21]. However, the parameters of the linear model
 487 change due to the different drift affecting each clock. Thus, the values of two
 488 clocks can be related by a linear model:

$$y(t) = \beta \cdot x(t) + \alpha \quad (7)$$

489 where $y(t)$ and $x(t)$ are the two clocks, t is the real time, β is the slope and
 490 α is the intercept. The parameters of this linear model change over time and
 491 must be recalculated.

492 The objective of the algorithm proposed in this work is to obtain a lin-
 493 ear model to turn the local clocks of the nodes into a common global clock.
 494 This global clock is maintained at the master which broadcasts it with the
 495 transmission of the synchronization packets received by the rest of the nodes.
 496 The collection of timestamps for calculating the linear model only requires
 497 the transmission of one broadcast packet. So, at this stage, after the comple-
 498 tion of the ToF estimation, the protocol implements the OWR transmission
 499 scheme with a given SP. To obtain the linear model, the timestamps of the
 500 global clock must be directly related to the timestamps captured in the in-
 501 ternal timers of the microcontrollers, which maintain the local clocks of the
 502 nodes. Since these timestamps are captured only at the reception of a packet,
 503 they can only be linked directly to the samples of the master UWB clock.
 504 Therefore, the master UWB timer will serve as the global common clock of
 505 the network to which all the local clocks of the nodes will be synchronized.
 506 The relationship between the master UWB clock and the nodes local clocks
 507 following a linear model can be expressed as:

$$T_{UWB}^M(t) = \beta_k \cdot T_{MCU}^k(t) + \alpha_k \quad (8)$$

508 where $T_{UWB}^M(t)$ is the master UWB clock, $T_{MCU}^k(t)$ is the k node local clock,
 509 β_k is the slope and α_k the intercept for the node k . However, this equation

510 does not take into account the delay of RF signal. Thus, this expression can
 511 be refined introducing the ToF of the RF signal:

$$T_{UWB}^M(t) = \beta_k \cdot (T_{MCU}^k(t) - \overline{ToF}_k) + \alpha_k \quad (9)$$

512 being $\overline{ToF}_k$ the mean estimate of the ToF of the RF signal transmitted
 513 from the master to the k node. With this model the relationship between
 514 the timestamps collected at the master UWB timer and the microcontrollers
 515 local clock can be expressed as:

$$T_{UWB}^M(i) = \beta_k \cdot (T_{MCU}^k(i) - \overline{ToF}_k) + \alpha_k + \eta_i \quad (10)$$

516 where $T_{UWB}^M(i)$ and $T_{MCU}^k(i)$ are the timestamps collected after the trans-
 517 mission of the i - th synchronization round and η_i is the error associated to
 518 the capturing process. This last term represents the uncertainty that affects
 519 the acquisition of the timestamps. As this process is completed entirely by
 520 hardware elements, just at the detection of the SFD field of the packet re-
 521 ceived, it is not required the intervention of software components that can
 522 introduce random delays in the timestamping process. Nevertheless, there
 523 are still sources of small errors that affect the precision of the timestamps
 524 acquisition, such as the RF signal multi-path or the randomness of SFDLed
 525 pin activation. Thus, this term is considered as additive white Gaussian noise
 526 $\eta \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$, being σ its standard deviation.

527 After collecting a sequence of WS samples formed by pairs of timestamps
 528 $(T_{UWB}^M(i), T_{MCU}^k(i))$ a least squares algorithm can be applied to obtain the
 529 estimates $\hat{\beta}_k$ and $\hat{\alpha}_k$ of the linear model. The constant WS indicates the
 530 window size of the linear regression applied. The least squares method does
 531 not require that the samples follow a specific statistical distribution. With
 532 the arrival of a new packet from the master, the nodes recalculate the linear
 533 model applying the least squares algorithm using a rolling window of size
 534 WS over the last pairs of timestamps collected.

