

Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira
Orientador: Diógenes Cecílio da Silva

BEAN: Uma Plataforma Computacional para Rede de Sensores Sem Fio

Dissertação apresentada ao Curso de Pós-graduação em Ciência da Computação da Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, como requisito parcial para a obtenção do grau de Mestre em Ciência da Computação.

Belo Horizonte
15 de Abril de 2004

Resumo

Redes de Sensores Sem Fio (RSSFs) são redes com grande número de micro-sensores compactos com capacidade de comunicação sem fio, chamados de nós sensores. Uma RSSF tem o potencial para um grande número de aplicações, que varia desde coletar dados do meio-ambiente até aplicações militares. O objetivo deste trabalho é projetar uma plataforma computacional, chamada BEAN (*Brazilian Energy-Efficient Architectural Node*), que inclui componentes de hardware e software, e servirá de protótipo para uma RSSF. Desafios na arquitetura como poder computacional, consumo de energia, fontes de energia, canais de comunicação e capacidade de sensoriar são impostos aos projetistas. Em nosso conhecimento, BEAN é o primeiro nó sensor que permite medir o consumo de energia de cada componente e também o primeiro protótipo projetado no Brasil.

Abstract

Wireless sensor networks are networks of large quantities of compact micro-sensors with wireless communication capability, called sensor nodes. Emerging applications of data gathering range from the environmental to the military. The objective of this work is to project a computer platform, called BEAN (Brazilian Energy-Efficient Architectural Node), that includes software and hardware components, which will be a prototype device for wireless sensor networks. Architectural challenges are posed for designers such as computational power, energy consumption, energy sources, communication channels and sensing capabilities. In our knowledge, BEAN is the first sensor node that allow measuring the power consumption of each component and it is the first sensor node prototype designed in Brazil.

Agradecimentos

É muito difícil mencionar aqui todas as pessoas que têm me apoiado durante este tempo.

Aos meus pais, Heloísa Beatriz e José Augusto, pelo esforço para que me proporcionassem uma boa formação e educação. Aos meus irmãos Alessandra e Luiz Filipe, que sempre estiveram por perto.

Ao Prof. Diógenes por todo apoio que me deu, pela amizade, pela paciência, pelas idéias e pelos ensinamentos que sempre me passou.

Ao Prof. Antonio Otávio, pelo apoio desde o início, quando eu ainda era aluno de graduação, pela amizade e consideração.

Aos professores e funcionários do DCC, em especial aos professores A. Alfredo, Claudionor, Linnyer, Newton, Mário, pelos ensinamentos e sugestões que contribuíram para a minha formação.

Aos meus amigos de graduação da Turma 98, membros da Powertec®, amigos do Laboratório Engetron e LECOM, especialmente Gustavo (gms), Alex, Cadu, Romeo, Daniela, Breno Vitorino, Vinícius (Makish), Otaviano, Ajmendes, Valdeci, Felipe, Maia, pela amizade.

À equipe de desenvolvimento César e Rangel.

À vitoriosa equipe ACM pelo esforço e dedicação.

Aos membros do OSV e Bier e organizadores do álbum de figurinhas, pelos momentos de lazer.

A todos os outros amigos, como o Nacif, Ana, Tom, Rafael, Bruno, Márcia, Lidia.

Ao PNM (Programa Nacional de Microeletrônica) (processo 13.3555/2002-0), pela bolsa de estudos, à Texas Instruments do Brasil pelo kit de desenvolvimento e amostras e ao projeto Sensornet (55 2111/02-3) pelo apoio financeiro parcial.

Finalmente, à Ciência e ao glorioso Clube Atlético Mineiro.

Contents

List of Figures	v
List of Tables	viii
Breve Resumo da Dissertação em Português	xi
1 Introduction	1
1.1 WSN Architecture	2
1.2 Embedded System	3
1.3 Objective and Motivation	3
1.4 Text Organization	4
2 Related Work	6
3 Sensor Node Architecture	14
3.1 WSN Components	14
3.2 Sensor node functional components	15
3.2.1 Processing Block	16
3.2.2 Sensing Block	16
3.3 Characteristics and Requirements	17
3.4 Challenges	18
4 BEAN Hardware Components	20
4.1 Processing Unit	20
4.1.1 Programmable Logic	21

