

# High resolution frequency counters

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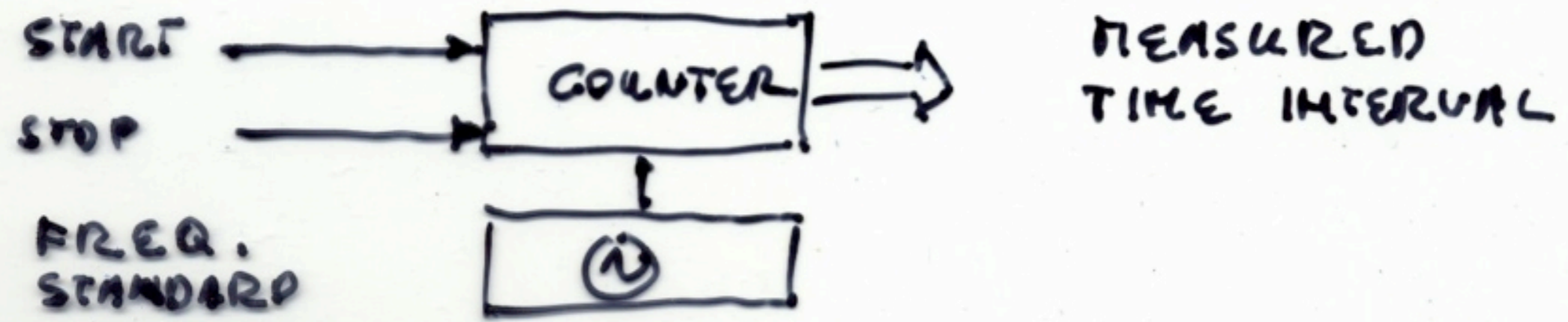
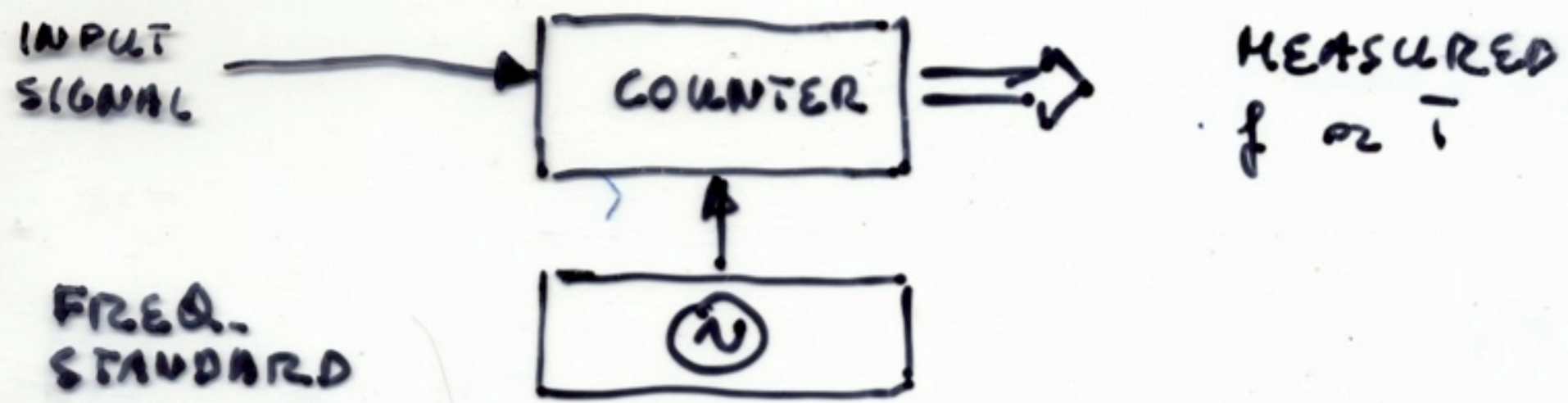
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## Outline

- 1. Digital hardware**
- 2. Basic counters**
- 3. Microwave counters**
- 4. Interpolation**
  - time-interval amplifier
  - frequency vernier
  - time-to-voltage converter
  - multi-tap delay line
- 5. Basic statistics**
- 6. Advanced statistics**

home page <http://rubiola.org>

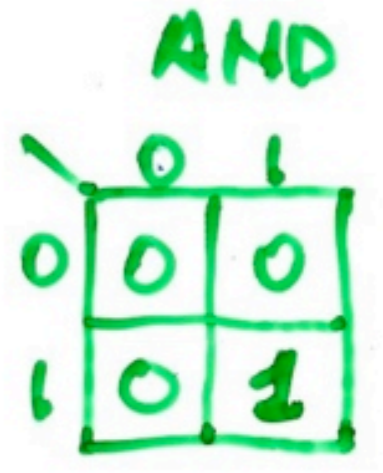
# COUNTER



- 1 How to compare the input signal ( $f, T, T_I$ ) to the frequency standard
- 2 How to avoid deprecation of the standard's metrological performances

# 1 – Digital hardware

# BASIC CELL



Count the number  $N$  of pulses ( $\pm 1$ )

$$N = fT$$

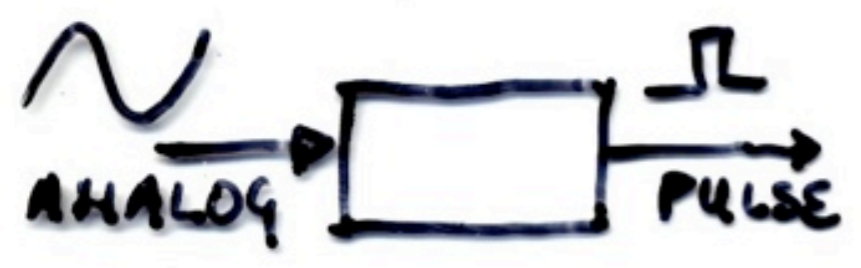
reference $f$ $T$	$N = fT$ measura $T$ $f$	resolution $\frac{\delta T}{T} = \frac{1}{N}$ $\frac{\delta f}{f} = \frac{1}{N}$
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The resolution is limited by the measurement time  $T$ , and by the maximum switching frequency

200 MHz typ.  $\rightarrow$  resolution 5 ns

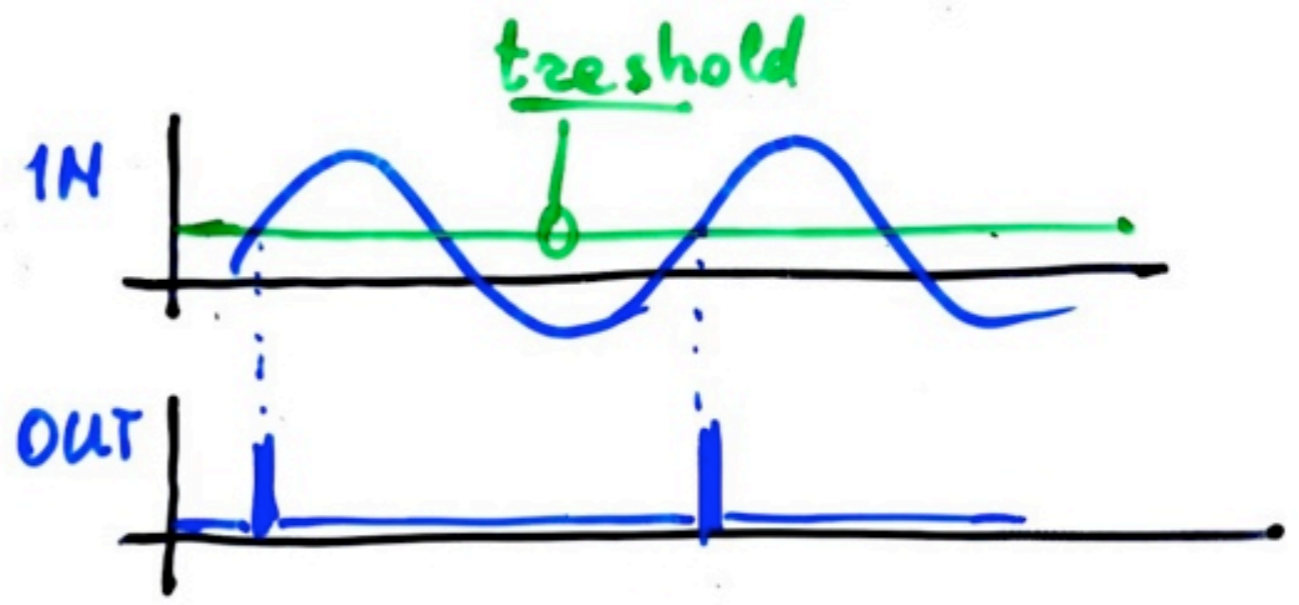
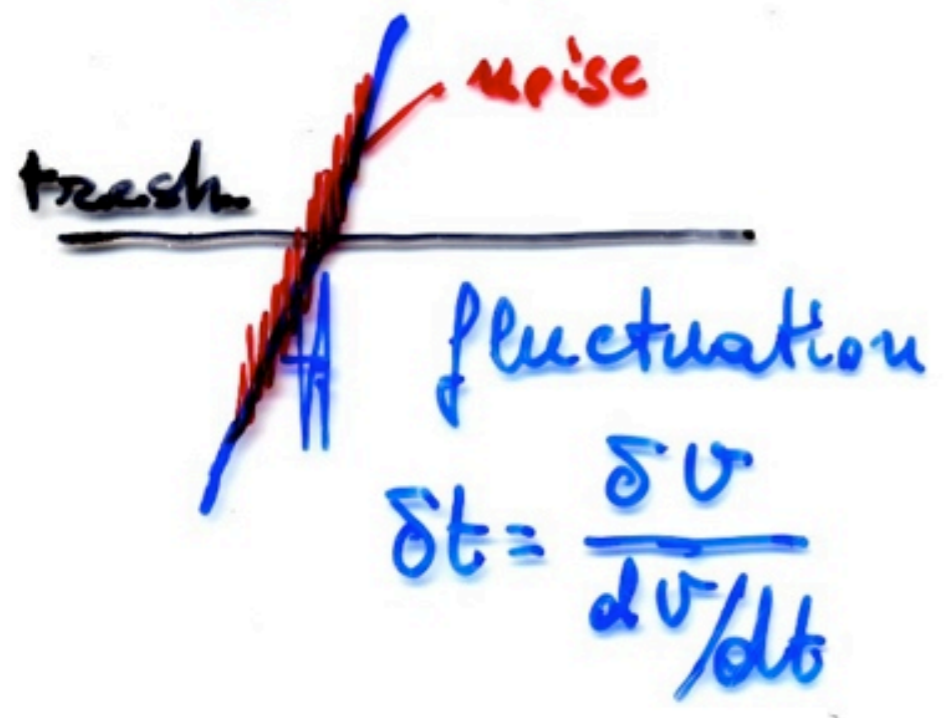
HIGHER RESOLUTION  $\rightarrow$  INTERPOLATION

# TRIGGER



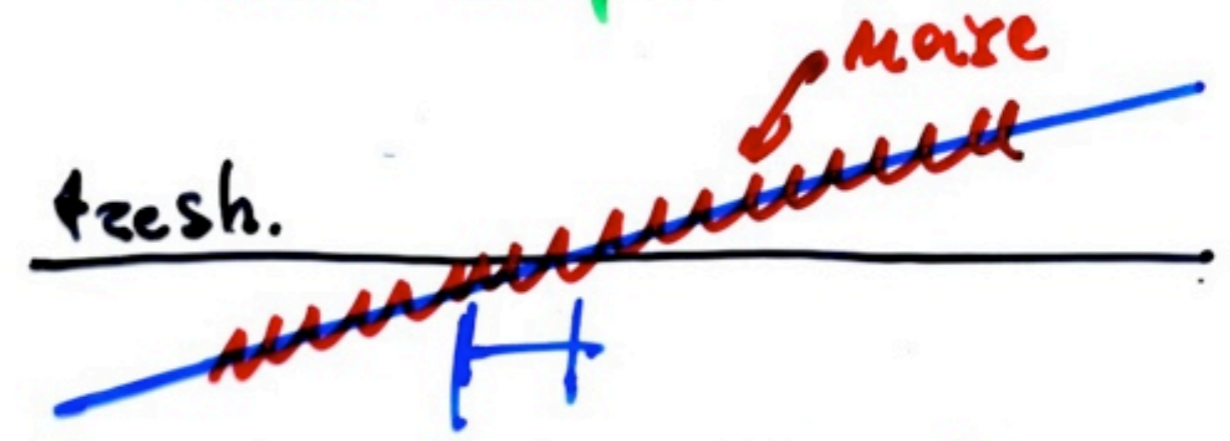
- TRIVIAL FUNCTIONS
- 50 Ω, AC/DC
  - level, slope

TRIGGER → fast device  
high slope



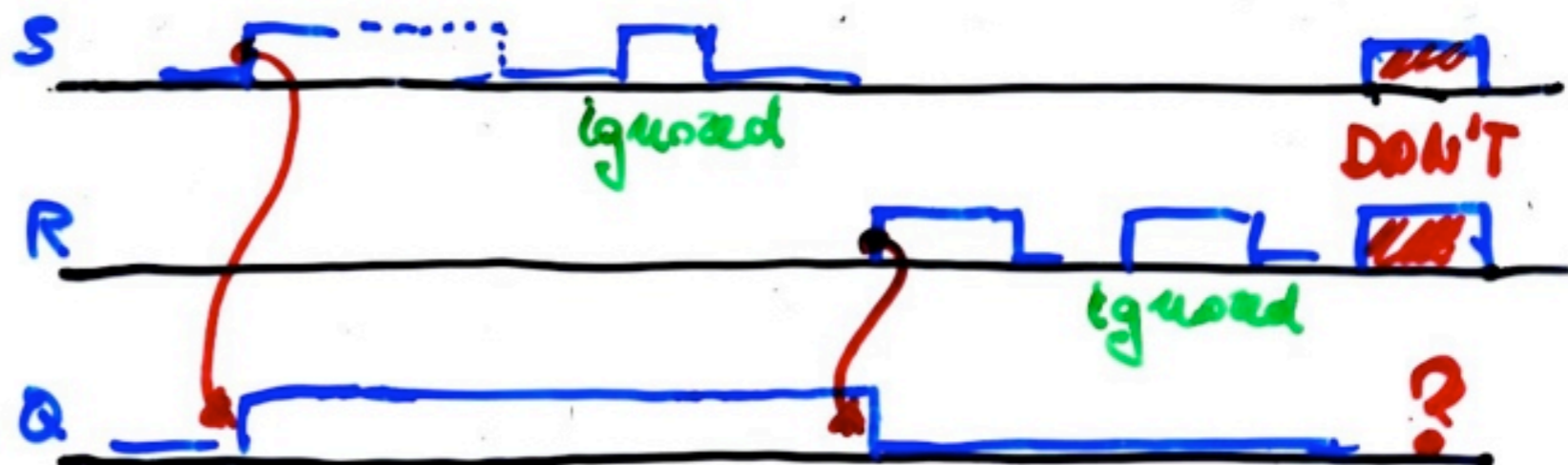
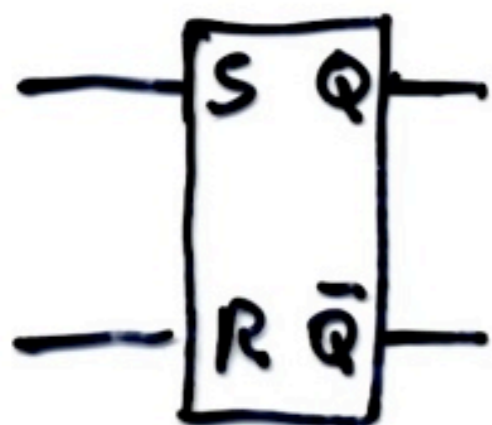
## HYSTERESIS

→ wide noise bandwidth  
low slope



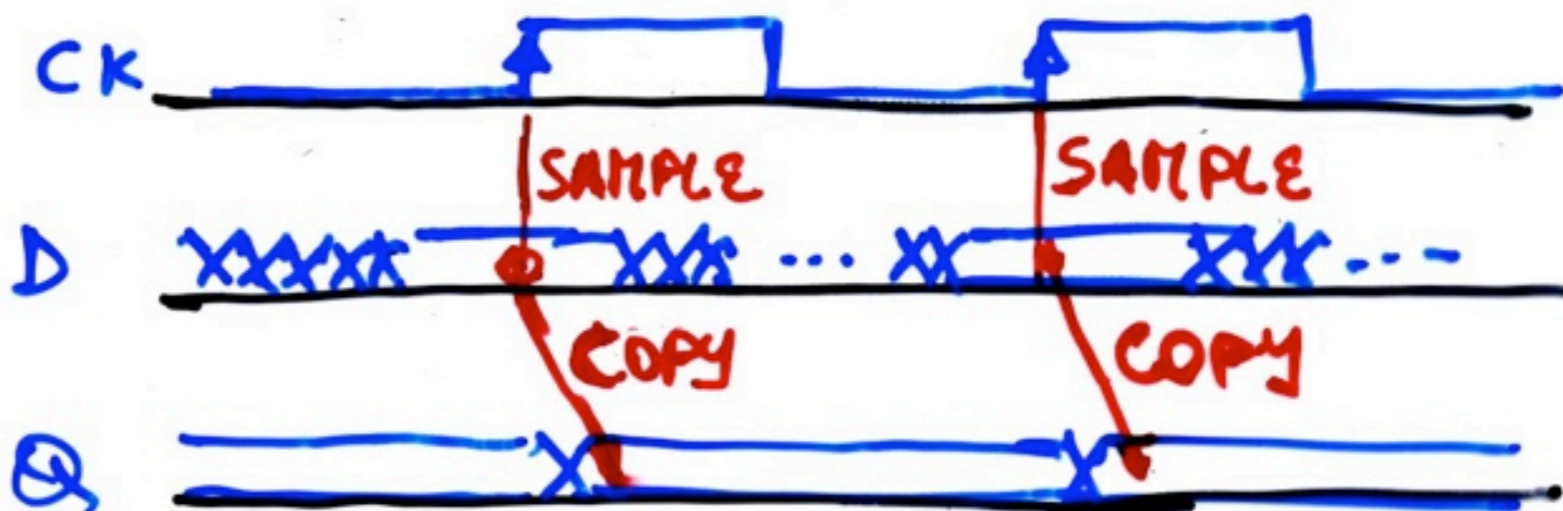
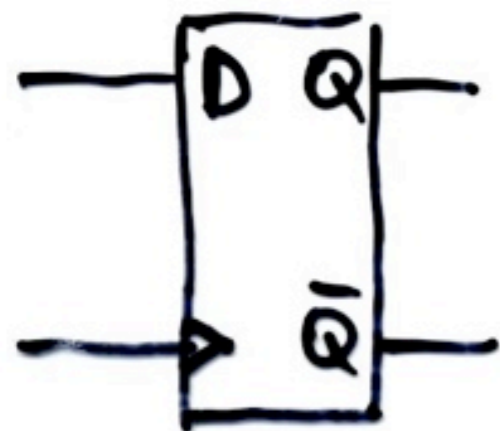
FIRST CROSSING of a random process: difficult mathematical problem