535 Once the estimates $\hat{\beta}_k$ and $\hat{\alpha}_k$ are calculated by a node, it can predict
 536 future values of the global common clock from its own local clock samples.
 537 Thus, nodes can convert their local clock samples T_{MCU}^k into global clock
 538 values $\hat{T}_{UWB,k}^M$ by applying the equation:

$$\hat{T}_{UWB,k}^M = \hat{\beta}_k \cdot (T_{MCU}^k) + \hat{\alpha}_k \quad (11)$$

5. Performance Analysis

This section shows the obtained results in the synchronization of real nodes employing the proposed algorithm. The platform utilized is based on the microcontroller ATSAM21G18A from Microchip [36] and the UWB DW1000 transceiver from Qorvo [37]. Both components are connected using the SPI port and configured using the Arduino-dw1000 library [38]. As it was described in section 3, the acquisition of the timestamps in the microcontroller involves the activation of the SFDLed output pin of the UWB transceiver, which is connected to the capture input of a timer. This timer has been configured to be incremented by a clock signal with a frequency of 78.67 MHz. The setup for the experiment comprised four nodes that were deployed in an indoor corridor in the building of ETSE, University of Valencia. Fig. 3 shows an image of the nodes assembled. A more detailed schematic of the components and their interconnection can be found in [14].

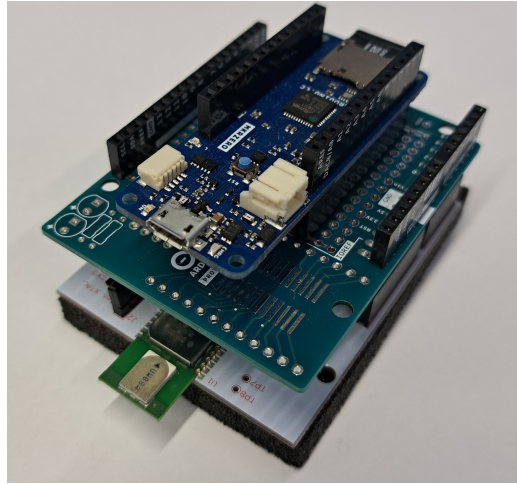


Figure 3: Image of the node assembled.

The placement of the nodes was selected to evaluate the impact of the ToF cancellation on the accuracy of the synchronization algorithm. To this end, the nodes of the network were deployed following the scheme depicted in Fig. 4. As it can be seen, there is a master node and two network nodes. Initially, the two network nodes were placed together at a position that was three meters away from the master. After the evaluation of this setup, one of the network nodes was moved away, changing gradually the distance between them from 0 to 25 meters in steps of 5 meters. During the conducted

561 experiments the master transmitted synchronization packets with a period
 562 of 200 ms. These packets were received at the two network nodes with a dis-
 563 tinct ToF delay due to the different distances from the master to them. The
 564 evaluation of the algorithm required the inclusion of a fourth node, which
 565 retransmits the packets of the master after a fixed delay. This fourth node,
 566 denoted as repeater in Fig. 4, was placed in all the experiments in the mid-
 567 dle point of the line connecting the two network nodes. The inclusion of
 568 the repeater node facilitates the evaluation of the synchronization algorithm
 569 since the packets sent from the repeater are received at both network nodes
 570 simultaneously. Thus, the timestamps captured at both network nodes with
 571 these packets should provide the same global time at both nodes. The re-
 572 peater was programmed to retransmit the synchronization packets from the
 573 master after 100 ms to avoid collisions. The goals of the experiments were
 574 focused on testing the validity of the ToF estimates and the accuracy of the
 575 synchronization algorithm.

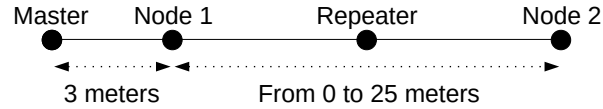


Figure 4: Deployment of the four nodes employed in the evaluation. Node 2 was moved away from node 1 in steps of 5 meters covering a total distance from 0 to 25 meters. Repeater was always placed at the midpoint between the two nodes.