4.1.2	Microcontrollers	22
4.1.3	Texas Instruments MSP430	25
4.2	Power	32
4.2.1	Batteries	32
4.3	Communication	34
4.3.1	Laser communication	34
4.3.2	Infrared	35
4.3.3	Radio-frequency (RF)	35
4.4	Sensing Unit	42
4.4.1	Sensor Bus	43
4.5	Other components	44
4.5.1	Extended memory	44
4.5.2	Debugging	47
4.5.3	Serial Number	47
4.5.4	Real Time Clock	48
4.5.5	Measuring Energy	49
4.6	Interfacing CC1000 and MSP430	50
4.6.1	CC1000 Application Circuit	50
4.6.2	Interfacing Radio and the Microcontroller	50
4.6.3	CC1000PP	55
4.6.4	Radio Connector	57
4.7	Project Decisions	57
5	BEAN API	60
5.1	Drivers	61
5.1.1	SPI Driver	62
5.1.2	1-Wire Driver	64
5.1.3	LED Driver	66
5.1.4	Queue Driver	67
5.1.5	Memory Driver	67
5.1.6	Radio Driver	69

5.1.7	Case Study	70
5.2	Development Tools	70
6	Energy issues	74
6.1	Background	74
6.1.1	Battery behavior	76
6.1.2	Radio Energy Model	76
6.2	CMOS technology	78
6.3	Energy Management Techniques	79
6.4	Low Power X Energy-Efficiency	80
6.5	Memory	81
6.6	Power Budget	81
7	Final Considerations	86
7.1	Conclusion	86
7.2	Future Work	88
7.2.1	Sensor boards	88
7.2.2	Radio	89
7.2.3	BEAN_API	89
7.2.4	New Platforms	90
	References	92
A	Schematic	102
B	Layout	104
C	API	107
C.1	Clock	107
C.2	LED	107
C.3	Memory	107
C.4	1-Wire	108
C.5	Radio	109

C.6 SPI	109
C.7 Queue	110
D Radio Board	111
E Bill of Materials	113
F Glossary	115

List of Figures

1	Rede de Sensores Sem Fio.	xii
2	Diagrama de Blocos do Protótipo do Nó Sensor.	xiv
3	API.	xviii
1.1	Wireless sensor network.	2
2.1	EYES.	12
2.2	Medusa2.	12
2.3	Mica.	12
2.4	Mica2 and Mica2-dot.	12
2.5	PushPin.	12
2.6	Wec Mote.	12
2.7	Telos.	12
2.8	μ amp.	12
2.9	WINS	13
2.10	BTnode.	13
2.11	Nymph.	13
2.12	ESB.	13
2.13	Spec.	13
3.1	Block Diagram of Sensor Node Prototype.	15
3.2	System architecture and challenges of a sensor node.	19
4.1	Typical Current Consumption vs. Operation Modes [93].	25
4.2	Register Overview [45].	26

4.3	Low-Power CPU [45].	26
4.4	Functional block diagram of MSP430xx16x [45].	27
4.5	Frequency versus Supply Voltage [45].	28
4.6	Pin Designation [46].	29
4.7	Different modulation for RF [49].	36
4.8	I/Q phases of O-QPSK [19].	37
4.9	Ratio of receiver packet per distance for TR1000 and CC1000 components [48].	38
4.10	Rayleigh fading [48].	39
4.11	M25P40 [60].	46
4.12	DS2417 [28].	48
4.13	A new methodology to evaluate on-the-fly the power consumption of WSN algorithms.	49
4.14	CC1000 Application Circuit [17].	50
4.15	CC1000-MCU Hardware Interface [96].	51
4.16	SPI Configuration Interface [96].	52
4.17	SPI data Interface [96].	53
4.18	Connection MCU USART Modules to other BEAN Components.	54
4.19	Different encoding strategies [17].	55
4.20	Programmable output power allows changing radio range.	56
4.21	CC1000PP [18].	56
5.1	BEAN_API	61
5.2	MSP430 USART as Master, External Device With SPI as Slave [93].	63
5.3	MSP430 USART as Slave in Three-Pin or Four-Pin Configuration [93].	64
5.4	1-Wire waveforms [25].	65
5.5	Queue.	67
5.6	Read Data Bytes (READ) Instruction Sequence and Data-Out Sequence [60].	69
5.7	Radio driver using SPI.	69
5.8	Radio Driver using State Machine [20].	70
6.1	Current per unit time of a set of tasks.	75
6.2	Radio Model.	77
6.3	Memory Current Consumption at Standby and Down Mode.	82

6.4	BEAN Savings.	85
7.1	BEAN board	87
A.1	BEAN Schematic	103
B.1	All BEAN Components Layout	104
B.2	BEAN Bottom Layout	105
B.3	BEAN Top Layout	105
B.4	BEAN Components Layout	106
D.1	Radio Board Bottom Layout	111
D.2	Radio Board Top Layout	111
D.3	Radio Board Schematic Layout	112