# SET-RESET FLIP-FLOP



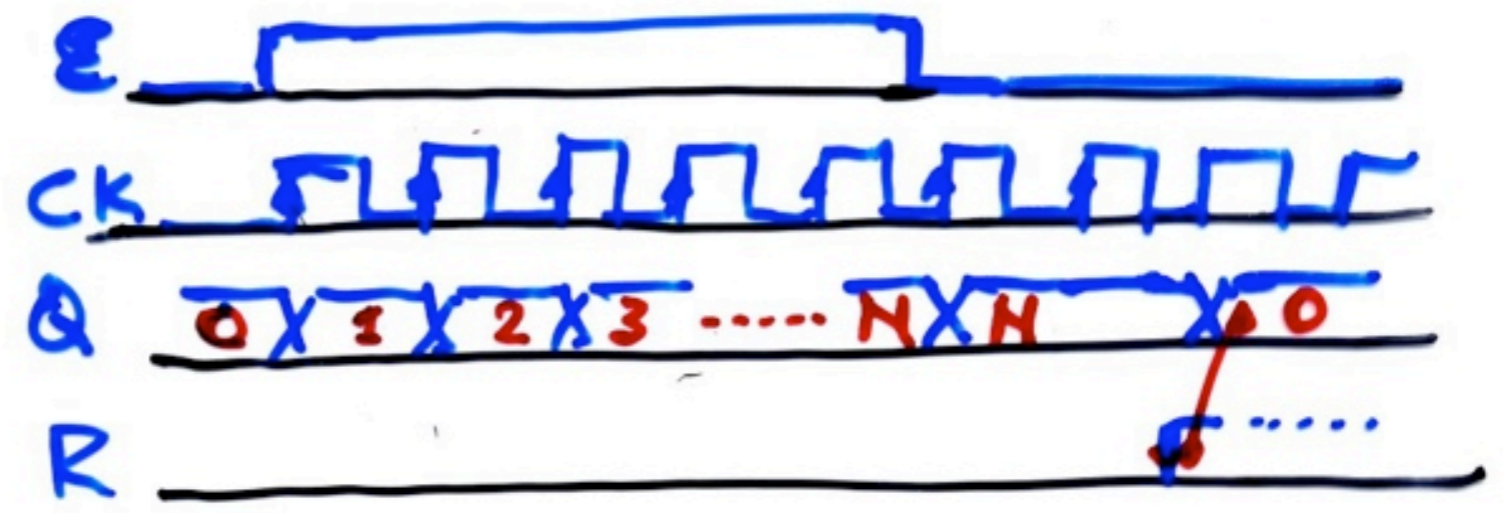
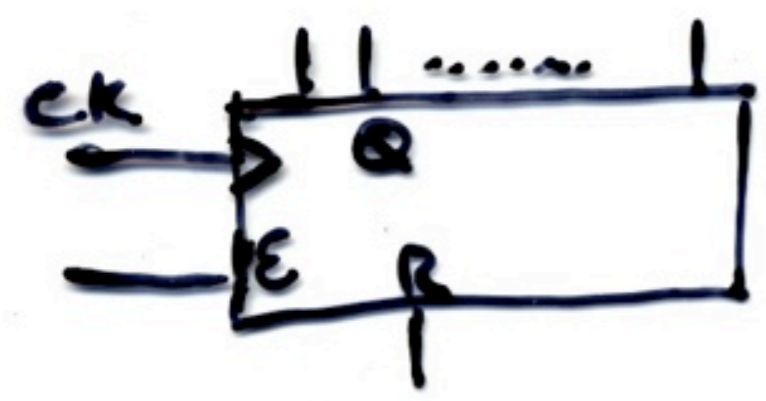
The SR flip-flop is a dual-button switch

# D-TYPE FLIP-FLOP



The D-type flip-flop samples the input D during the rising edge of the clock, and copies  $D \rightarrow Q$

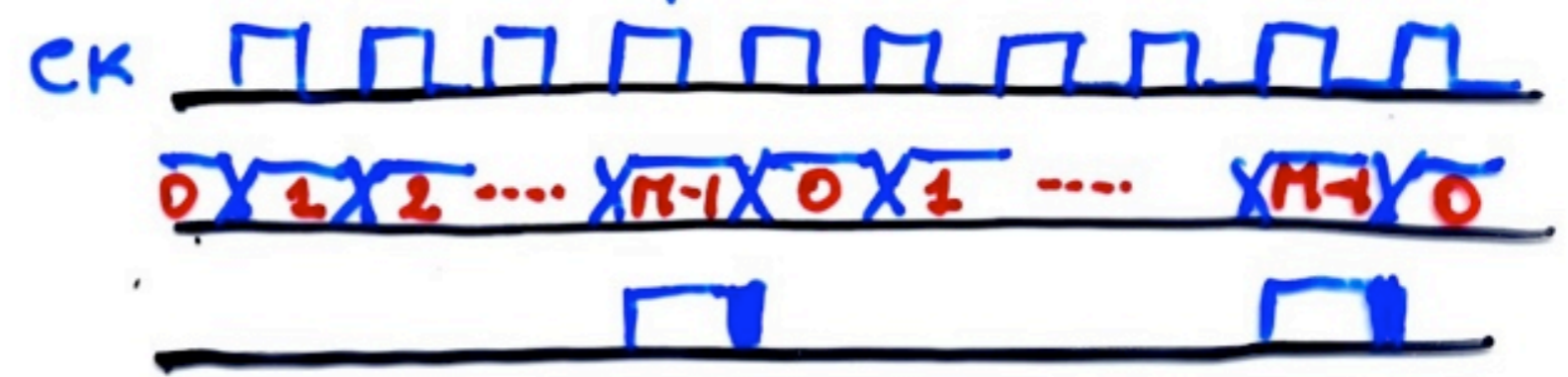
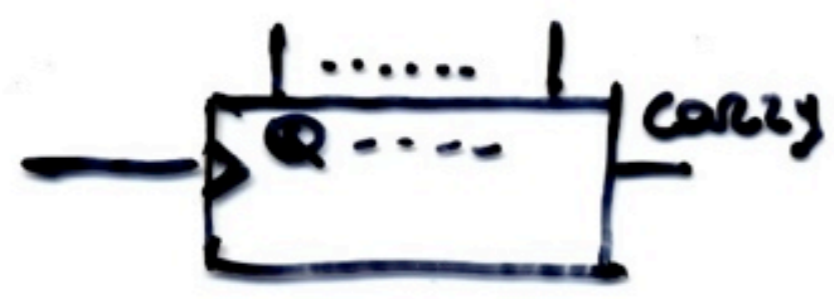
# COUNTER



Counts the number of rising edges of the clock  
 E → enable                      R → Reset

# DIVIDER

counts modulo M from 0 to M-1

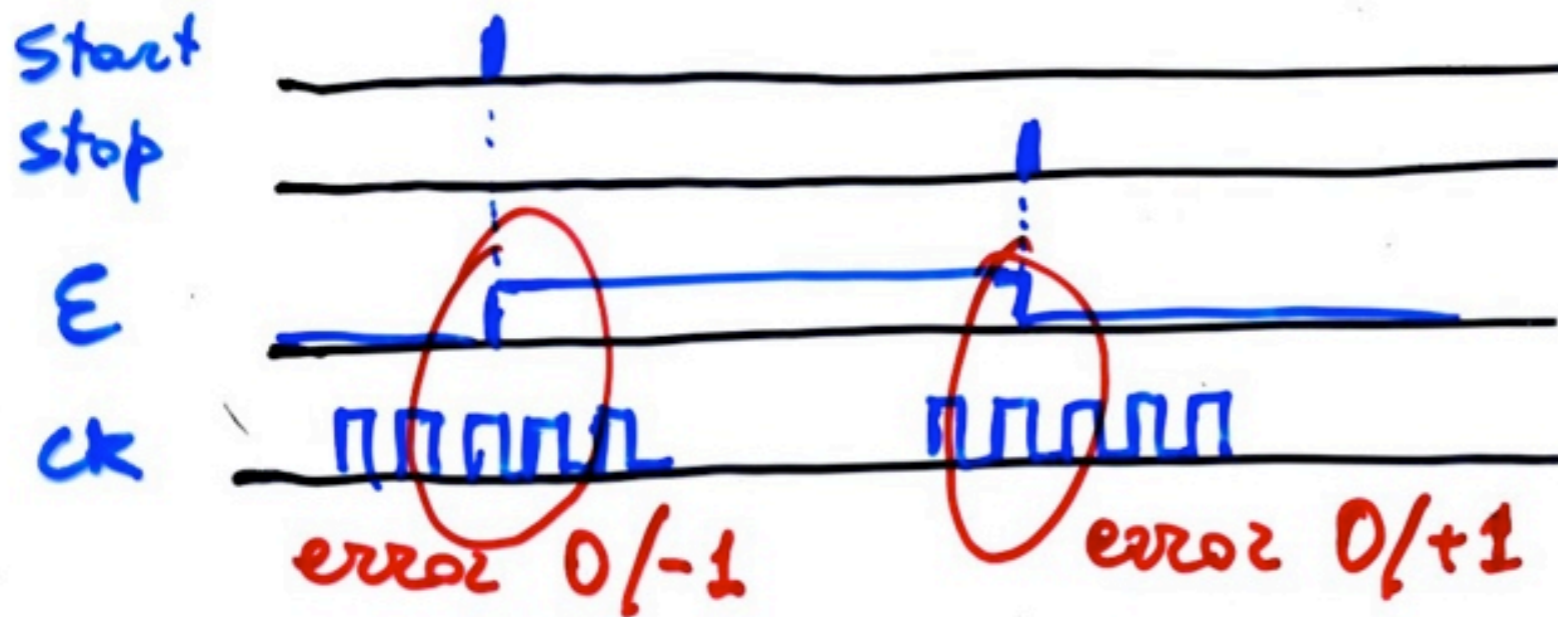
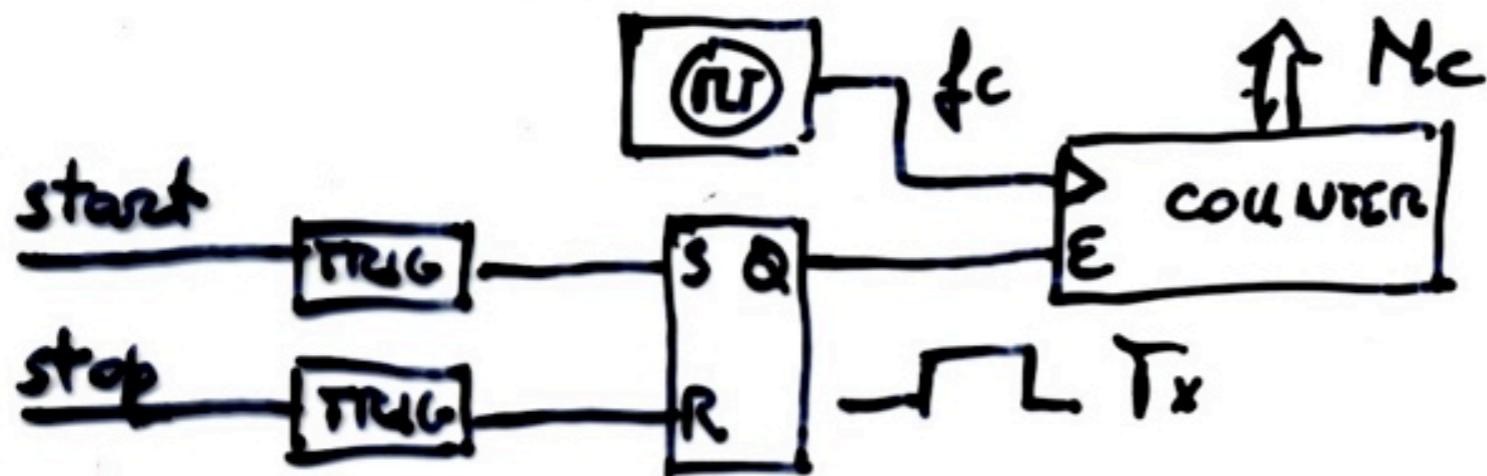


A counter and a divider are almost the same thing. Often a counter has a sufficiently large no. of bits, for it does not overflow.

## **2 – Basic counters**



# TIME INTERVAL COUNTER



$N_c$  clock pulses are counted

estimated  $T_x$

$$T_x = N_c T_c = N_c / f_c$$

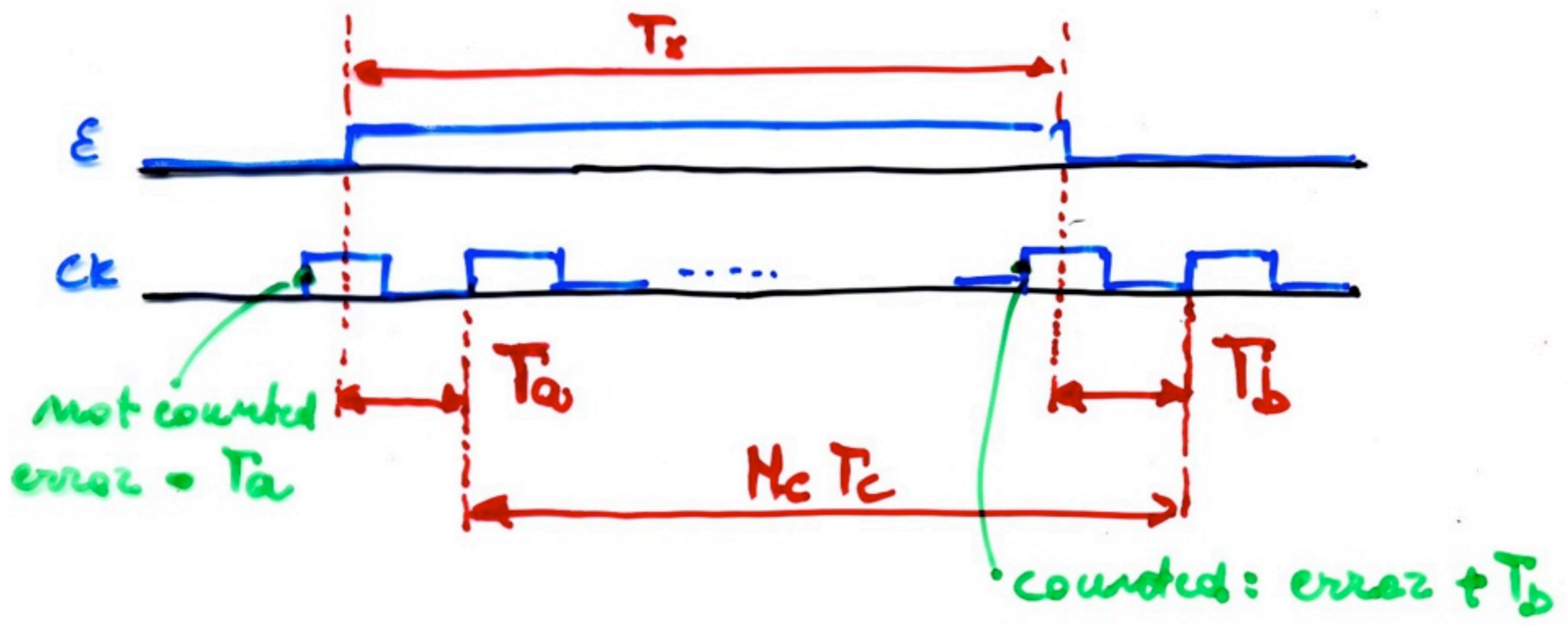
RESOLUTION  $\leftrightarrow$  QUANTIZATION

$$\delta N_c = 1 \quad (\pm 1)$$

$$\frac{\delta T_x}{T_x} = \frac{1}{N_c} \Leftrightarrow \delta T_x = T_c$$

use the highest possible  $f_c$

# INTERPOLATION PROBLEM



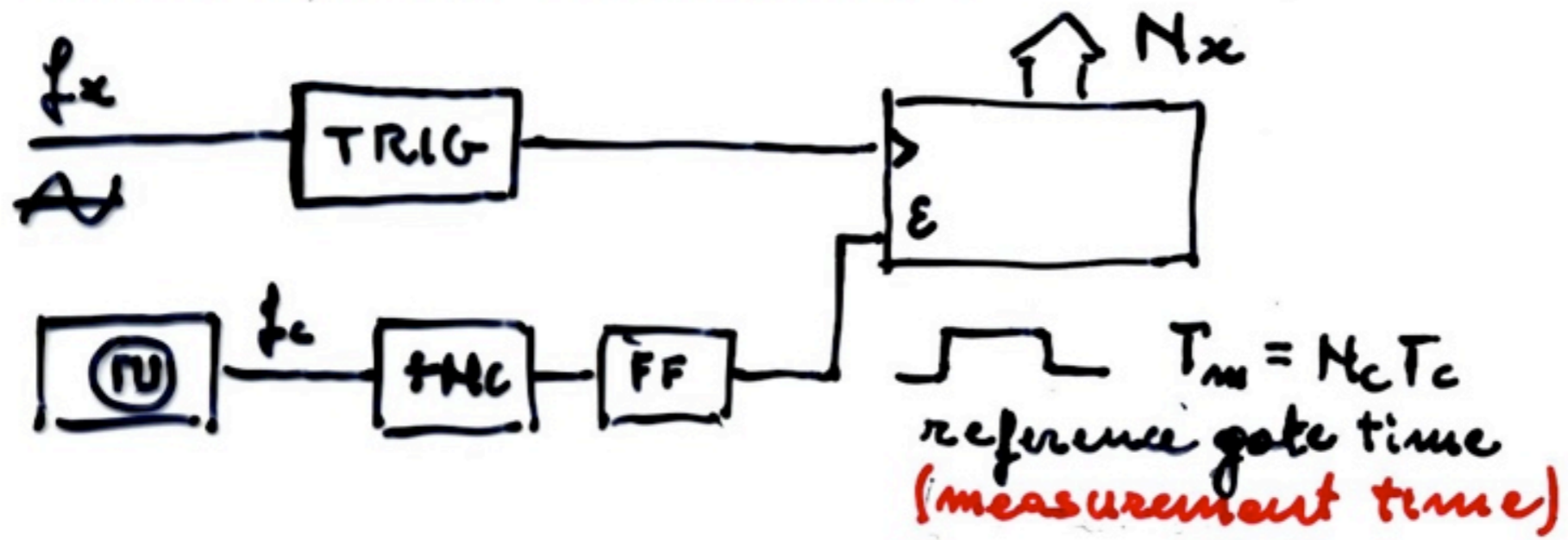
$$T_x = N_c T_c + T_a - T_b$$

Measure  $N_c T_c$ ,  $T_a$ , and  $T_b$

RESOLUTION  $\delta T_x = \delta T_a + \delta T_b$  (or  $\sqrt{(\delta T_a)^2 + (\delta T_b)^2}$ )