576 5.1. Evaluation of the ToF estimation

577 In this section, the evaluation of the ToF estimation algorithm is pre-
 578 sented. As it was detailed in section 3.2, the nodes have to complete two
 579 steps. The first one covers the time needed by the UWB transceiver oscil-
 580 lator to stabilize. The duration of this period can be determined checking
 581 the internal temperature of the UWB transceiver. As it has been experimen-
 582 tally measured by testing the operation of several DW1000 transceivers, the
 583 internal temperature rises up very rapidly during the warm-up and remains
 584 stable after this period. The end of the warm-up interval is detected checking
 585 the internal temperature of the UWB transceiver. The algorithm acquires

586 the internal temperature of the UWB which is sampled every SP. The vec-
 587 tor with the temperature values is filtered with a triangular moving average
 588 filter to eliminate the sampling noise. After that, an approximation of the
 589 derivative of the temperature is calculated by taking the difference between
 590 consecutive samples and dividing by the SP. The end of the warm-up period
 591 is detected when the derivative is zero.

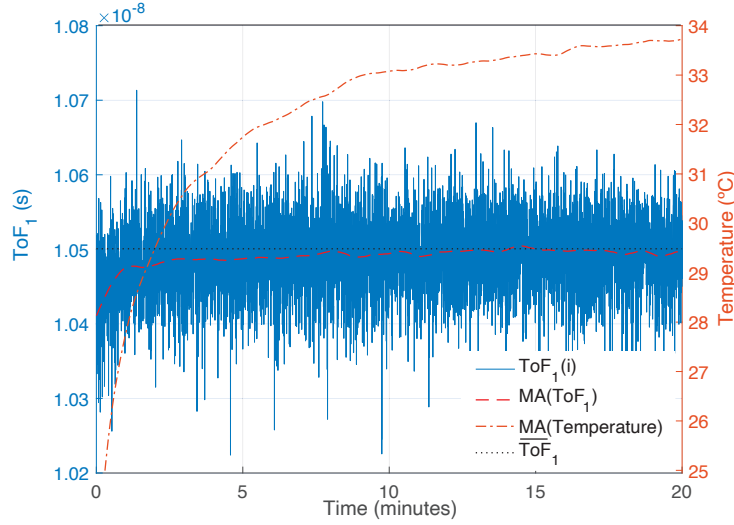


Figure 5: ToF_1 and moving average filtered internal temperature ($MA(Temperature)$) of node 1 placed 3 meters away from the master. ToF values include: a) $ToF_1(i)$, b) moving average filtered ToF_1 ($MA(ToF_1)$) and c) $\overline{ToF_1}$.

592 The experimental data collected to test the validity of the proposed warm-
 593 up period detection procedure corresponds to the case where the two network
 594 nodes were placed at distances of 3 meters and 8 meters from the master.
 595 The experiment lasted 6 hours in a corridor with a constant temperature of
 596 24 °C. The packet exchange implemented to calculate the ToF followed the
 597 scheme presented in Fig. 2 and the internal temperature of the nodes was
 598 acquired with a sampling period of 200 ms. Fig. 5 and 6 present for the each
 599 node the instantaneous ToF, the filtered ToF obtained applying a triangular
 600 moving average filter and the mean of the ToF value computed considering all
 601 the samples taken during the test. Additionally, the moving average filtered
 602 internal temperature of the nodes is also plotted. Considering these graphs,
 603 it can be seen that the temperature and ToF estimate increase rapidly at the