List of Tables

1	Orçamento energético do BEAN.	xx
2	Orçamento Energético do BEAN e do Mica2.	xxi
3	Consumo em mA-hora.	xxi
4	Capacidade da bateria em meses.	xxi
5	Economia de BEAN.	xxi
2.1	Sensor Node Platforms.	11
4.1	Microcontroller Comparison.	24
4.2	MCU Port Mapping.	29
4.2	MCU Port Mapping.	30
4.2	MCU Port Mapping.	31
4.2	MCU Port Mapping.	32
4.3	Comparison of energetic sources.	33
4.4	Battery technology Comparison.	33
4.5	Radio components.	41
4.6	Sensor types specifications.	43
4.7	Sensor bus comparison.	45
4.8	Memory Comparison.	46
4.9	Memory Pin Description.	46
4.10	JTAG interface pin.	47
4.11	DS2417 Pin Description [28].	49
4.12	CC1000 Pins.	51
4.13	Output power settings and typical current consumption at 868 Mhz.	56

4.14	Pin description of Radio Connector.	57
4.15	BEAN Overview.	59
5.1	1-Wire Operations.	65
5.2	Memory Instruction Set.	68
5.3	Development Tools.	73
6.1	BEAN Power Budget.	82
6.2	Mica2 Power Budget.	83
6.3	Power budget of BEAN and Mica2.	84
6.4	Computed mA-hr.	85
6.5	Months per battery Capacity.	85
7.1	Sensor Node Prices.	88
7.2	MSP430F161x.	90
E.1	Radio Board Components	113
E.2	Bean Components	114

Breve Resumo da Dissertação em Português

1 Introdução

Redes de Sensores Sem Fio (RSSFs) são redes com grande número de micro-sensores compactos com capacidade de comunicação sem fio, chamados de nós sensores. O objetivo destas redes é coletar dados. A disponibilidade de dispositivos sensores de baixo consumo, processadores embutidos e circuitos integrados de comunicação está permitindo o projeto de nós sensores. Figura 1 ilustra uma RSSF. Cada ponto representa um nó sensor. Cada dispositivo sensoria o meio-ambiente, processa e transmite os dados para um observador externo chamado de estação base.

Rede de Sensores Sem Fio tem o potencial para várias aplicações e algumas já são realidade, por exemplo, em uma metrópole para monitorar tráfego e condições das ruas; em engenharia para monitorar pontes e estruturas de prédios, em florestas para detecção de fogo [81]; na agricultura de precisão, em serviços de recuperação de desastres; em serviços de manutenção como usinas nucleares e na biomedicina [83].

O objetivo deste trabalho é projetar uma plataforma computacional, que inclui componentes de hardware e software, que servirá de protótipo para rede de sensores sem fio. Este protótipo de nó sensor será chamado Brazilian Energy-Efficient Architectural Node (BEAN).

Neste documento, as considerações de projeto e escolha de componentes para o protótipo de RSSF serão discutidas. Um estudo dos nós sensores atuais é apresentado, investigando e analisando alguns dos desafios de arquitetura impostos a estes dispositivos, incluindo uma pesquisa das plataformas dos nós sensores e técnicas de gerência de energia. RSSF pode ser vista como um caso especial de sistema embutido e se beneficiar do grande conhecimento já existente. Um estudo comparativo

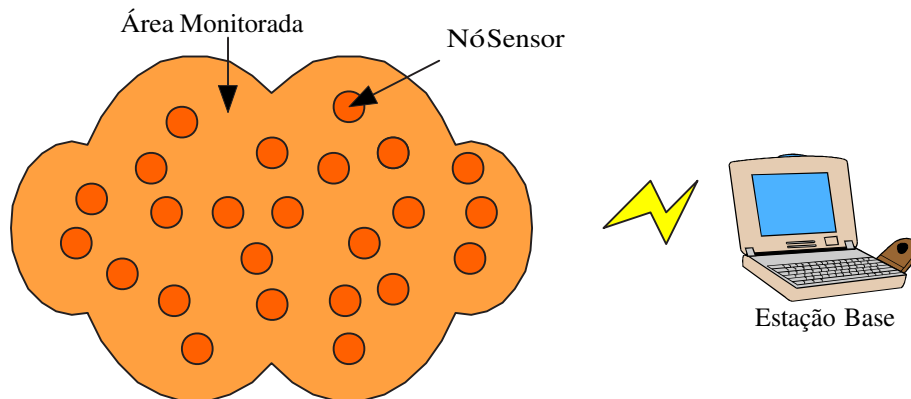


Figura 1: Rede de Sensores Sem Fio.

de componentes de prateleira como microcontroladores, tipos de bateria, componentes de rádio, que são muito importantes para o projeto do sistema, é apresentado. O foco do projeto é em componentes individuais e não em detalhes a nível de subsistemas. Escolha do hardware, assim como as soluções de software, são apresentadas neste trabalho. Uma API *application programming interface* bem definida, que pode ser usada em outros projetos também é apresentada.