ACCURACY  $\delta T_a \rightarrow \frac{\delta T_x}{T_x} \approx \frac{\delta T_a}{T_x}$  because  $T_a \ll T_x$   
 relative accuracy  $\delta T_a / T_a$  is not (very) critical

# FREQUENCY COUNTER



$$N_x T_x = N_c T_c$$

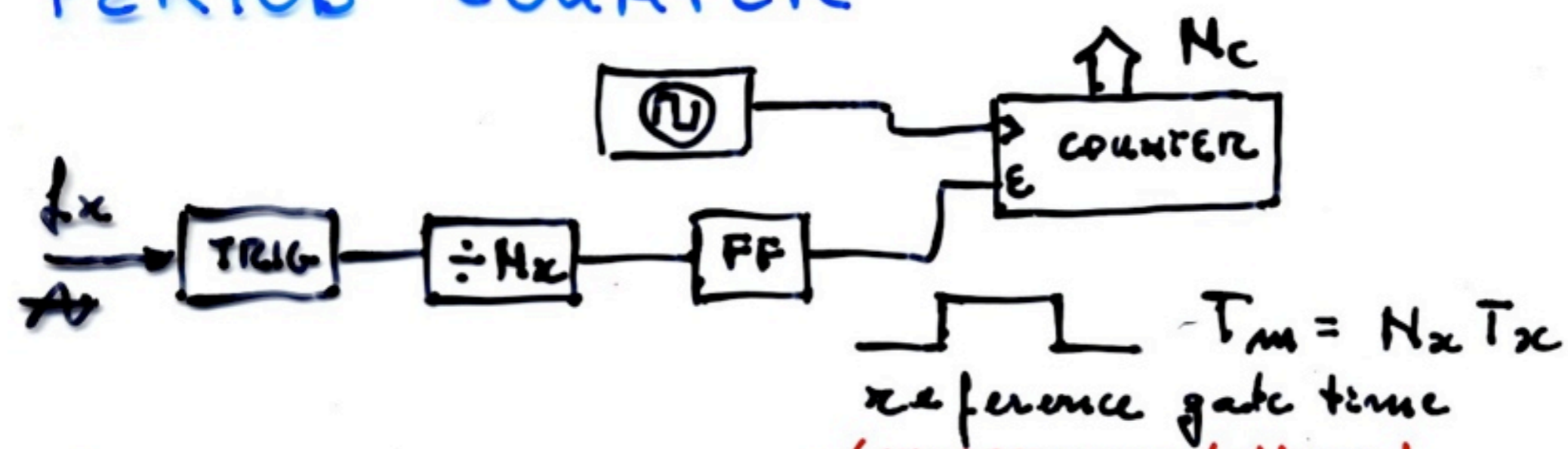
Estimate  $f_x = 1/\bar{T}_x \rightarrow f_x = \frac{N_x}{N_c} f_c$

QUANTIZATION  $\leftrightarrow \delta N_x = 1$

$$\frac{\delta f_x}{f_x} = \frac{1}{N_x} \leftrightarrow \frac{\delta f_x}{f_x} = \frac{1}{f_x \bar{T}_m}$$

- poor resolution at low  $f_x$
- don't even think to interpolate the period  $T_x$  (variable in a wide range)

# PERIOD COUNTER



Set  $N_z$  according to the desired measurement time  $T_m$

$$N_z T_z = N_c T_c$$

estimate  $f_x \rightarrow f_x = \frac{N_z}{N_c} f_c$

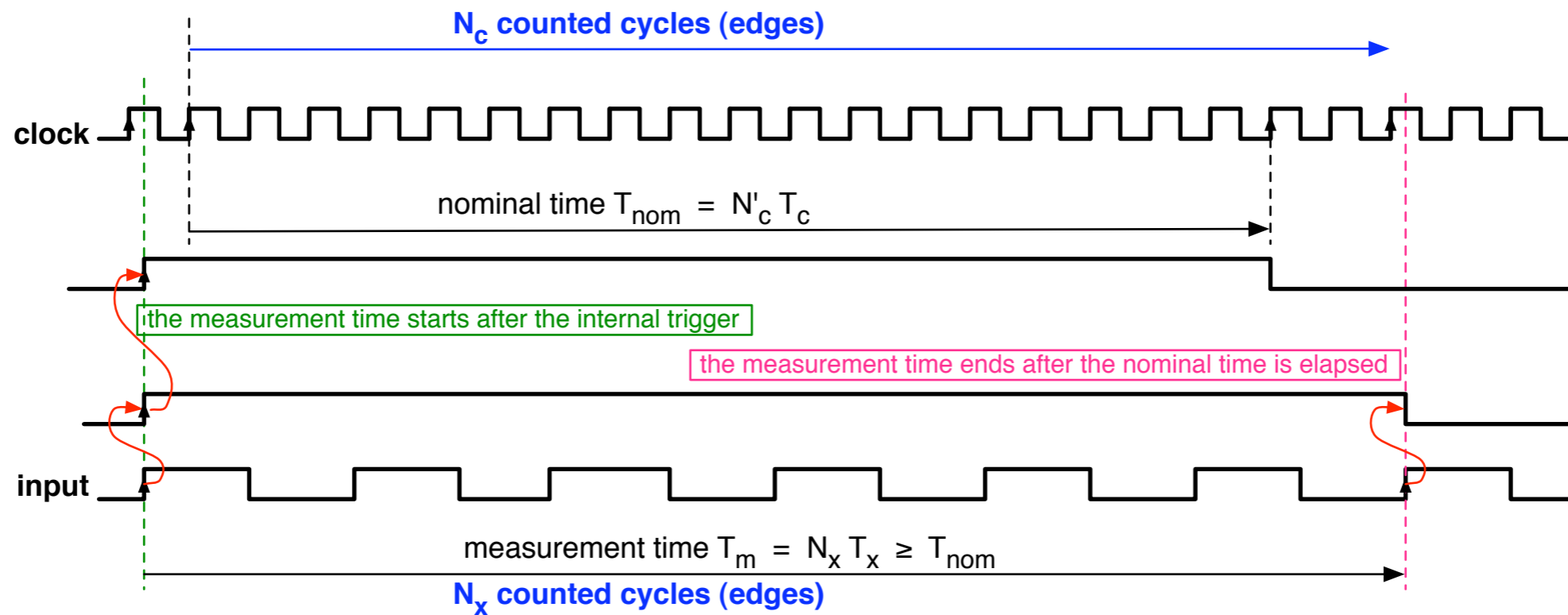
QUANTIZATION  $\rightarrow \delta N_c = 1$

$$\frac{\delta f_x}{f_x} = \frac{1}{N_c} \iff \frac{\delta f_x}{f_x} = \frac{1}{f_c T_m}$$

Choose  $f_c$  as the highest frequency for the available technology (or a round no. just below it)

fixed  $f_c \rightarrow$  interpolation is possible.

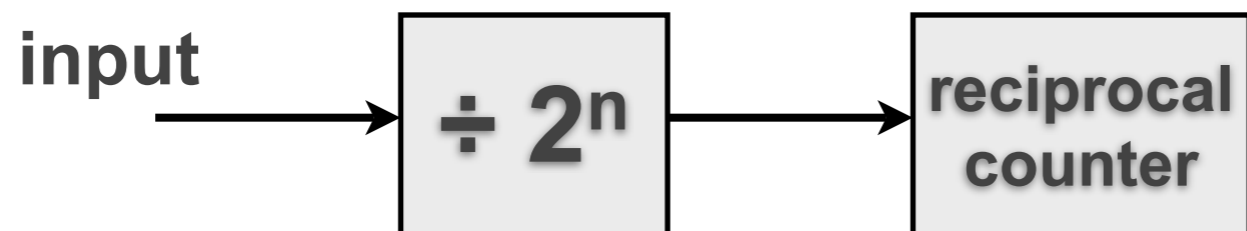
# Practical measurement



measurement equation:  $N_x T_x = N_c T_c$   
 or  $N_x T_x = (N_c \pm 1) T_c$ , including quantization uncertainty

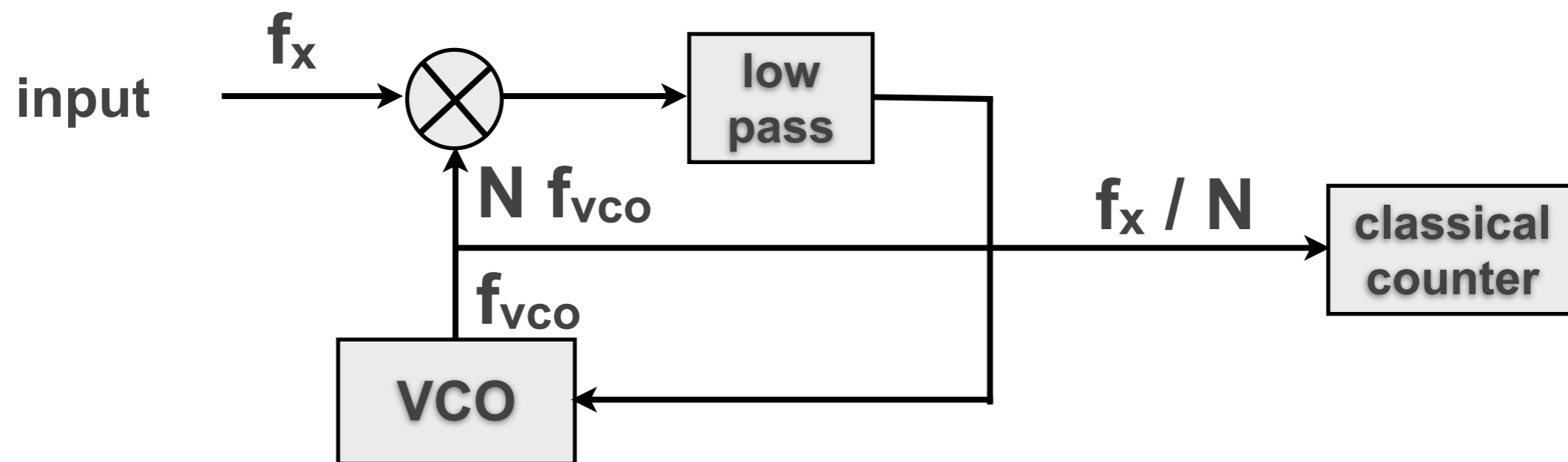
## **3 – Microwave counters**

# Prescaler



- a prescaler is a n-bit binary divider  $\div 2^n$
- GaAs dividers work up to  $\approx 20$  GHz
- reciprocal counter  $\Rightarrow$  there is no resolution reduction
- Most microwave counters use the prescaler

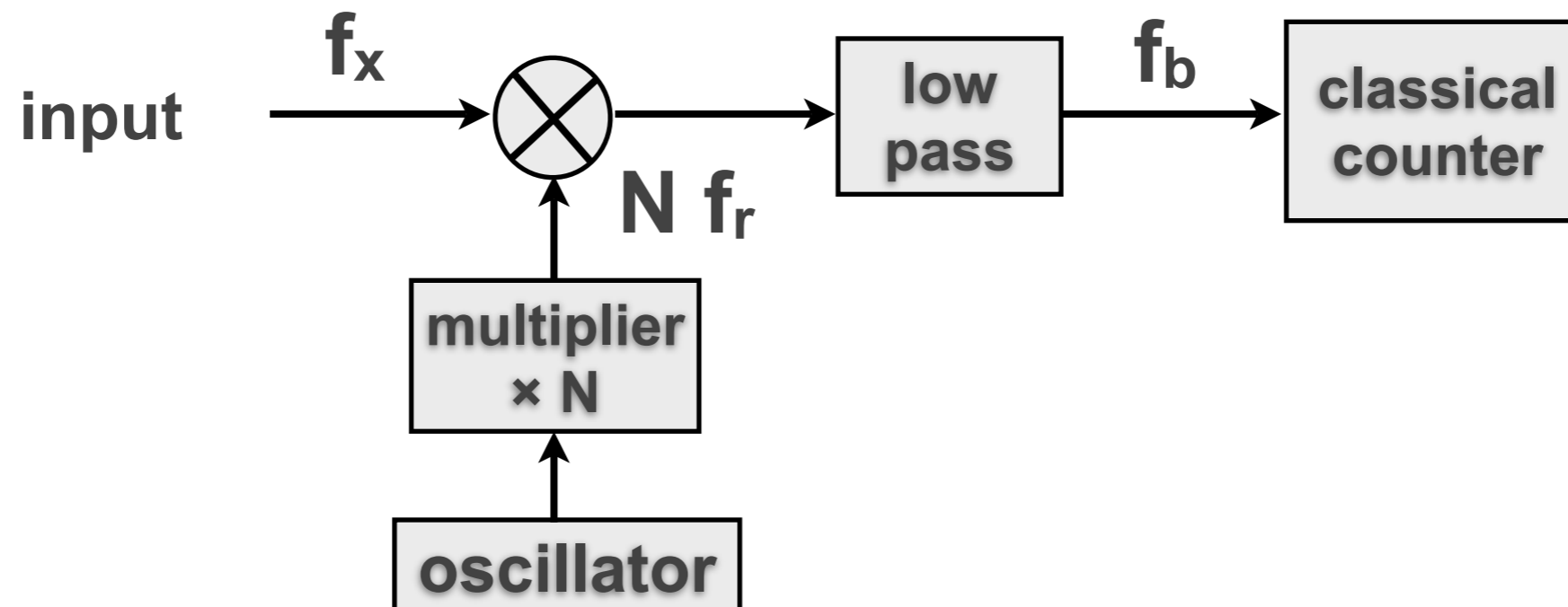
# Transfer-oscillator counter



- The transfer oscillator is a PLL
- Harmonics generation takes place inside the mixer
- Harmonics locking condition:  $N f_{vco} = f_x$
- Frequency modulation  $\Delta f$  is used to identify  $N$  (a rather complex scheme,  $\times N \Rightarrow \Delta f \rightarrow N\Delta f$ )



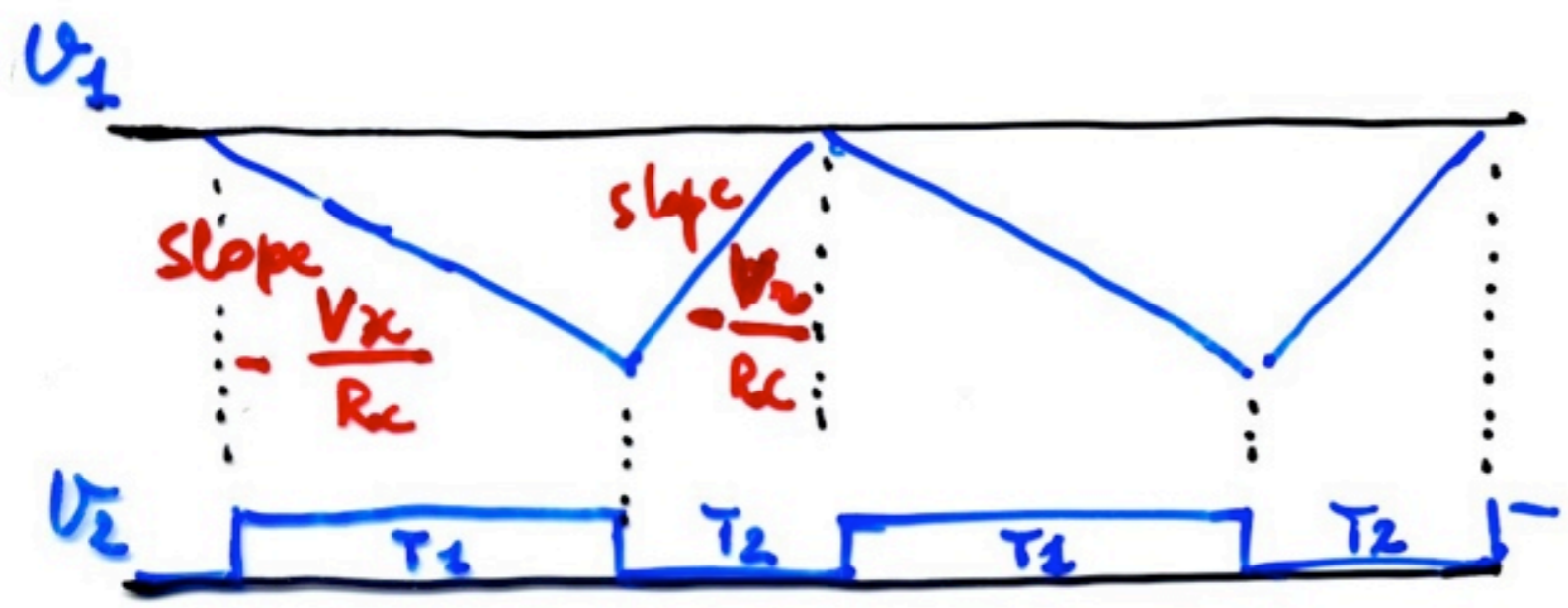
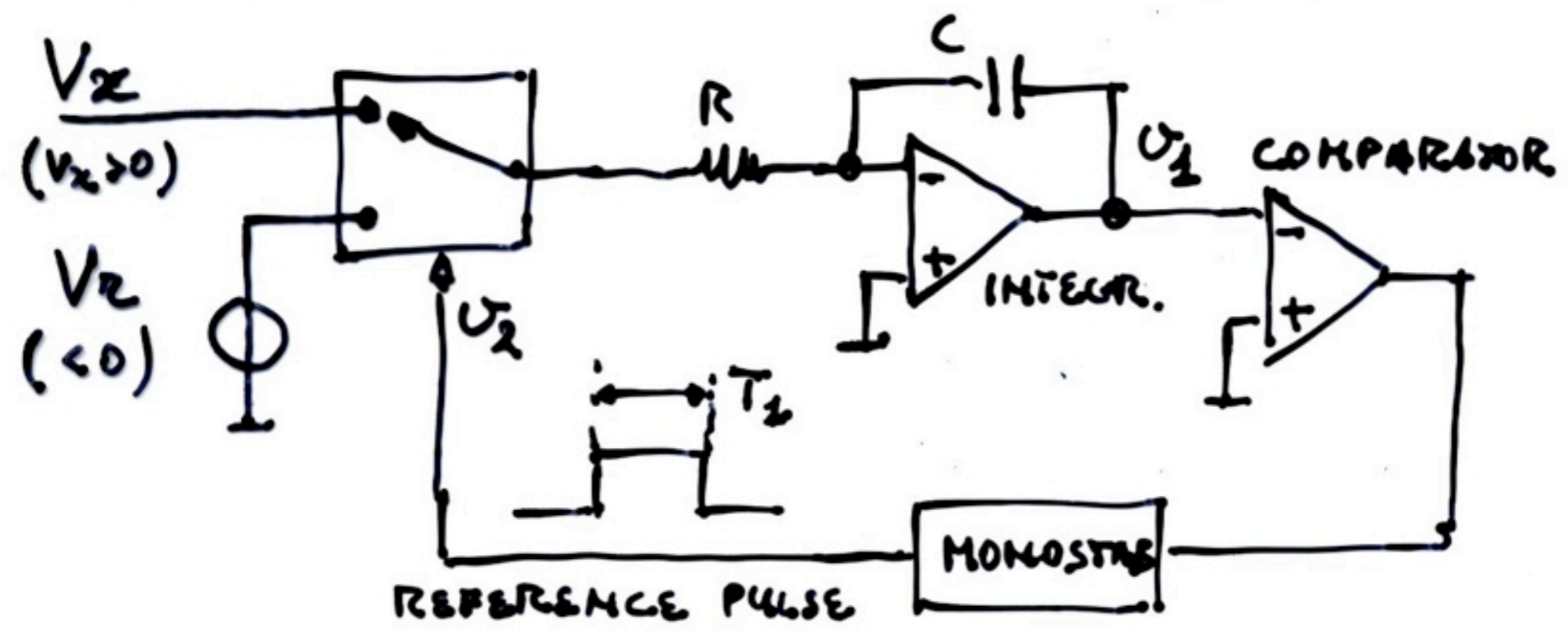
# Heterodyne counter