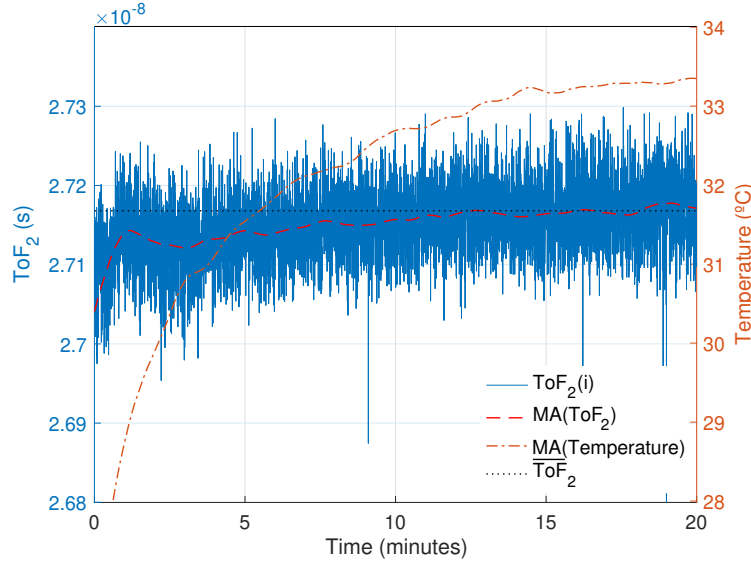


Figure 6: ToF_2 and moving average filtered internal temperature ($MA(Temperature)$) of node 2 placed 8 meters away from the master. ToF values include: a) $ToF_2(i)$, b) moving average filtered ToF_2 ($MA(ToF_2)$) and c) $\bar{ToF}_2$.

beginning, but after a few minutes both parameters remain stable. Therefore, the conclusion to be drawn from these graphs is that there is an significant correlation between them. Thus, the lower fluctuation of the temperature will lead to a more precise determination of the end of warm-up stage. The detection of this instant can be performed searching the first sample where the approximation of the temperature derivative is zero. As it is depicted in Fig. 7, for both nodes this occurs after about 10 minutes of operation.

Once the end of the warm-up is found the second step of the ToF estimate can start. This process involves the calculation of the ToF and the CIA as they were introduced in section 3.2. The goal is to determine the minimum number of samples that can provide a representative estimate of the ToF. These samples are posterior to the end of the warm-up period and are used to calculate the estimate of the ToF using Eq. 2. This second step finishes when the CIA calculated with Eq. 6 is below a certain threshold which is sufficient to guarantee the precision required in the ToF estimation. In this evaluation, the threshold for the CIA was selected as 1 click of the UWB timer. When the CIA is below this threshold the ToF estimation stage ends and the sample mean calculated with Eq. 2 becomes the estimate that will

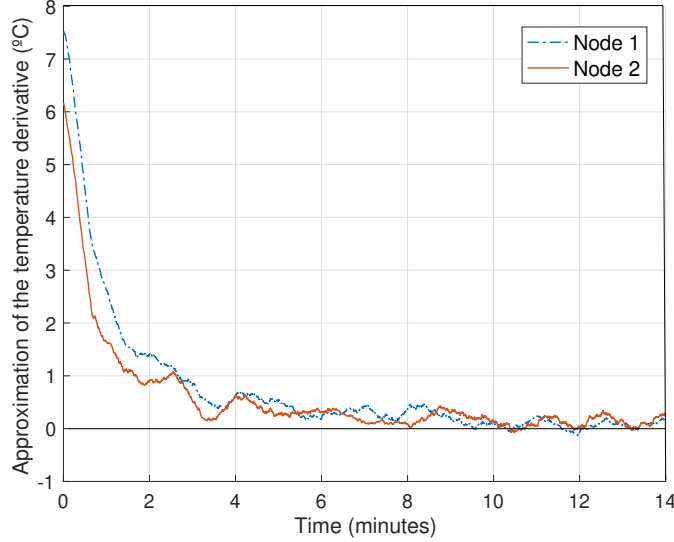


Figure 7: Approximation of the internal temperature derivatives of the UWB transceivers.

622 be used during the clock synchronization. Fig. 8 and 9 show the CIA for
 623 both nodes and the difference between the sample mean of ToF with the
 624 number of samples taken to that point and the mean considering all the
 625 samples collected during the 6 hours of the experiment. The point where the
 626 algorithm collected the first 100 samples has been marked with a vertical line.
 627 This is the minimum number of samples that the algorithm has to take due
 628 to the approximations considered in Eq. 6. In this experiment, since the CIA
 629 for both nodes is lower than 1 UWB timer click after the first 100 samples,
 630 that is the point where the ToF estimation ends. As it can be seen, the
 631 error introduced taking this estimate with $n = 100$ is practically negligible
 632 compared with the estimate obtained considering all the samples collected
 633 during the experiment.