Um nó sensor é composto de unidade de potência, unidade de processamento, unidade de sensores, e unidade de comunicação. A unidade de potência provê energia para o funcionamento do nó sensor. A unidade de processamento é responsável por coletar e processar sinais capturados dos sensores e transmiti-los para a rede. Sensores são dispositivos que produzem uma resposta mensurável dado uma mudança em uma condição física como temperatura e pressão. O canal de comunicação sem fio provê um meio para transmitir sinais dos sensores para dentro da rede ou para o mundo exterior e também para estabelecer e manter a RSSF.

O consumo de energia é e será a primeira métrica no projeto de um nó sensor. Enquanto que existe a Lei de Moore que prediz que a complexidade de dispositivos microeletrônicos dobra a cada dezoito meses, e a Lei de Gilder, que prediz um crescimento de comportamento similar ao exponencial na largura de banda, não existe uma predição equivalente para a tecnologia de baterias.

No nosso conhecimento, BEAN é o primeiro nó sensor que permite medir o consumo de energia de cada componente. BEAN também é um dos primeiros projetos a usar o novo microcontrolador MSP430F169 [93] da Texas Instruments. Finalmente, BEAN é o primeiro nó sensor projetado no Brasil.

As motivações principais para este trabalho são a necessidade de um protótipo de nó sensor para o projeto Sensornet [85] e também não existe uma plataforma computacional para RSSF no mercado nacional brasileiro pois este é um tópico recente. Finalmente, é muito importante o desenvolvimento da tecnologia, tendo conhecimento completo desde o hardware até o software. Como especificado no documento do NSF [66], RSSF é uma das grande áreas de pesquisa atualmente.

2 Arquitetura do Nó Sensor

2.1 Características e Requisitos

Nesta seção, serão discutidas algumas características e requisitos do protótipo do nó sensor. Este projeto não tem a intenção de projetar um dispositivo que será comparável a um nó sensor real. Enquanto que um produto real tamanho e custo são requisitos essenciais, o foco deste projeto é em um sistema fácil de expandir com um grande número de sensores, robusto e fácil de programar.

A seguir são apresentados as considerações de projeto, características e requisitos do projeto do BEAN:

- **Eficiência de energia** - Nós sensores devem ser eficientes quanto a energia. Nós sensores têm uma quantidade limitada de energia que determina o tempo de vida destes dispositivos. Como é inviável recarregar milhares de nós, cada nó sensor deve ser o mais eficiente possível quanto ao consumo de energia. Portanto, energia é restrição principal, sendo a métrica principal para análise.
- **Baixo custo** - Nós sensores devem ser baratos. Como uma RSSF pode conter centenas a milhares de nós sensores, estes dispositivos devem ser baratos.
- **Comunicação Sem Fio** - O nó sensor precisa ser sem fio. Em várias aplicações, o ambiente que está sendo monitorado não terá uma infra-estrutura de comunicação instalada. A instalação de cabos pode ser muito difícil ou caro. Portanto, os nós sensores deve ter um canal de comunicação sem fio.
- **Fácil de Programar** - Como este componente será um protótipo, ele será constantemente re-programável para o desenvolvimento de protocolos de comunicação e aplicações em RSSF. Portanto, a programação deve ser fácil.