- Down-conversion:  $f_b = | f_x - N f_c |$
- $f_b$  is in the range of a classical counter (100-200 MHz max)
- no resolution reduction in the case of a classical *frequency* counter (no need of reciprocal counter)
- Old scheme, nowadays used only in some special cases (frequency metrology)

# 4 – Interpolation

# DUAL-SLOPE VOLTMETER



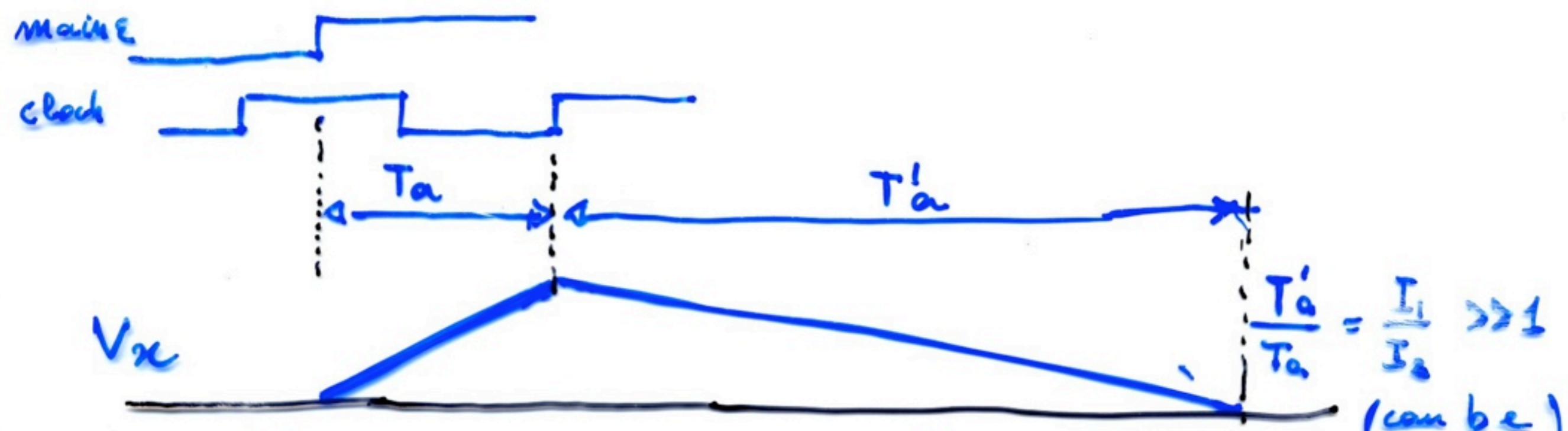
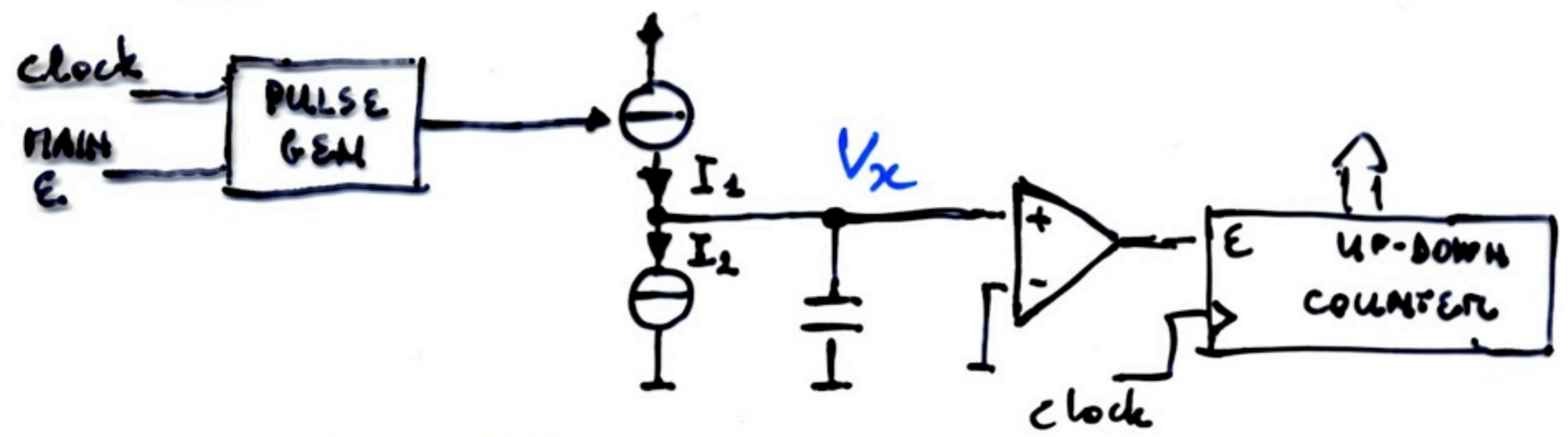
charge conservation

$$\frac{V_x}{RC} T_1 + \frac{V_2}{RC} T_2 = 0$$

ESTIMATE  $V_x$ :

$$V_x = -\frac{T_2}{T_1} V_2$$

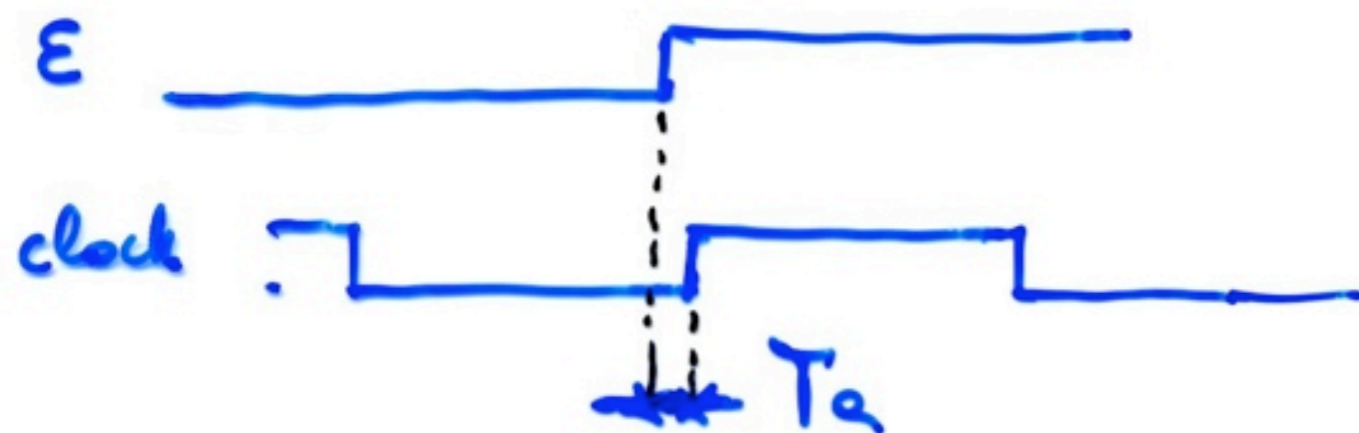
# TIME INTERVAL AMPLIFIER



- amplify  $T_a$ , increase resolution
- up/down counter  $\rightarrow$  measure  $T_a - T_b$

(can be  $10^4$ )

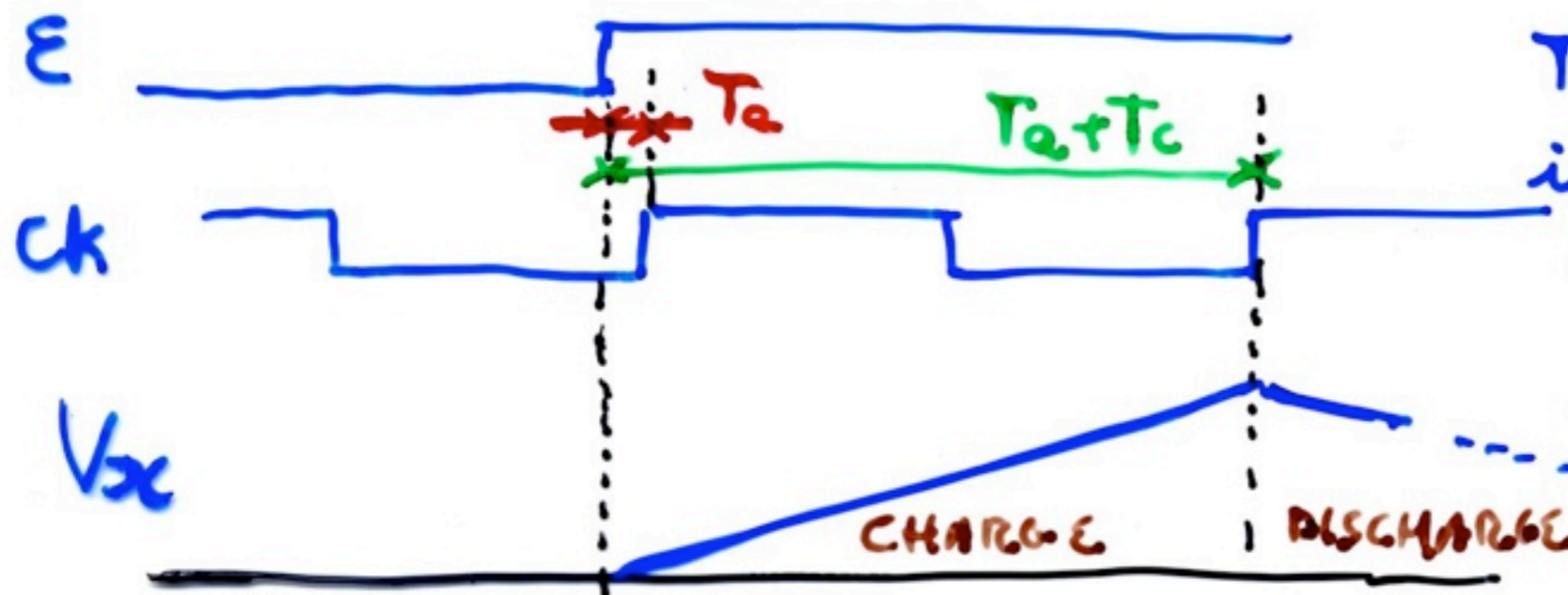
## MINOR TECHNICAL DETAIL

 $T_a$ 

$T_a$  (and  $T_b$ ) may be a very short time

- ARBITRATION
- ERROR due to the rising edges

## SOLUTION



The current pulse is integrated over  $T_a + T_c$  ( $\gg T_c$ )  
one  $T_c$  is added

CHARGE

DISCHARGE ALSO  $T_b$ 

Measuring  $T_a - T_b$ , the added  $T_c$  rubs out.

EXAMPLE: NANOFEST 536 B (Smithsonian Astro. Lab.)

Main clock  $f_c = 10 \text{ MHz} \rightarrow \delta T = T_c = 100 \text{ ns}$

Time Interval amplifier  $\frac{I_1}{I_2} = 4000$

$T'_a \in (200 \text{ ns}, 400 \text{ ns})$

aux. clock  $20 \text{ MHz}$  for the measurement of  $T'_a$

$\delta T'_a = T'_c = 50 \text{ ns} \quad (1/20 \text{ MHz})$

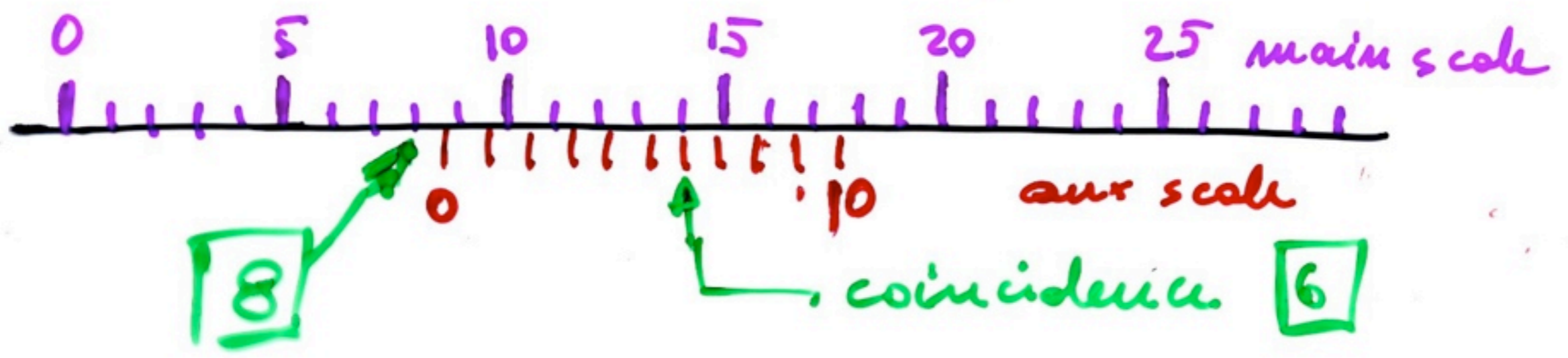
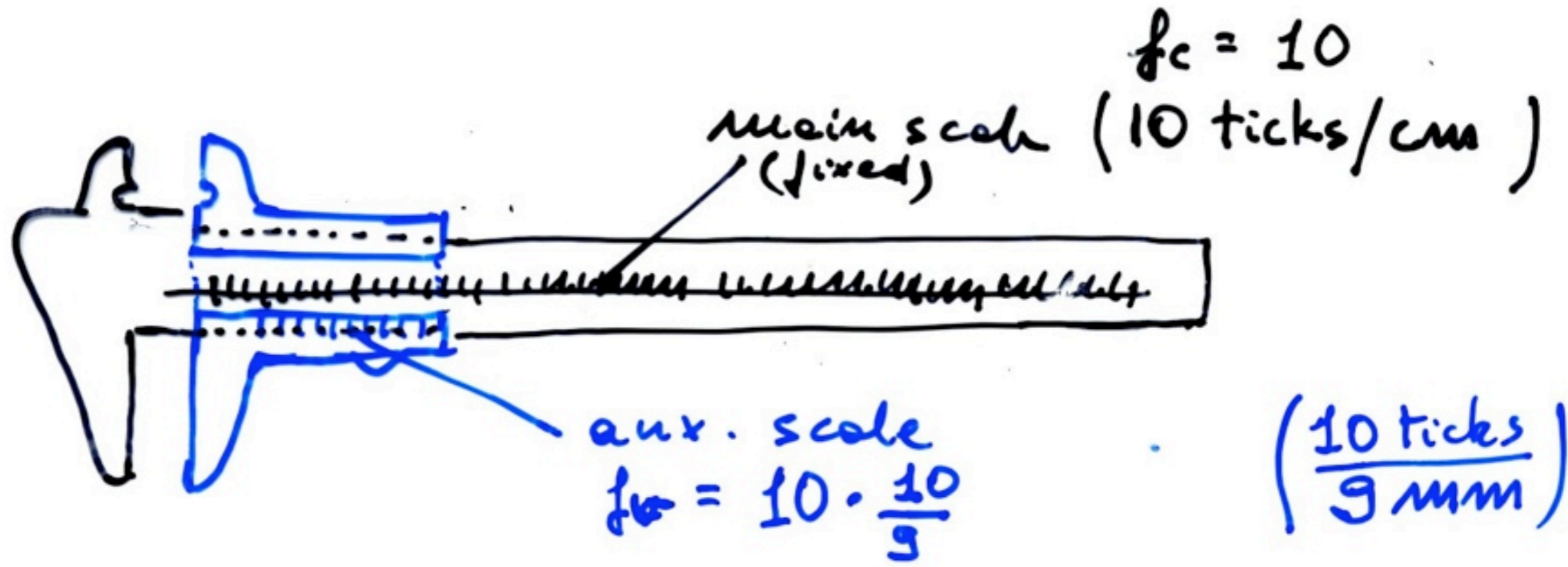
$\delta T_a = \frac{I_2}{I_1} T'_c \quad \delta T_e = \frac{1}{4000} \times 50 \text{ ns} = 12.5 \text{ ps}$

The Nanofest 536 B counter is (was?) a part of the Mark IV system for Very Long Baseline Interferometry (VLBI).  
Early TTL technology

Note: a pulse propagates in a cable at  $c' \approx \frac{2}{3} c$   
 $\delta T_e$  is equivalent to a length of  $2.5 \text{ mm}$