634 5.2. Evaluation of the clock synchronization

635 As it has been previously mentioned, the objective of the proposed algo-
 636 rithm is the attainment of a linear model capable of turning the local time
 637 of the nodes into the global common clock. After the estimation of the ToF,
 638 the next experiments evaluate the accuracy of the synchronization algorithm
 639 introduced in section 4. The deployment of the nodes was carried out consid-
 640 ering several distances, as it is represented in Fig. 4, and the SP was 200 ms.

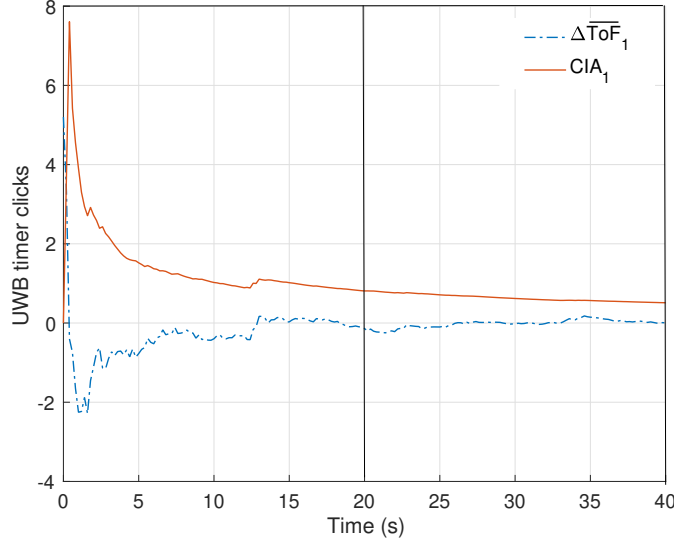


Figure 8: Values of CIA_1 and $\Delta\overline{ToF}_1$ for node 1 placed 3 meters away from the master. $\Delta\overline{ToF}_1$ is the difference between the sample mean $\overline{ToF}_1$ with the number of samples obtained to that instant and the mean considering all the samples collected in the experiment. Vertical line indicates the point with $n = 100$ samples. The UWB timer click for the DW1000 transceiver is 15.6 ps.

641 The estimation of the linear regression parameters relied on a rolling window
642 containing the last WS samples. Every sample i was formed by a couple
643 of timestamps one from the master UWB timer, which represents the global
644 common clock, and the microcontroller timer of the k node, considered as
645 its local clock, $(T_{UWB}^M(i), T_{MCU}^k(i))$. The linear model applied follows the ex-
646 pression in Eq. 9 and the estimation of $\hat{\beta}_k$ and $\hat{\alpha}_k$ is updated with every new
647 synchronization packet from the master. The WS value has been fixed to 3,
648 as it was observed in previous experiments [14] that achieves the best results.
649 The experiments lasted 6 hours for each placement and the temperature of
650 the corridor was stable with values between 24°C and 25°C all the time.

651 The assessment of the synchronization accuracy is based on the calcu-
652 lation of the difference of the predicted global times provided by the two
653 network nodes for the timestamps captured after the repeater transmissions.
654 Since the repeater is equidistant from the two network nodes, they receive
655 its packets simultaneously. The timestamps obtained after the arrival of the
656 repeater packets are captured at the same instant on both nodes. Therefore,