# VERNIER CALIPER

82

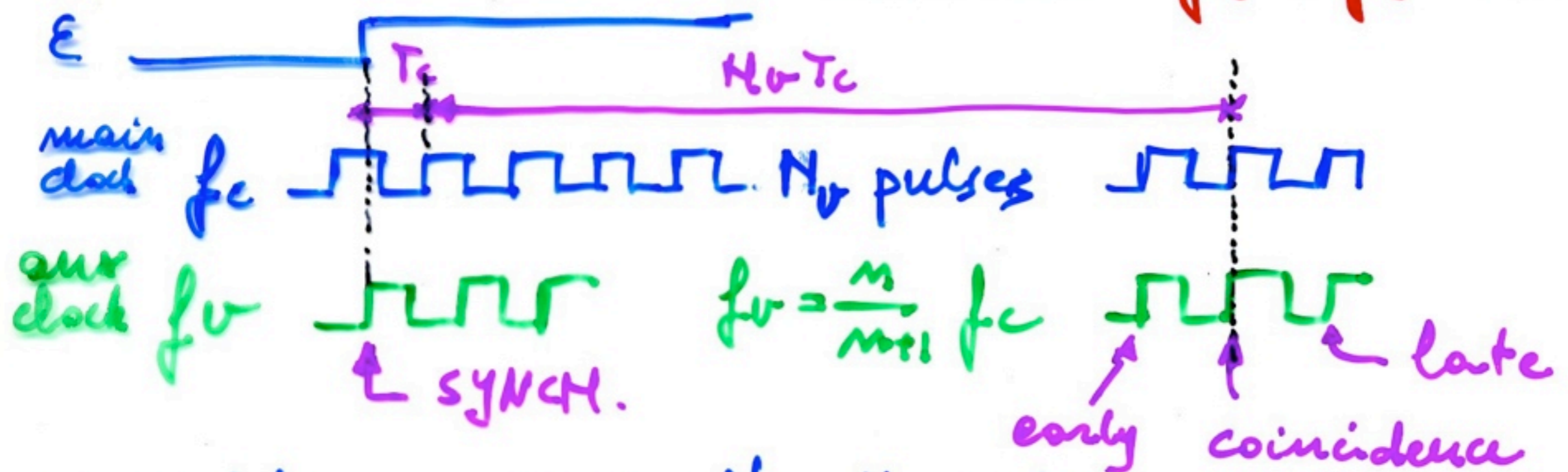


read: 8.6

main → aux

# FREQUENCY VERNIER

note that  $f_v < f_c$  here



Coincidence occurs after  $N_v$  pulses

$$T_a + N_v T_c = N_v T_v \rightarrow T_a = N_v [T_v - T_c]$$

$$T_v = \frac{m+1}{m} T_c$$

$$T_a = N_v \frac{1}{m} T_c$$

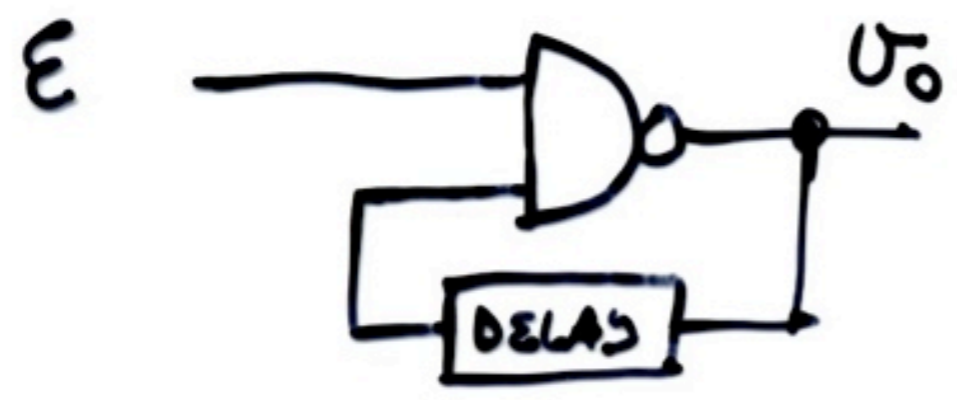
RESOLUTION

$$\delta N_v = 1 \rightarrow \delta T_a = \frac{1}{m} T_c$$

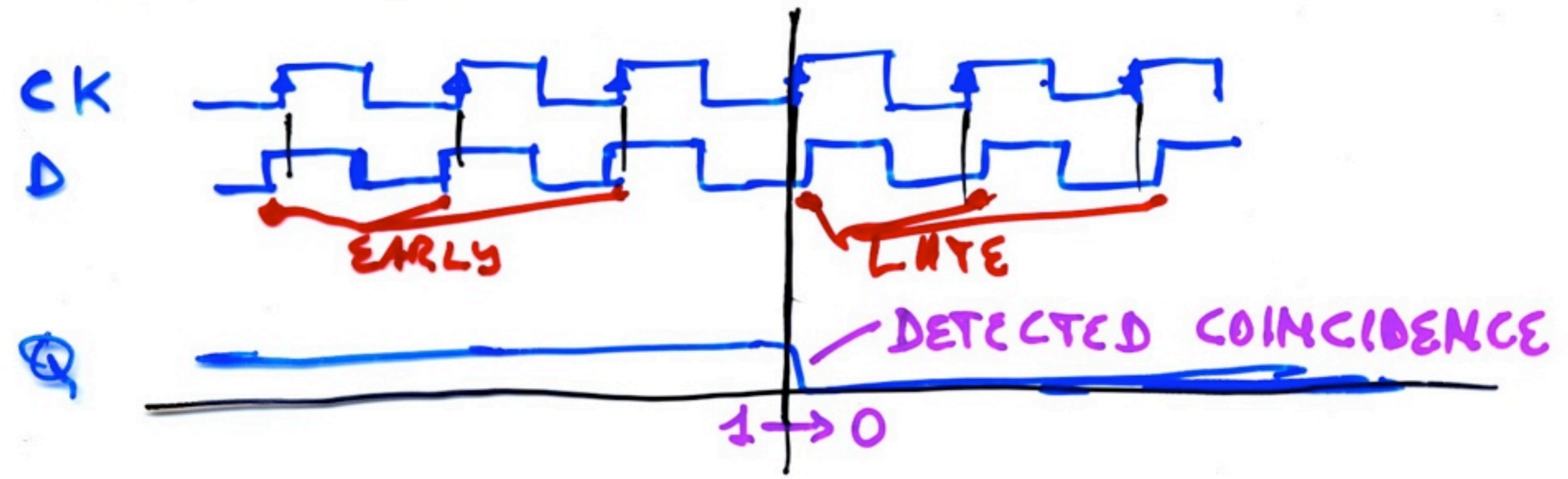
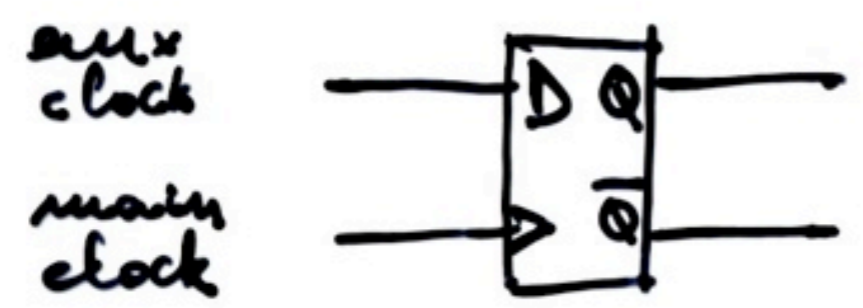


# SYNCHRONIZED OSCILLATOR

9a



# COINCIDENCE DETECTOR



## EXAMPLE. HP-5370A

$$f_c = 200 \text{ MHz} \rightarrow \delta T_x = 5 \text{ ns}$$

(ECL Technology)

$$N = 256 \rightarrow \delta T_a = \delta T_b = \frac{1}{256} \times 5 \text{ ns} = 19.5 \text{ ps}$$

( $f_v = 199.22 \text{ MHz}$ )

It takes a max. of 257 cycle of  $f_c$  for the two clocks to coincide

conversion time:

$$257 \times 5 \text{ ns} = 1.285 \mu\text{s}$$

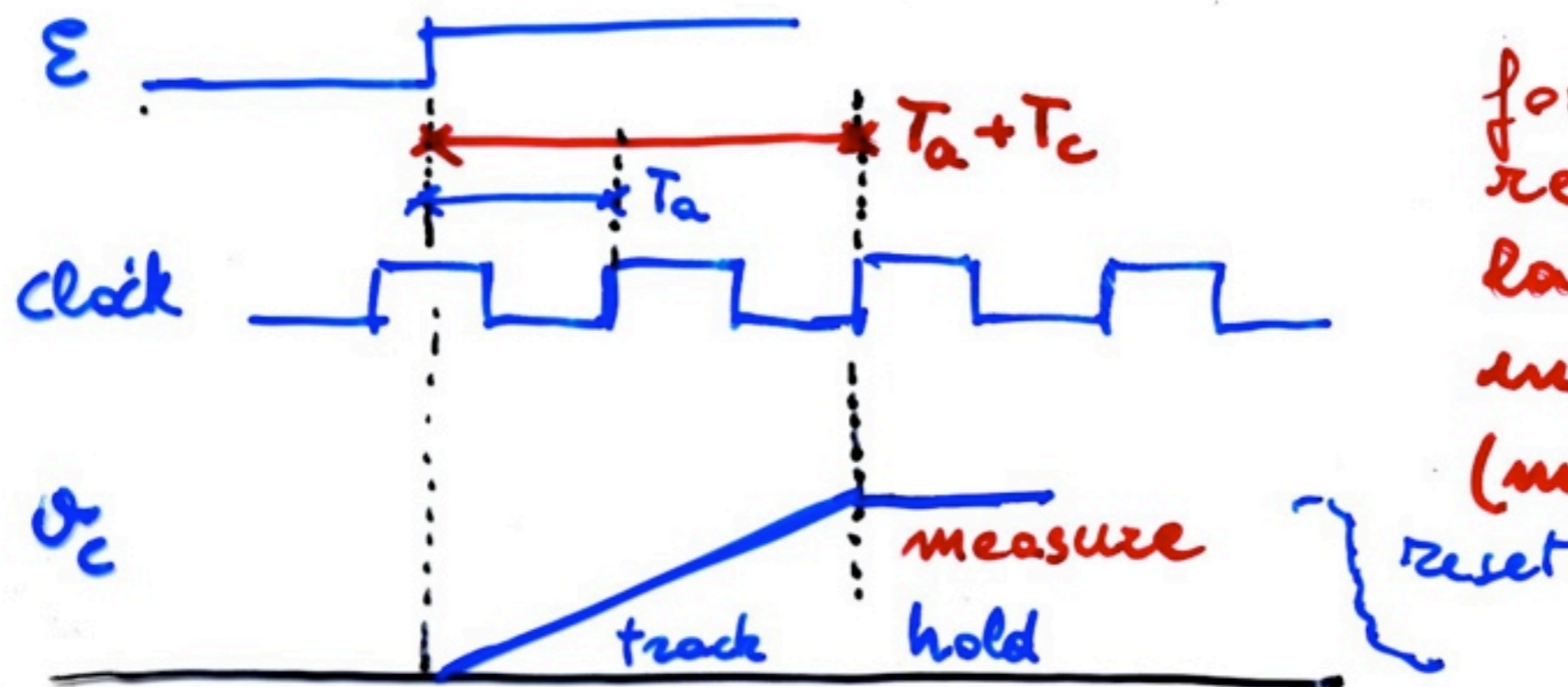
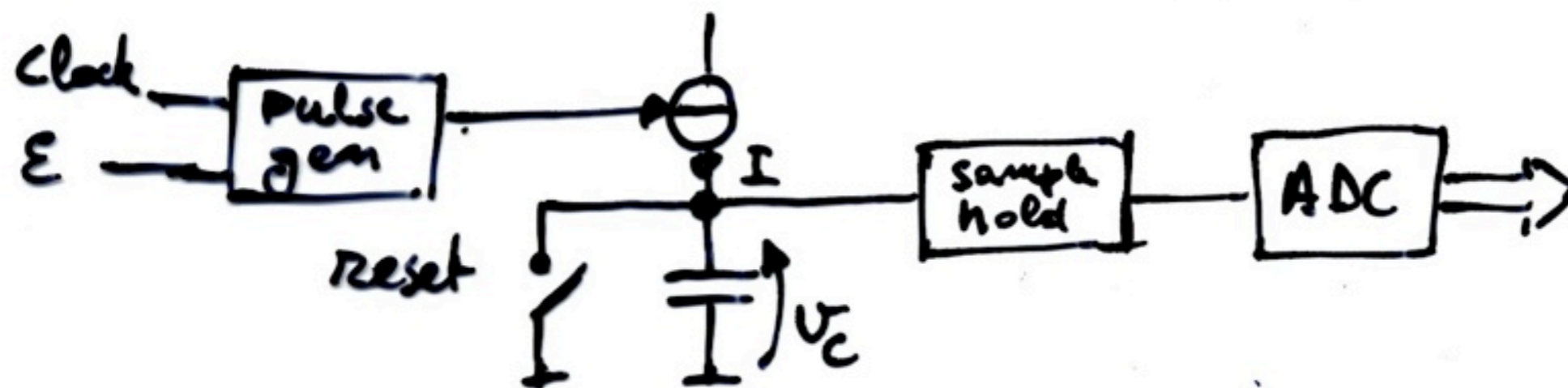
Light speed in cable  $\approx 0.67c$

$$\delta T_e \leftrightarrow \delta l \approx 4 \text{ mm}$$

(length.)

## TIME-TO-VOLTAGE CONVERTER

10a



for technical reason, integration lasts  $T_a + T_c$  instead of  $T_a$  (min 1 clock cycle)

- The method is equivalent to the TI amplifier
- Successive approx. conversion is faster than dual-slope

# EXAMPLE STANFORD SR-620

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$$f_c = 90 \text{ MHz}$$

$$T_c = 11.1 \text{ ns}$$

phase-locked to the 10 MHz reference.

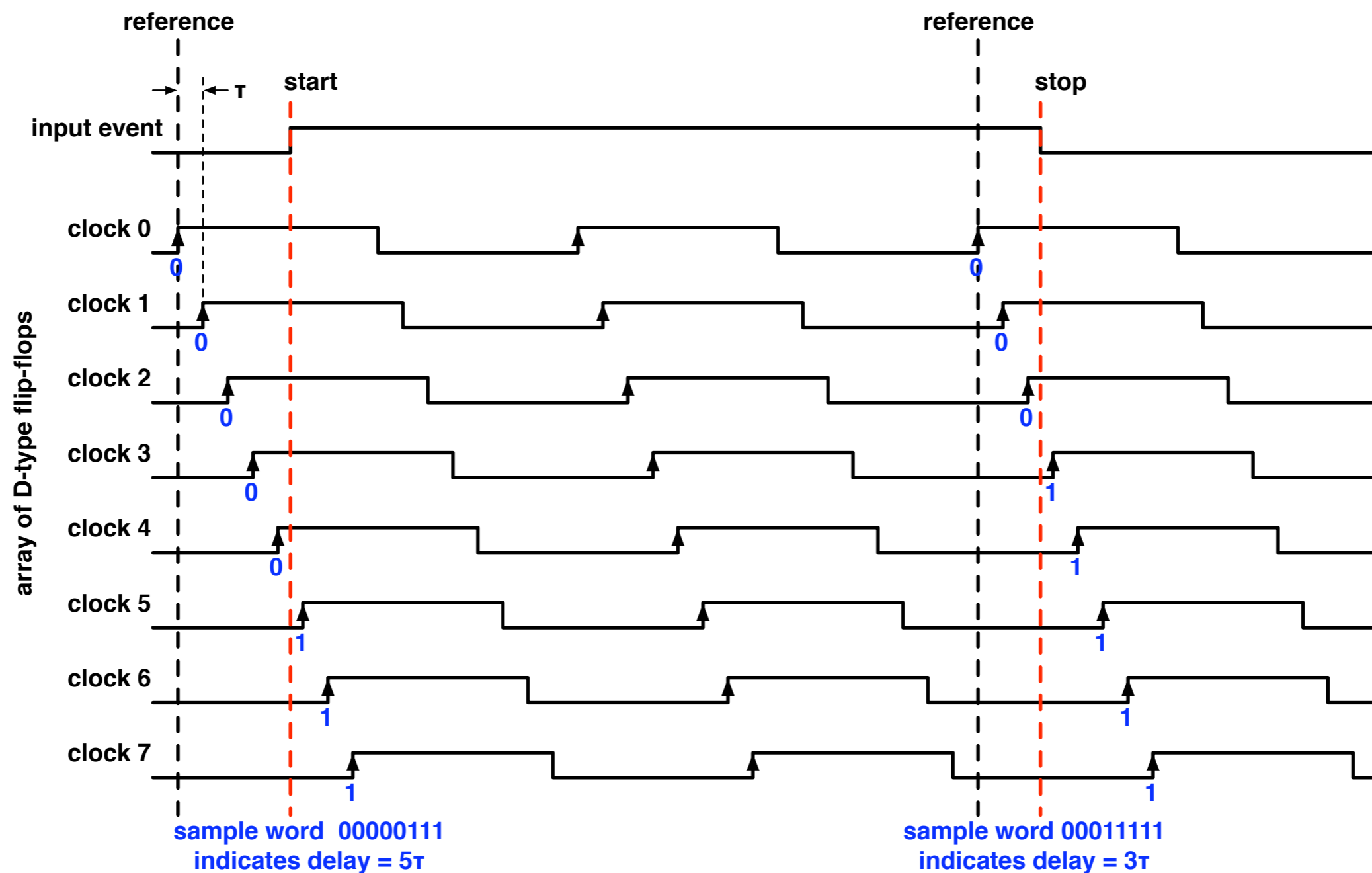
ECL Technology

12 bit converter, 1 bit lost because of the extra  $T_c$

11 bits

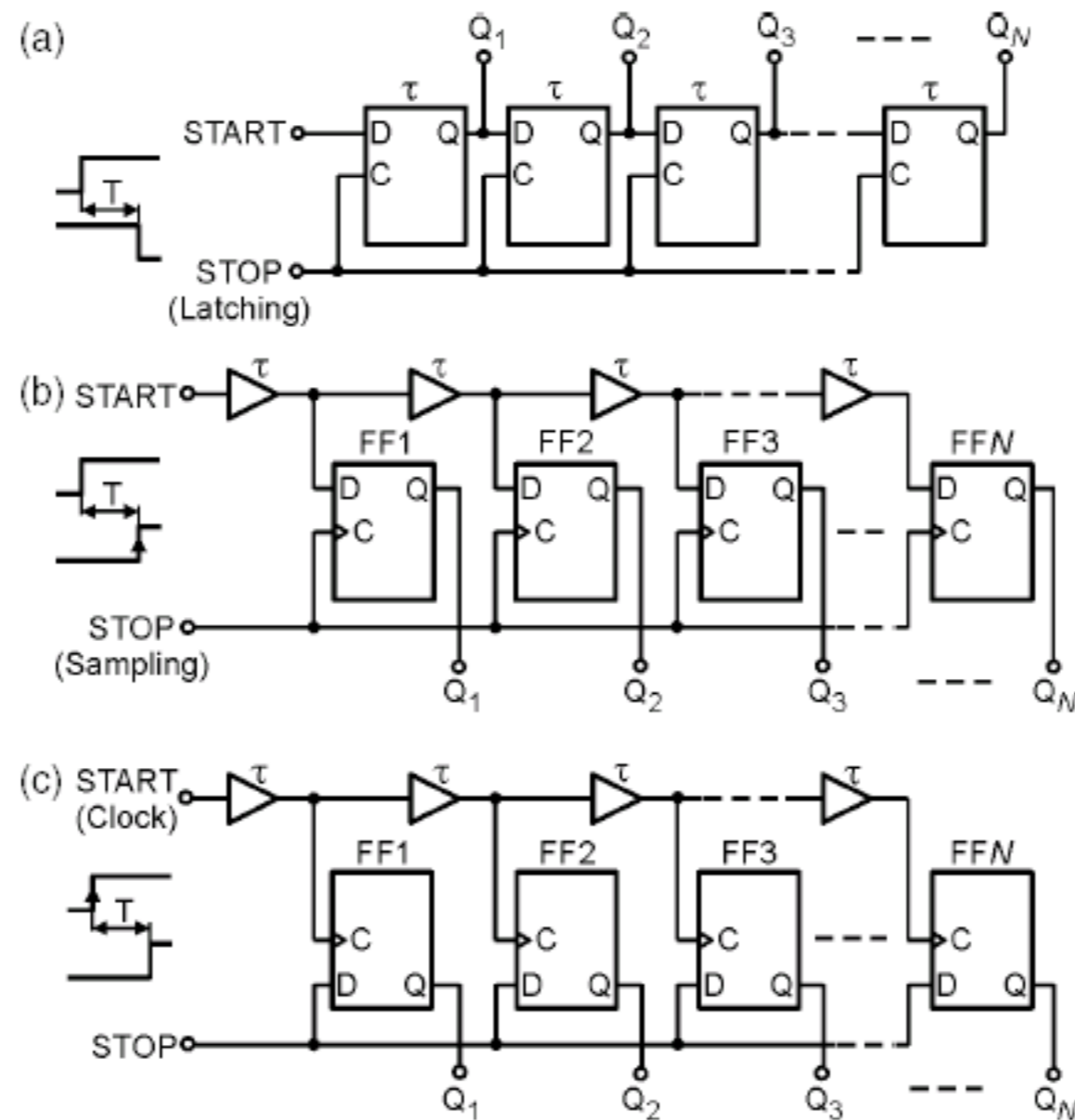
$$\delta T_c = \frac{11.1 \text{ ns}}{2^{11}} = 5.4 \text{ ps}$$