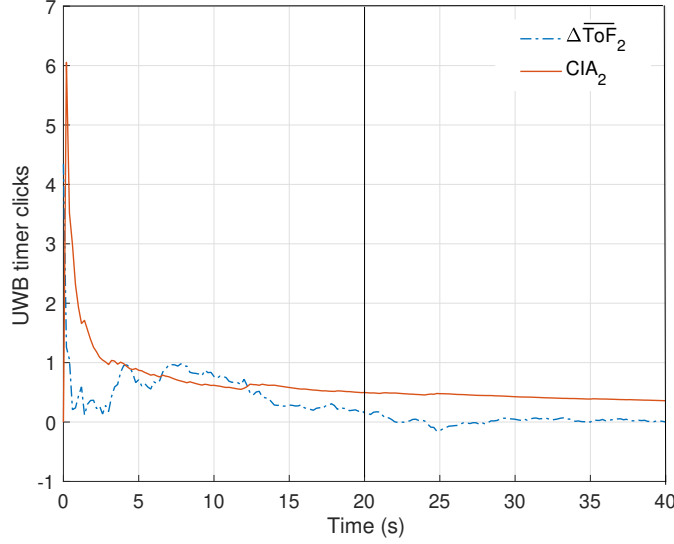


Figure 9: Values of CIA_2 and $\Delta\overline{ToF}_2$ for node 2 placed 8 meters away from the master. $\Delta\overline{ToF}_2$ is the difference between the sample mean of ToF_2 with the number of samples taken to that point and the mean considering all the samples collected in the experiment. Vertical line indicates the point with $n = 100$ samples.

they should provide the same global time values for these timestamps. The predicted global times at the two networks nodes are calculated as:

$$\hat{T}_{UWB,1}^M(i) = \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot T_{MCU}^1(i) + \hat{\alpha}_1 \quad (12)$$

$$\hat{T}_{UWB,2}^M(i) = \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot T_{MCU}^2(i) + \hat{\alpha}_2 \quad (13)$$

where $\hat{T}_{UWB,1}^M(i)$ and $\hat{T}_{UWB,2}^M(i)$ are the global time values calculated at the two nodes after capturing the local clocks timestamps $T_{MCU}^1(i)$ and $T_{MCU}^2(i)$, when the repeater has transmitted the $i - th$ packet. With these values the absolute difference between the global time predicted by the two nodes can be calculated:

$$|e_r(i)| = |\hat{T}_{UWB,1}^M(i) - \hat{T}_{UWB,2}^M(i)| \quad (14)$$

The evaluation of the synchronization accuracy is carried out calculating the average of the sequence of $|e_r(i)|$ values obtained after each repeater

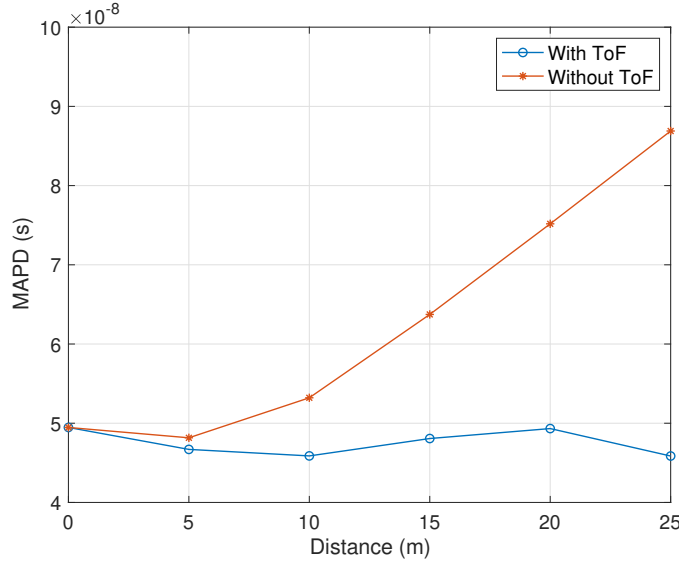


Figure 10: Mean absolute prediction difference (MAPD) of the global clock at two network nodes using the nodes local clocks. The distance between the nodes changes from 0 to 25 meters. Two linear models with and without ToF were considered.

transmission. The resulting term is denoted as the Mean Absolute Prediction Difference (MAPD).

The evaluation has also considered the case in which the linear regression is calculated without including the ToF between the master and the node. In this case, the linear model follows the expression given in Eq. 8 and the regression is performed using only the timestamps gathered ($T_{UWB}^M(i)$, $T_{MCU}^k(i)$), without the ToF estimate. The comparison of the results obtained with both approaches determines the improvement achieved with the inclusion of the ToF delay in the model. The results shown in Fig. 10 comprise various positions for the node 2, which is moved away to change the distance between the two network nodes in an interval from 0 to 25 meters. As it can be noticed, for distances greater than 5 meters the model without ToF produces higher MAPD values, being this difference more pronounced as the separation between the nodes increases. Finally, with a separation of 25 meters, the MAPD value for the regression without ToF doubles the value achieved with the model that considers this delay. The difference in synchronization accuracy at this last position coincides with the ToF delay to cover the 25 meters. Table 2 presents the statistics of the results achieved

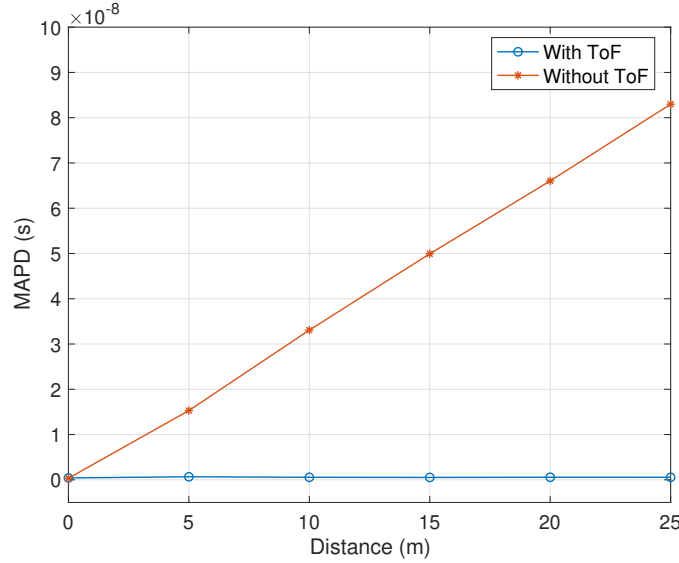


Figure 11: Mean absolute prediction difference (MAPD) of the global clock at two network nodes using the nodes UWB clocks. The distance between the nodes changes from 0 to 25 meters. Two linear models with and without ToF were considered.

684 for the synchronization at the MCU. All the files containing the timestamps
685 collected in these experiments are available online¹.

686 Although the main goal of this work is the synchronization of the local
687 clocks of the nodes with the UWB clock of the master, the same experi-
688 ments were performed using the UWB clocks of the nodes. The objective
689 of this evaluation is to corroborate that the same improvement can also be
690 achieved in the synchronization between the timers of the UWB transceivers.
691 The procedure followed in this experiment was the same but changing the
692 timestamps coming from the microcontroller timers to the UWB timers of
693 the nodes. Thus, the least squares algorithm is computed with the terms
694 $(T_{UWB}^M(i), T_{UWB}^k(i))$, where $T_{UWB}^k(i)$ is the timestamp captured at the UWB
695 transceiver of the k node after the transmission of the i synchronization
696 packet from the master. Fig. 11 shows the results of this experiment and co-
697 incides with the previous case in the divergence of the estimate of the global
698 clock with the distance. Thus, when the nodes are 25 m apart, the MAPD

¹<https://www.uv.es/jjperezs/com/Data.zip>

Table 2: Statistics of the synchronization results achieved at the MCU for all the distances considered when the ToF is cancelled (With ToF) and not cancelled (Without ToF). Values shown are: Mean Absolute Prediction Difference (MAPD), Standard Deviation of the Absolute Prediction Difference (STD) and 99th Percentile of the Absolute Prediction Difference (P99).

Distance	With ToF						Without ToF					
	0m	5m	10m	15m	20m	25m	0m	5m	10m	15m	20m	25m
MAPD (ns)	49.4	46.6	45.8	48.0	49.3	45.8	49.4	48.3	53.2	63.7	74.0	86.8
STD (ns)	37.5	35.3	34.8	36.4	37.6	33.3	37.5	36.7	39.8	45.4	49.8	40.6
P99 (ns)	160.7	152.4	148.7	156.7	161.3	155.9	157.1	156.9	168.1	190.1	192.3	188.2

Table 3: Statistics of the synchronization results achieved at the UWB for all the distances considered when the ToF is cancelled (With ToF) and not cancelled (Without ToF). Values shown are: Mean Absolute Prediction Difference (MAPD), Standard Deviation of the Absolute Prediction Difference (STD) and 99th Percentile of the Absolute Prediction Difference (P99).