# Interpolation by sampling delayed copies of the clock or of the stop signal



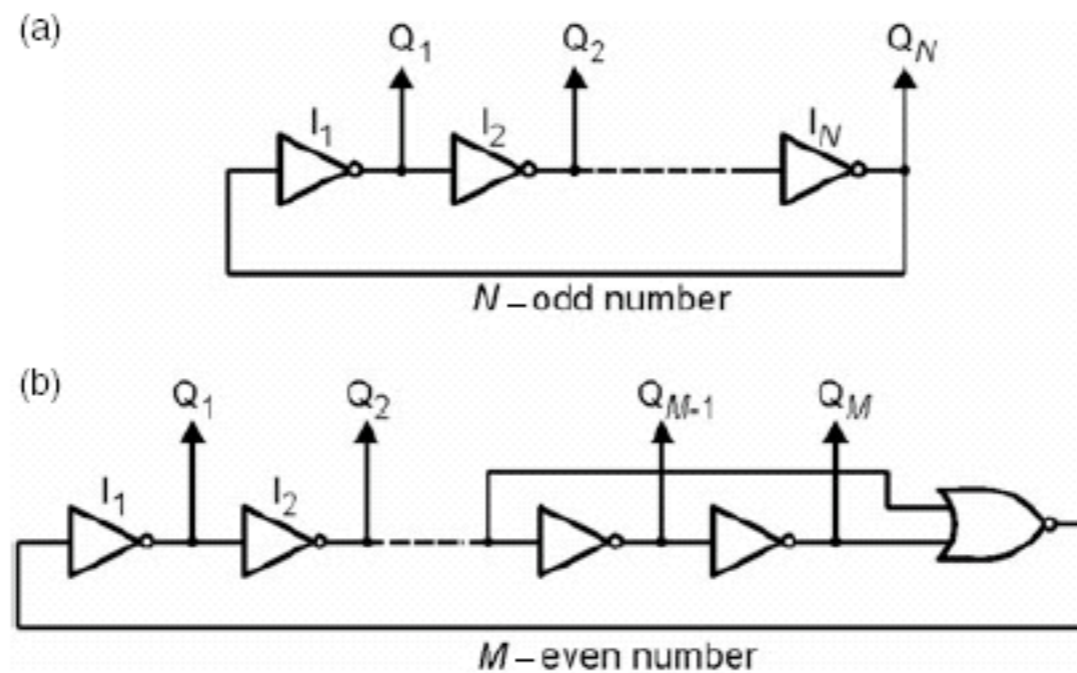
The resolution is determined by the delay  $\tau$ , instead of by the toggling speed of the flip-flops

# Sampling circuits



# Ring Oscillator

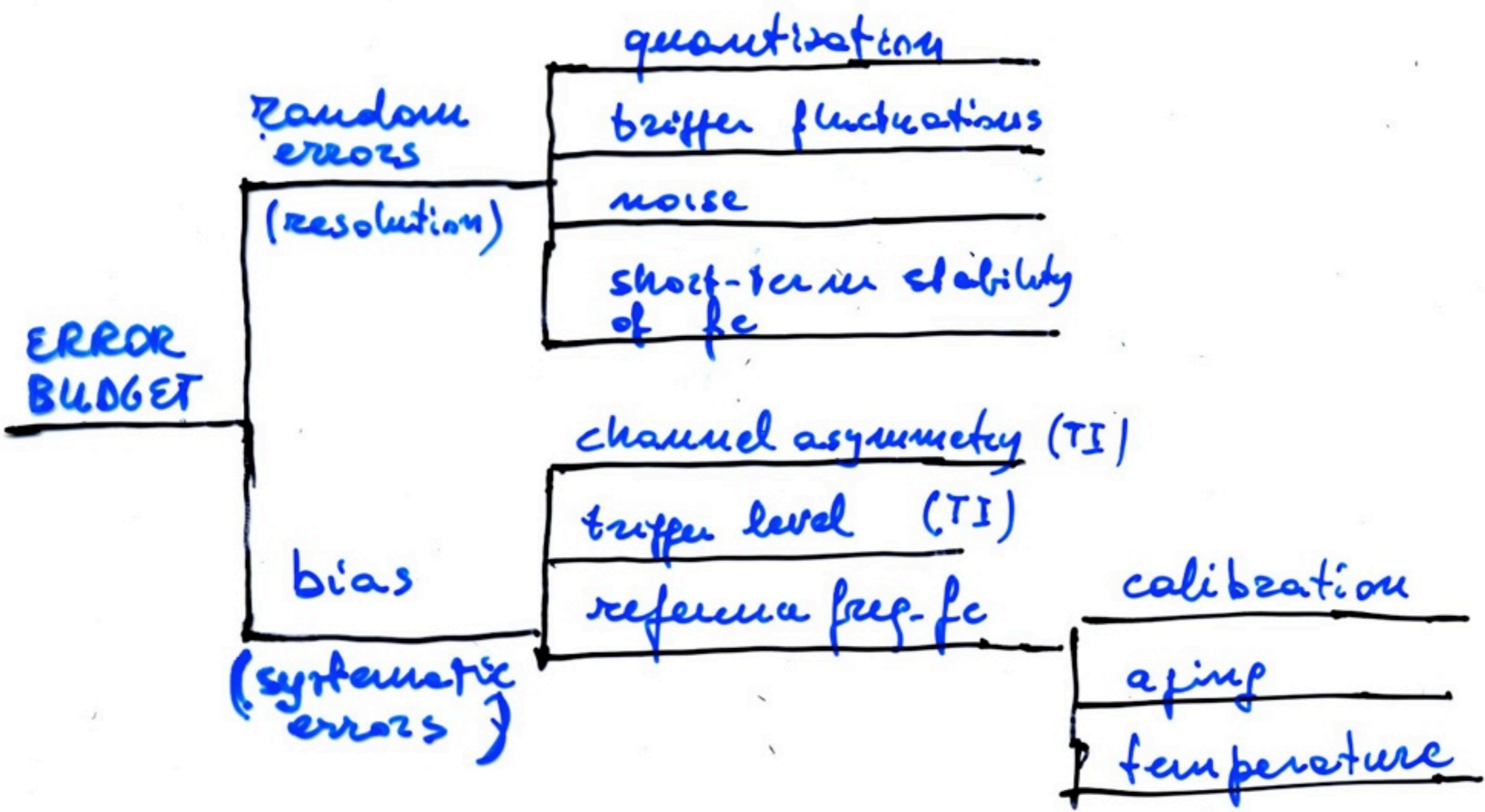
used in PLL circuits for clock-frequency multiplication



# 5 – Basic statistics

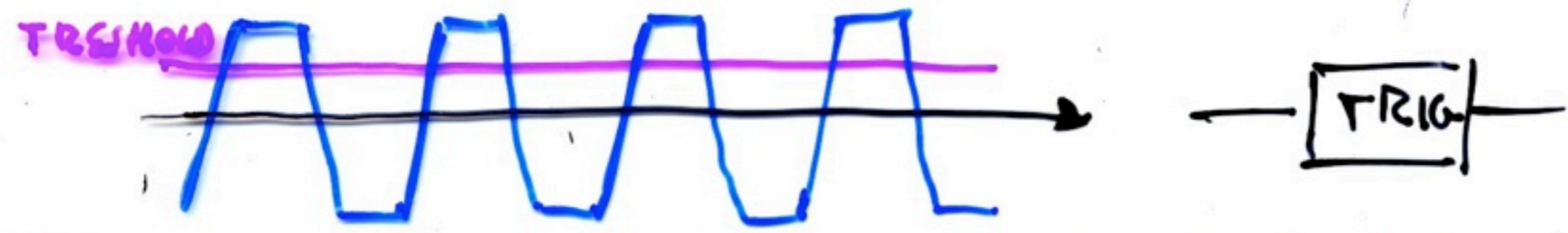


# ACCURACY AND PRECISION

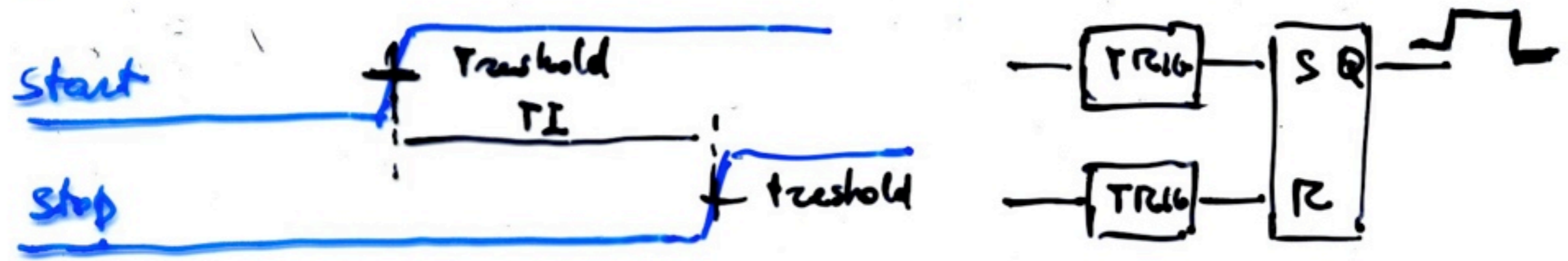


# TRIGGER

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The measured frequency / period is (almost) independent of the trigger threshold, and on slow fluctuations



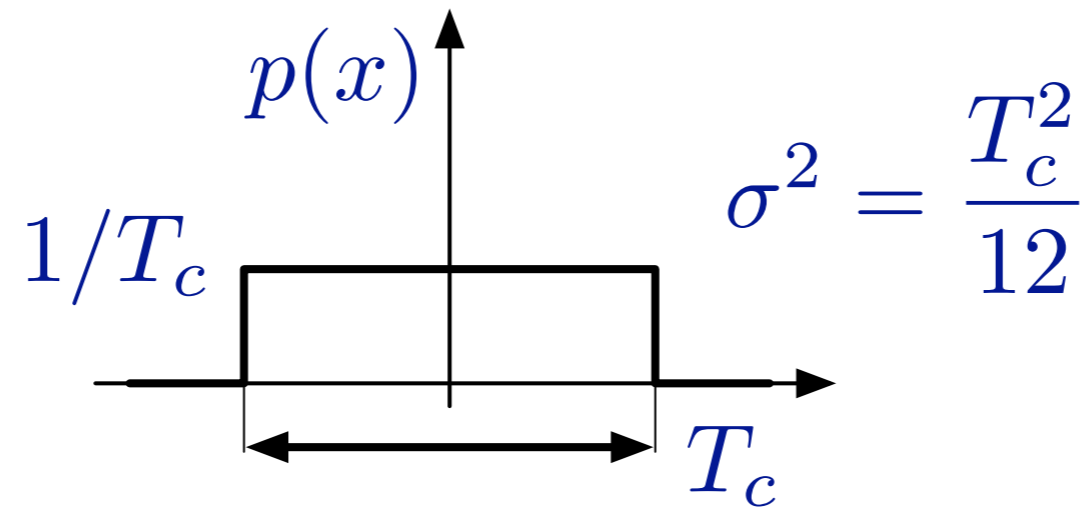
Accuracy and stability of the trigger thresholds are critical parameters on Time-Interval measurements

## JITTER

$$\delta t = \frac{\delta V}{dV/dt}$$

← Voltage noise
← slew rate

# Quantization uncertainty



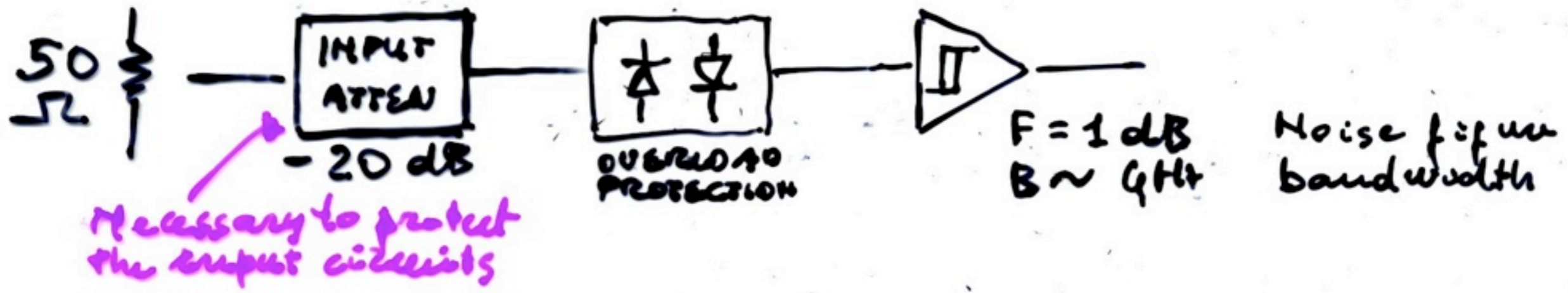
$$1/\sqrt{12} = 0.29$$

**Example: 100 MHz clock**

$$T_x = 10 \text{ ns}$$

$$\sigma = 2.9 \text{ ns}$$

# DON'T BLAME THE TRIGGER



THERMAL NOISE  $\sqrt{4kTR}$  V/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$   $\rightarrow$  0.9  $\mu\text{V}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$

Boltzmann temperature resistance  
 $k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23}$   
 $T = 300 \text{ K}$   
 $R = 50 \Omega$

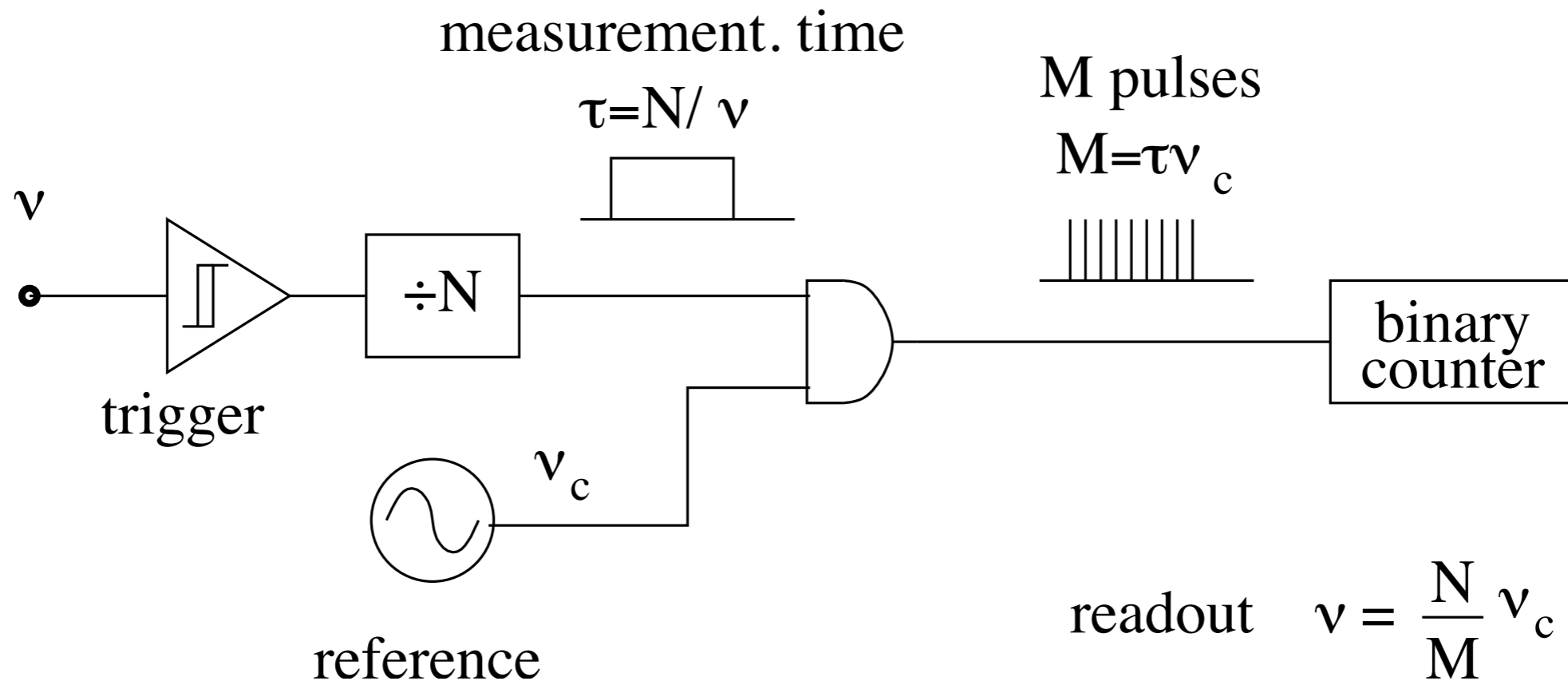
THERMAL NOISE INTEGRATED OVER THE BANDWIDTH  $\times \sqrt{B}$