Distance	With ToF						Without ToF					
	0m	5m	10m	15m	20m	25m	0m	5m	10m	15m	20m	25m
MAPD (ns)	0.41	0.67	0.55	0.52	0.56	0.55	0.34	16.0	33.0	49.9	66.3	82.9
STD (ns)	0.28	0.31	0.35	0.30	0.35	0.39	0.24	0.35	0.48	0.35	0.48	0.48
P99 (ns)	1.20	1.42	1.52	1.30	1.51	1.63	1.03	16.9	34.2	50.7	67.5	84.1

699 is less than 1 ns for the model with ToF and rises to 83 ns for the model
700 without ToF. This error comes from the different ToF of the RF signal and
701 coincides with the time required for the signal to cover this distance. Table
702 3 presents the statistics of the results achieved for the synchronization at the
703 UWB.

704 5.3. Comparison of the proposed algorithm with the related work

705 The main contribution of this work is the proposal of a new algorithm that
706 using the DW1000 transceiver can synchronize accurately the timers inside
707 the microcontrollers of the network nodes. As it can be seen in Table 2, with
708 timers operating with 78.67 MHz clocks, the mean error committed is tens of
709 nanoseconds, regardless of the distance between the master and slave nodes.
710 These results can be compared with those provided by protocols found in the
711 literature and summarized in Table 1 whose objective is the synchronization
712 of a processor timer. As it can be seen, the proposed algorithm achieves a
713 synchronization accuracy of the processor timer much better than the cited
714 works and outperforms these references. It should also be noted that the
715 network nodes have been designed using only low-cost components. Thus,
716 the computational complexity of the synchronization algorithm has been kept
717 low to facilitate its implementation in devices with very limited resources.

718 6. Conclusions

719 The work presented in this paper proposes a new synchronization algo-
720 rithm for WSN based on UWB communications. This technology allows
721 the acquisition of precise timestamps after the arrival of the synchroniza-
722 tion packets at both the UWB transceiver and the microcontroller. The
723 algorithm allows the synchronization of the local clocks of the nodes to the
724 global common clock maintained in the UWB transceiver of the master. This
725 synchronization permits the timestamping of local events and the data sam-
726 pling process with a common global clock shared by all the network nodes.
727 Thus, the protocol enables the implementation of collaborative tasks that
728 need a precise time synchronization and the temporal alignment of the data
729 coming from different nodes in applications requiring high sampling rates.

730 Since the ToF of the radio signal coming from the master is different for
731 every node, the linear model obtained without considering this delay do not
732 provide correct results when the distances from the master to the nodes is
733 above 10 meters. Thus, the algorithm includes an initial stage where the

nodes estimate this delay to cancel it during the synchronization process. To avoid the initial fluctuations of the ToF during the warm-up period of the UWB transceiver, the algorithm samples the internal temperature of the UWB transceiver and rules out the ToF values obtained before its stabilization. Once the temperature of the UWB transceiver becomes stable, the algorithm calculates the confidence interval of the sample mean to obtain an accurate estimation of the ToF with a reduced number of samples. During this stage, the master exchanges a sequence of three packets with each node to collect the six timestamps in the UWB transceivers required to apply the ADS-TWR algorithm. Since the transmission of the third packet from the master can be reused as the first packet for the following node, only two packets are actually needed for each node, with the exception of the last one that needs three packets. The presented results show that an accurate ToF estimate can be achieved with one hundred samples.

Once the ToF dependence is removed, the linear model relating the clocks of the master and the nodes provides accurate results regardless of their positions. During the synchronization stage the packet transmission scheme changes to the OWR, because only one broadcast packet is enough to synchronize all the nodes in the radio range of the master. The linear model is obtained applying the well-known least squares method over a rolling window comprising the last three pairs of timestamps captured at the master UWB transceiver and the node local clock. When local clocks of the nodes are implemented with an internal timer of the microcontrollers, the difference between the global clock predicted in two nodes is in order of tens of nanoseconds. In the case of using the UWB timers to establish the local clocks of the nodes, this difference becomes less than one nanosecond.

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