(HP 5370)	$B = 225 \text{ MHz}$	$\rightarrow$	$V_n = 13.5 \mu\text{V}$
(SR-620)	$B = 1.3 \text{ GHz}$	$\rightarrow$	$V_n = 32.5 \mu\text{V}$

Account for the loss  $l = 20 \text{ dB}$  (multiply by 10)  
 and for the noise figure  $F = 1 \text{ dB}$  (multiply by 1.12)

$B = 225 \text{ MHz} \rightarrow V_n = 150 \mu\text{V}$   
 $B = 1.3 \text{ GHz} \rightarrow V_n = 355 \mu\text{V}$

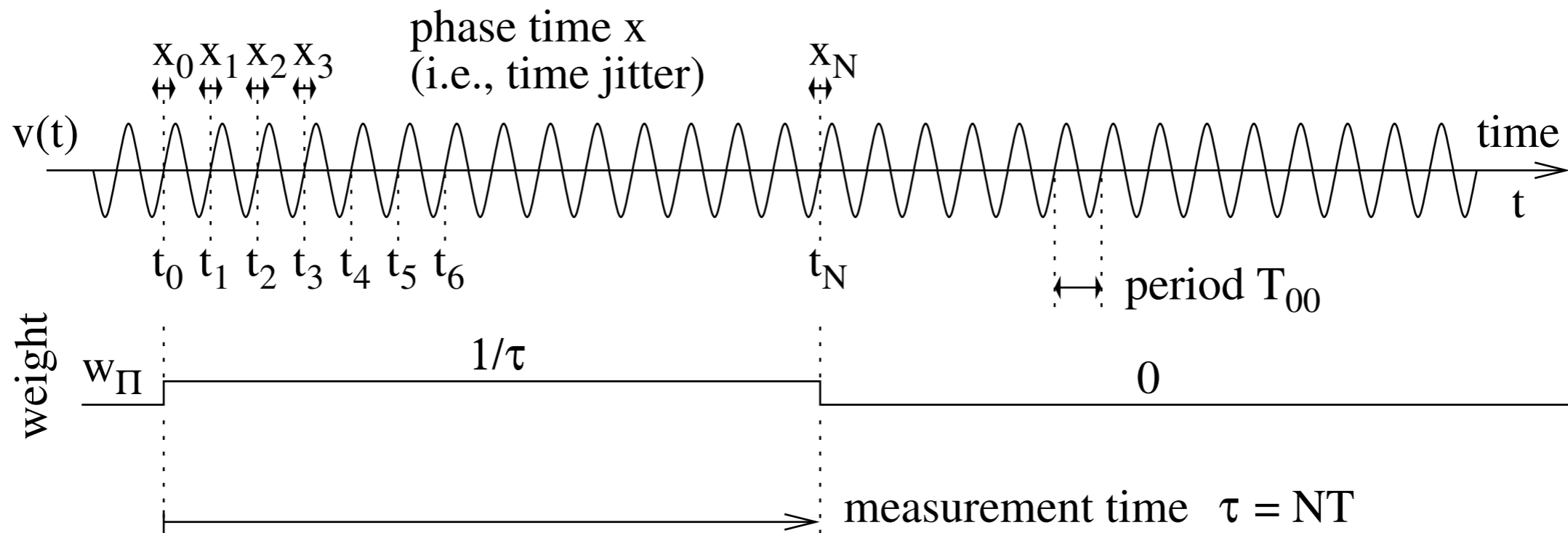
# classical reciprocal counter (1)



period measurement (count the clock pulses) is preferred to frequency measurement (count the input pulses) because:

- it provides higher resolution in a given measurement time  $\tau$  (the clock frequency can be close to the maximum switching speed)
- interpolation ( $M$  is rational instead of integer) can be used to reduce the quantization (interpolators only work at a fixed frequency, thus at the clock freq.)

# classical reciprocal counter (2)



measure:  
scalar product

$$\mathbb{E}\{\nu\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \nu(t) w_\Pi(t) dt$$

$\Pi$  estimator

$$w_\Pi(t) = \begin{cases} 1/\tau & 0 < t < \tau \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

weight

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w_\Pi(t) dt = 1$$

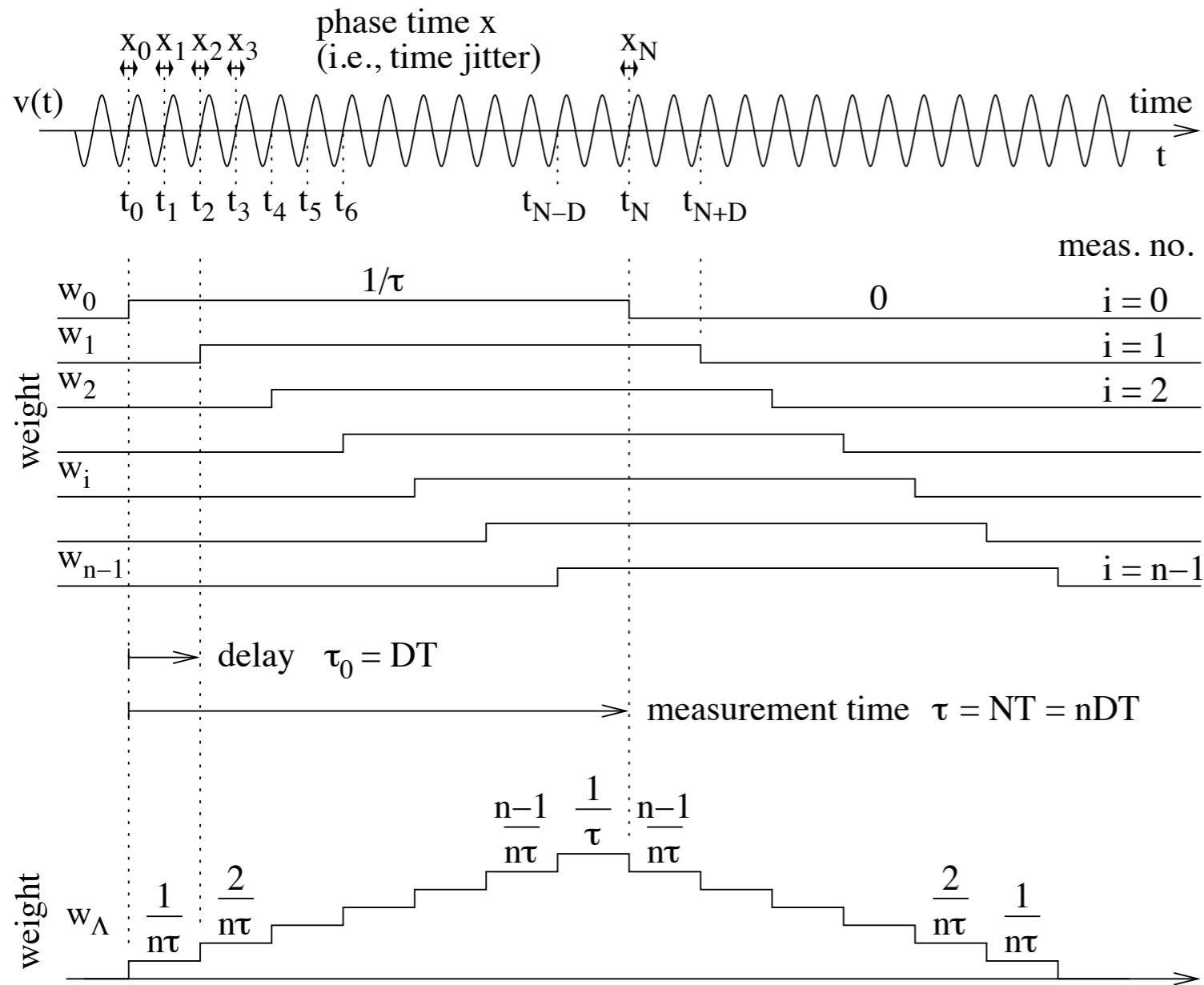
normalization

variance

$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^2}$$

classical variance

# enhanced-resolution counter



$$\mathbb{E}\{\nu\} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \bar{\nu}_i \quad \bar{\nu}_i = N/\tau_i$$

$\Lambda$  estimator

$$\mathbb{E}\{\nu\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \nu(t) w_{\Lambda}(t) dt$$

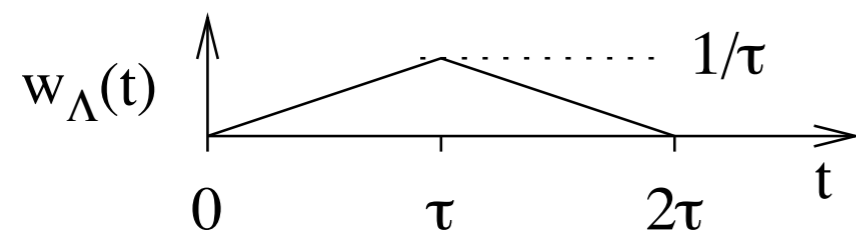
weight

$$w_{\Lambda}(t) = \begin{cases} t/\tau & 0 < t < \tau \\ 2 - t/\tau & \tau < t < 2\tau \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

normalization

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w_{\Lambda}(t) dt = 1$$

limit  $\tau_0 \rightarrow 0$  of the weight function



white noise: the autocorrelation function is a narrow pulse, about the inverse of the bandwidth

the variance is divided by n  $\sigma_y^2 = \frac{1}{n} \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^2}$  classical variance

# actual formulae look like this

$$(\Pi) \quad \sigma_y = \frac{1}{\tau} \sqrt{2(\delta t)_{\text{trigger}}^2 + 2(\delta t)_{\text{interpolator}}^2}$$

$$(\Lambda) \quad \sigma_y = \frac{1}{\tau \sqrt{n}} \sqrt{2(\delta t)_{\text{trigger}}^2 + 2(\delta t)_{\text{interpolator}}^2}$$

$$n = \begin{cases} \nu_0 \tau & \nu_{00} \leq \nu_I \\ \nu_I \tau & \nu_{00} > \nu_I \end{cases}$$



# understanding technical information

classical reciprocal  
counter

$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^2} \quad \text{classical variance}$$

enhanced-resolution  
counter

$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{1}{n} \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^2} \quad \text{classical variance}$$

low frequency:  
full speed

$$\tau_0 = T \quad \Longrightarrow \quad n = \nu_{00}\tau$$

$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{1}{\nu_{00}} \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^3} \quad \text{classical variance}$$

high frequency:  
housekeeping takes time

$$\tau_0 = DT \quad \text{with } D > 1 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad n = \nu_{00}\tau$$

$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{1}{\nu_I} \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^3} \quad \text{classical variance}$$

the slope of the classical variance tells the whole story

$$1/\tau^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \Pi \text{ estimator (classical reciprocal)}$$

$$1/\tau^3 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \Lambda \text{ estimator (enhanced-resolution)}$$

look for formulae and plots in the instruction manual

# examples

## Stanford SRS-620

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{RMS} \\ \text{resolution} \\ \text{(in Hz)} \end{array} \right] = \frac{\text{frequency}}{\text{gate time}} \sqrt{\frac{(25 \text{ ps})^2 + \left[ \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{short term} \\ \text{stability} \end{array} \right) \times \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{gate} \\ \text{time} \end{array} \right) \right]^2 + 2 \times \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{trigger} \\ \text{jitter} \end{array} \right]^2}{N}}$$

RMS resolution	$\sigma_\nu = \nu_{00} \sigma_y$
frequency	$\nu_{00}$
gate time	$\tau$

## Agilent 53132A

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{RMS} \\ \text{resolution} \end{array} \right] = \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{frequency} \\ \text{or period} \end{array} \right) \times \left[ \frac{4 \times \sqrt{(t_{\text{res}})^2 + 2 \times (\text{trigger error})^2}}{(\text{gate time}) \times \sqrt{\text{no. of samples}}} + \frac{t_{\text{jitter}}}{\text{gate time}} \right]$$

$$t_{\text{res}} = 225 \text{ ps}$$

$$t_{\text{jitter}} = 3 \text{ ps}$$

$$\text{number of samples} = \begin{cases} (\text{gate time}) \times (\text{frequency}) & \text{for } f < 200 \text{ kHz} \\ (\text{gate time}) \times 2 \times 10^5 & \text{for } f \geq 200 \text{ kHz} \end{cases}$$

RMS resolution	$\sigma_\nu = \nu_{00} \sigma_y$ or $\sigma_T = T_{00} \sigma_y$
frequency	$\nu_{00}$
period	$T_{00}$
gate time	$\tau$
no. of samples	$n = \begin{cases} \nu_{00} \tau & \nu_{00} < 200 \text{ kHz} \\ \tau \times 2 \times 10^5 & \nu_{00} \geq 200 \text{ kHz} \end{cases}$

# 5 – Advanced statistics

# Allan variance

definition

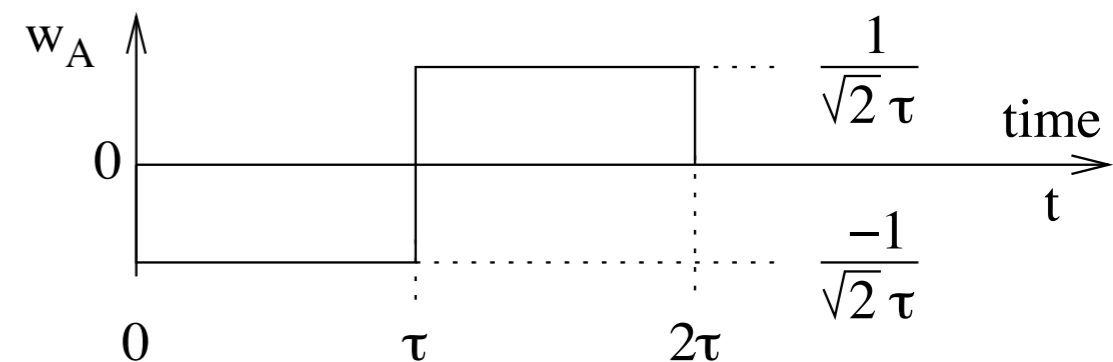
$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \bar{y}_{k+1} - \bar{y}_k \right]^2 \right\}$$

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{(k+1)\tau}^{(k+2)\tau} y(t) dt - \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{k\tau}^{(k+1)\tau} y(t) dt \right]^2 \right\}$$

wavelet-like  
variance

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} y(t) w_A(t) dt \right]^2 \right\}$$

$$w_A = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau} & 0 < t < \tau \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau} & \tau < t < 2\tau \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$



energy

$$E\{w_A\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w_A^2(t) dt = \frac{1}{\tau}$$

the Allan variance differs from a wavelet variance in the normalization on power, instead of on energy

# modified Allan variance

definition

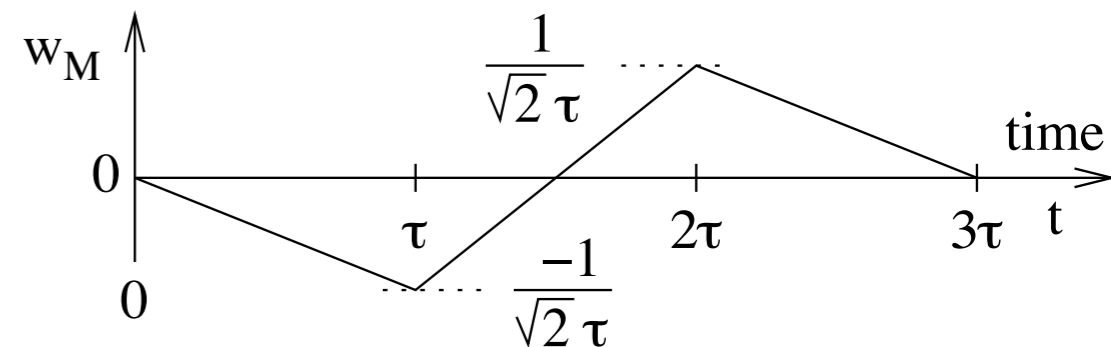
$$\text{mod } \sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left( \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{(i+n)\tau_0}^{(i+2n)\tau_0} y(t) dt - \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{i\tau_0}^{(i+n)\tau_0} y(t) dt \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$

with  $\tau = n\tau_0$  .

wavelet-like  
variance

$$\text{mod } \sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} y(t) w_M(t) dt \right]^2 \right\}$$

$$w_M = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau^2} t & 0 < t < \tau \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau^2} (2t - 3) & \tau < t < 2\tau \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau^2} (t - 3) & 2\tau < t < 3\tau \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$



energy

$$E\{w_M\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w_M^2(t) dt = \frac{1}{2\tau}$$

compare the energy

$$E\{w_M\} = \frac{1}{2} E\{w_A\}$$

this explains why the mod Allan variance is always lower than the Allan variance

# spectra and variances

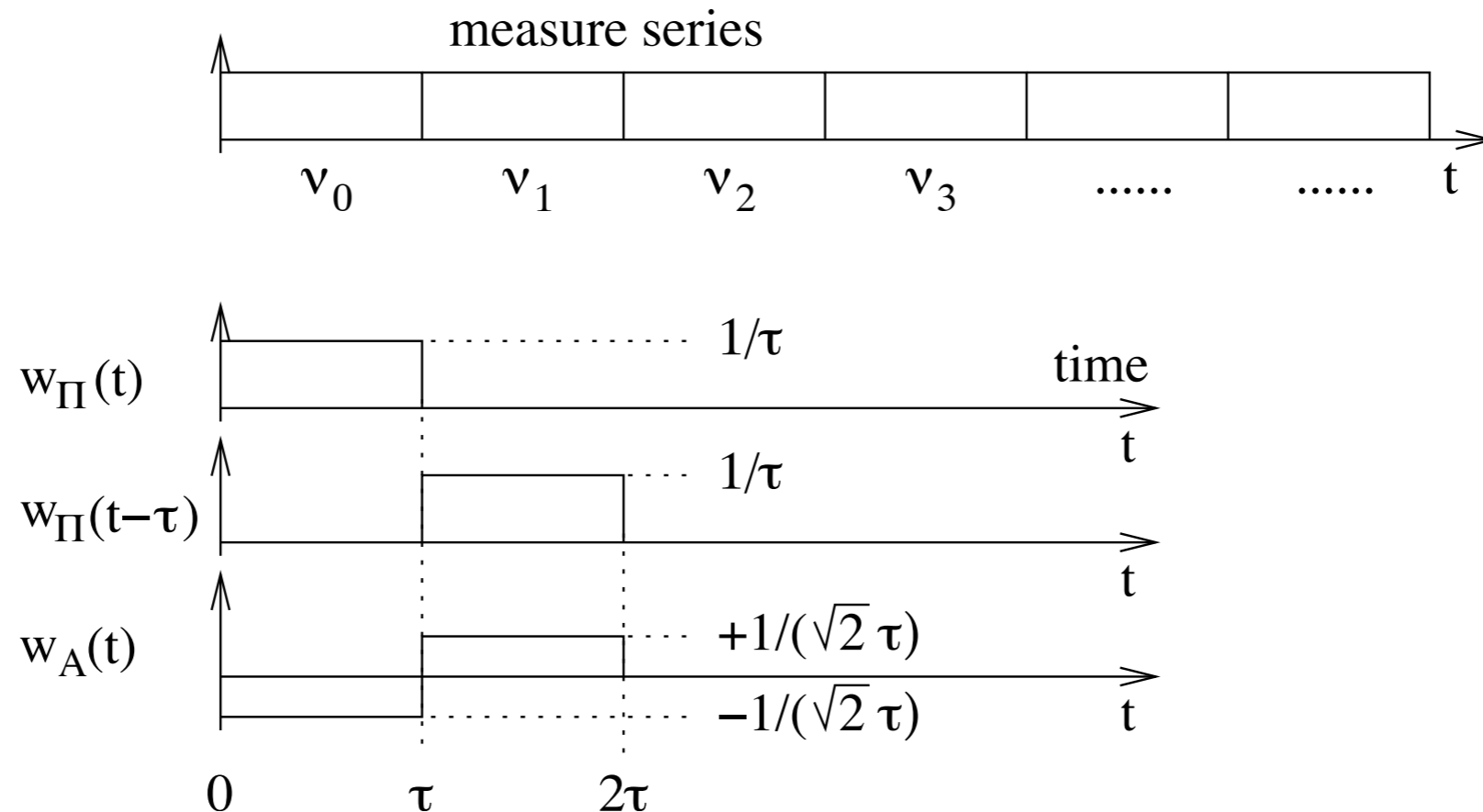
Noise Type	$S_y(f)$	Allan ( $\sigma_A^2$ )	Modified Allan	Triangle
White PM	$h_2 f^2$	$\frac{3 f_H}{4 \pi^2} h_2 \tau^{-2}$ $= \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{3}{8 \pi^2} h_2 \tau^{-3}$ $= \frac{1}{2 f_H \tau} \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{2}{\pi^2} h_2 \tau^{-3}$ $= \frac{8}{3 f_H \tau} \sigma_A^2(\tau)$
Flicker PM	$h_1 f$	$\frac{1.038 + 3 \ln(2 \pi f_H \tau)}{4 \pi^2} h_1 \tau^{-2}$ $= \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{3 \ln(\frac{256}{27})}{8 \pi^2} h_1 \tau^{-2}$ $= \frac{3.37}{3.12 + 3 \ln \pi f_H \tau} \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{6 \ln(\frac{27}{16})}{\pi^2} h_1 \tau^{-2}$ $= \frac{12.56}{3.12 + 3 \ln \pi f_H \tau} \sigma_A^2(\tau)$
White FM	$h_0$	$\frac{1}{2} h_0 \tau^{-1}$ $= \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{1}{4} h_0 \tau^{-1}$ $= 0.50 \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{2}{3} h_0 \tau^{-1}$ $= 1.33 \sigma_A^2(\tau)$
Flicker FM	$h_{-1} f^{-1}$	$2 \ln(2) h_{-1}$ $= \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$2 \ln(\frac{3 \cdot 3^{11/16}}{4}) h_{-1}$ $= 0.67 \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$(24 \ln(2) - \frac{27}{2} \ln(3)) h_{-1}$ $= 1.30 \sigma_A^2(\tau)$
Random Walk FM	$h_{-2} f^{-2}$	$\frac{2}{3} \pi^2 h_{-2} \tau$ $= \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{11}{20} \pi^2 h_{-2} \tau$ $= 0.82 \sigma_A^2(\tau)$	$\frac{23}{30} \pi^2 h_{-2} \tau$ $= 1.15 \sigma_A^2(\tau)$
Frequency Drift ( $\dot{y} = D_y$ )	-	$\frac{1}{2} D_y^2 \tau^2$	$\frac{1}{2} D_y^2 \tau^2$	$\frac{1}{2} D_y^2 \tau^2$

$\nu_{00}$  is replaced with  $\nu_0$  for consistency with the general literature

$f_H$  is the high cutoff frequency, needed for the noise power to be finite

# $\Pi$ estimator $\rightarrow$ Allan variance

given a series of contiguous non-overlapped measures



the Allan variance is easily evaluated

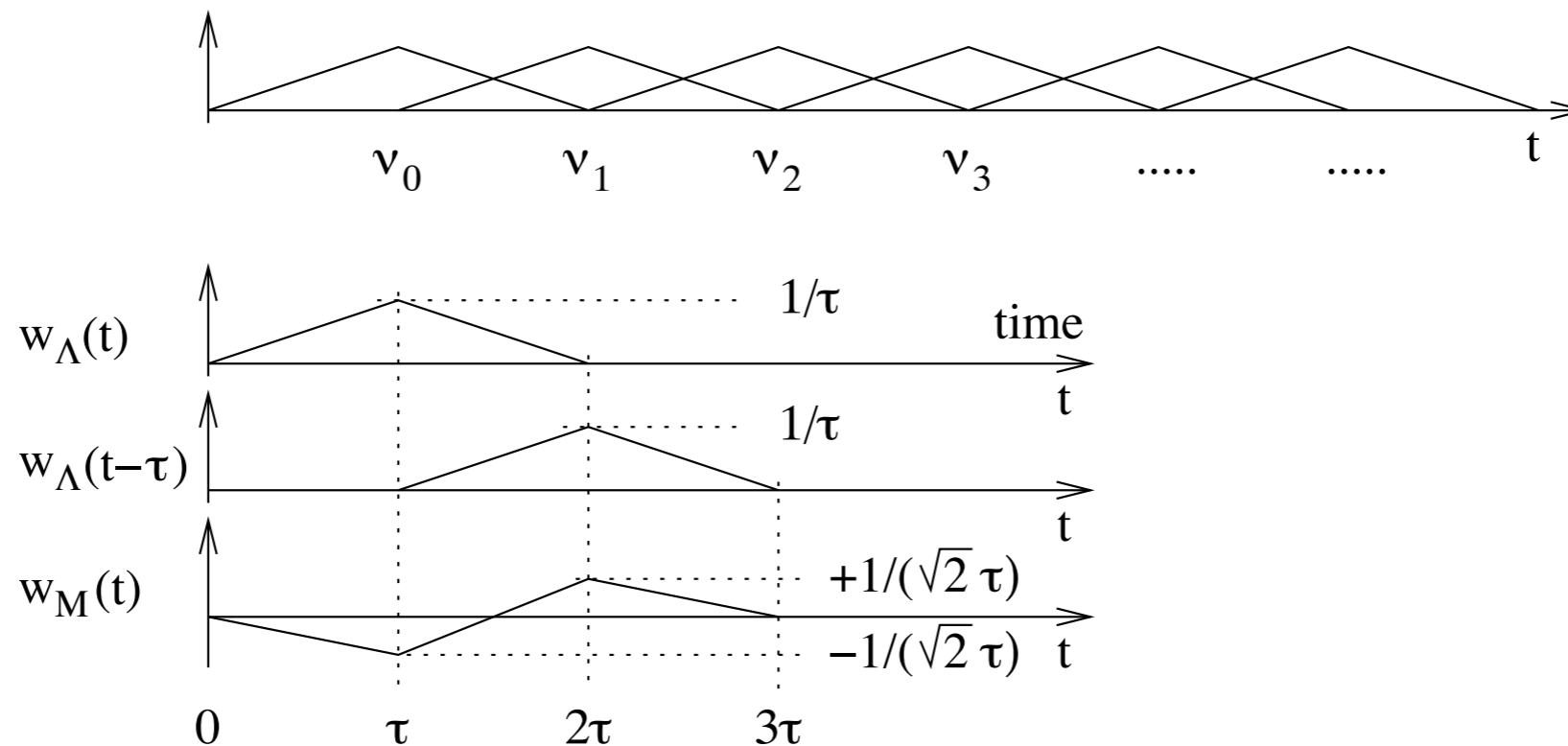
$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \bar{y}_{k+1} - \bar{y}_k \right]^2 \right\}$$

# overlapped $\Lambda$ estimator $\rightarrow$ MVAR

by feeding a series of  $\Lambda$ -estimates of frequency in the formula of the Allan variance

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \bar{y}_{k+1} - \bar{y}_k \right]^2 \right\}$$

as they were  $\Pi$ -estimates



one gets exactly the modified Allan variance!

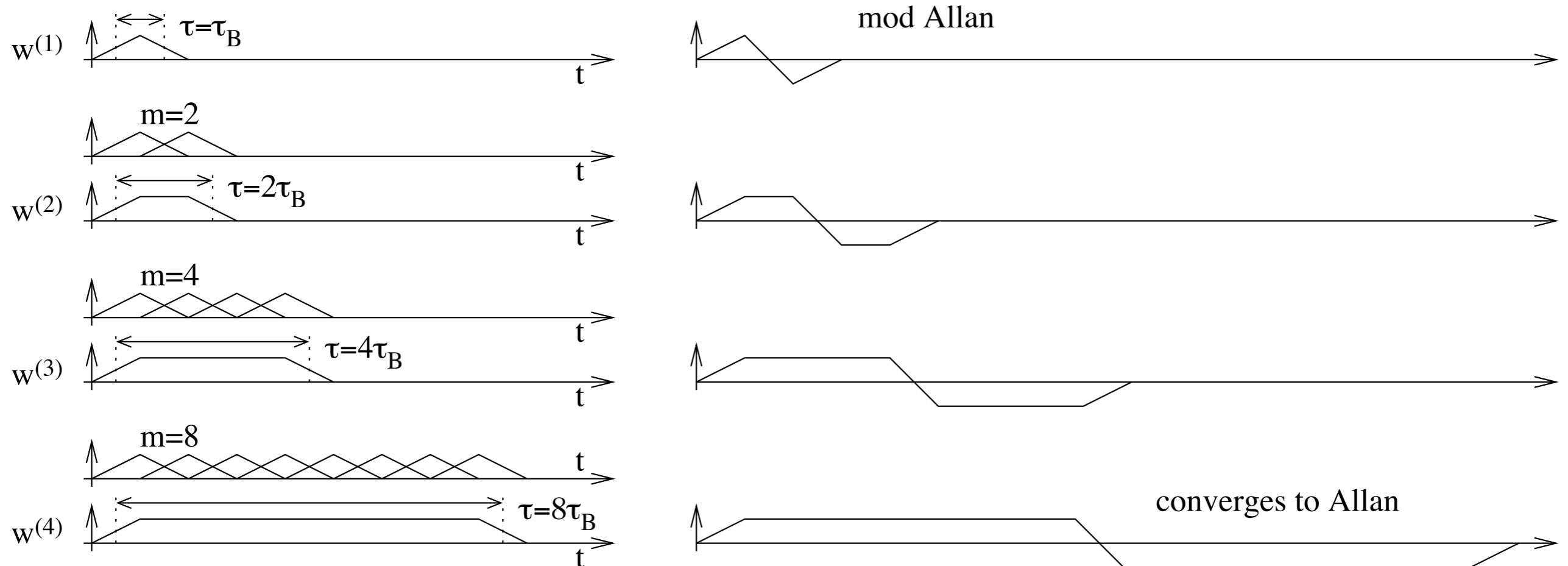
$$\text{mod } \sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left( \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{(i+n)\tau_0}^{(i+2n)\tau_0} y(t) dt - \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{i\tau_0}^{(i+n)\tau_0} y(t) dt \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$

with  $\tau = n\tau_0$ .



# joining contiguous values to increase $\tau$

## graphical proof



- $m = 1$  mod Allan
- $m = 2$  this is not what we expected
- $m = 4$  ...
- $m \geq 8$  the variance converges to the (non modified) Allan variance

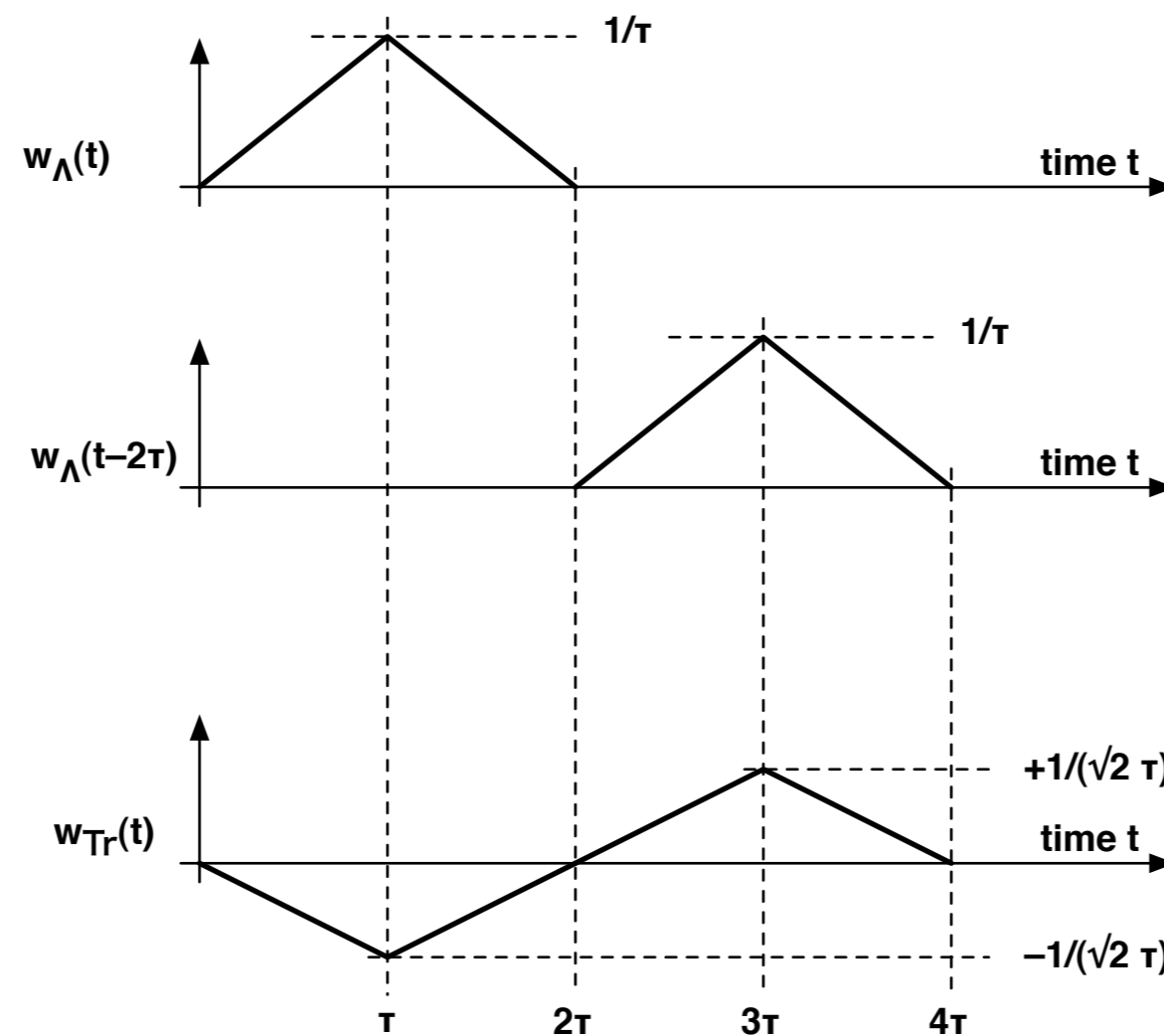
There is a mistake in one of my articles: I believed that in the case of the Agilent counters the contiguous measures were overlapped. They are not.

# non-overlapped $\Lambda$ estimator $\rightarrow$ TrVAR

by feeding a series of  $\Lambda$ -estimates of frequency in the formula of the Allan variance

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \bar{y}_{k+1} - \bar{y}_k \right]^2 \right\}$$

as they were  $\Pi$ -estimates



one gets the triangular variance!

# Conclusions

- The multi-tap delay-line interpolator is simple with modern FPGAs
- In frequency measurements, the  $\Lambda$  (triangular) estimator provides higher resolution
- The  $\Lambda$  estimator can not be used in single-event time-interval measurements
- Mistakes are around the corner if the counter inside is not well understood
- Some of the reported ideas are suitable to education laboratories and classroom works (I used a bicycle and milestones to demonstrate the  $\Lambda$  estimator)

Thanks to J. Dick (JPL), C. Greenhall (JPL), D. Howe (NIST) and M. Oxborrow (NPL) for discussions

## To know more:

- 1 - [rubiola.org](http://rubiola.org), slides and articles
- 2 - [www.arxiv.org](http://www.arxiv.org), document arXiv:physics/0503022v1
- 3 - Rev. of Sci. Instrum. vol. 76 no. 5, art.no. 054703, May 2005.

home page <http://rubiola.org>

# REFERENCES

## TIME INTERVAL AMPLIFIER

R. MUTT, Digital time intervalometer  
 Rev. Sci. Instr. 39(9): 1342 (sep. 1968)

B.T. TURKO Multichannel interval timer  
 IEEE Trans. Nucl. Sci 31(1) 167 (feb. 1984)

NANOFAST Inc. 536 B Time interval meter  
 instruction manual, USA (unknown date)

## FREQUENCY VERNIER

- E. D. Peterson, R. P. Valenti, Time Interval measuring system employing digital means coarse ambiguity resolution  
US patent 3,218,553, Nov. 16, 1965
- Hewlett Packard (Now Agilent Technologies)  
HP 5370A operating and service manual
- Hewlett Packard - Fundamentals of electronic counters, HP AN-200, 1997
- Eldorado counter, I could not track the reference

## TIME-TO-VOLTAGE CONVERTER

- Stanford SR620 operating manual,  
Note: the full sheet included, is difficult to interpret. No "theory of operation" chapter is present.