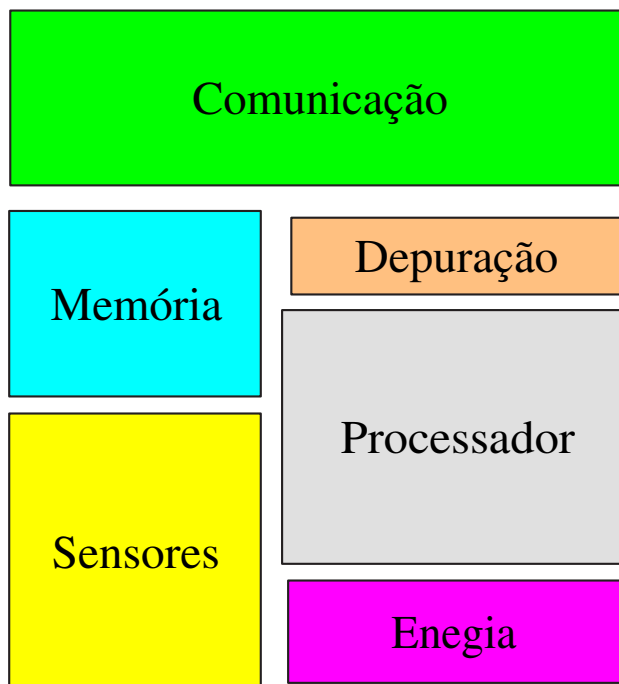


Figura 2: Diagrama de Blocos do Protótipo do Nó Sensor.

- **Expansível** - O projeto de hardware deve ser expansível pois o nó sensor deve dar suporte a um grande número de aplicações.
- **Tamanho** - para efeito de demonstração, os dispositivos devem ser pequenos. Mas, tamanho é a restrição menos importante pois este projeto é apenas um protótipo e não um nó sensor real.

2.2 Componentes funcionais do Nó Sensor

Figura 2 apresenta a arquitetura de sistema de um protótipo de nó sensor genérico. Ele é composto de seis blocos principais: unidade de fonte de energia, comunicação, unidade de processamento, unidade de armazenamento, interface de depuração e sensores. A unidade de fonte de energia consiste normalmente de uma bateria e um conversor dc-dc e tem a função de alimentar o nó sensor. A unidade de comunicação consiste de um canal de comunicação sem fio bidirecional. A maioria das plataformas usam rádio de curto alcance. Outras soluções incluem laser e mídia infra-vermelho. A unidade de processamento é composta de uma memória interna para armazenamento de dados e programas, um microcontrolador e um conversor analógico-digital para receber sinais do bloco dos

sensores. A unidade de armazenamento é uma memória externa que serve como memória secundária, por exemplo, manter um “log” de dados. A interface de depuração é usada para programar e testar os nós sensores. Este bloco pode ser omitido no produto final de nó sensor. A unidade de processamento é um bloco que liga um nó sensor ao mundo físico e tem um grupo de sensores e atuadores que dependem da aplicação da RSSF.

3 Componentes de Hardware

Nesta seção serão discutidos as escolhas dos componentes de hardware.

3.1 Unidade de Processamento

O microcontrolador usado neste projeto é o MSP430F169, fabricado pela Texas Instruments. Ele tem baixíssimo consumo de energia, CPU de 16 bits e desempenho de 8 MIPS. Ele tem 60Kbytes de memória de programa e 2Kbytes de memória de dados. Ele possui uma interface de depuração padrão JTAG, e também possui um grande número de ferramentas de desenvolvimento.

O MSP430 consome menos que 400 mA no modo ativo, operando em 1 MHz com 3V e pode acordar de um estado de repouso em menos de 6 μ s. Ele é ideal para permitir o nó sensor dormir e acordar apenas quando necessário para processar alguma coisa.

O processador inclui um rico conjunto de periféricos como conversor analógico-digital, comunicação serial, comparadores e temporizadores.

3.2 Memória Externa

Muitos algoritmos e aplicações requerem um grande número de dados para serem armazenados. A quantidade de RAM no microcontrolador é limitada. A solução é adicionar uma memória externa que funcionará como memória secundária.

O M25P40 [60] da ST é uma memória serial flash de 4 Mbit que é rápida e pode mudar para o modo de operação de baixo consumo quando não for utilizada. Ela gasta 1,5ms para escrever a página (256 bytes) e no modo de baixo consumo gasta 10 μ W.

3.3 Comunicação

A função de comunicação entre os nós sensores é realizada pelo CC1000 [17] fabricado pela Chipcon. O CC1000 é um transceptor de baixo consumo, CMOS, qualificado para transmissão de dados de até 76,8 Kbit/s. No modo de baixo consumo, a corrente do CC1000 é $0,2 \mu\text{A}$. O CC1000 é projetado para modulação FSK na banda ISM. BEAN é configurado para trabalhar na faixa de 915 MHz. É possível controlar a potência do sinal de saída e portanto especificar qual o alcance do rádio, economizando energia e diminuindo interferência. O transceptor também pode medir a intensidade do sinal de recepção (RSSI), fornecendo uma idéia de quão distantes os nós sensores estão entre si.

Para permitir o estudo e desenvolvimento de outros rádios, foi definido um barramento de rádio para o BEAN, no qual contem dez pinos. Usando o barramento de rádio, é possível modificar o projeto do canal de rádio sem alterar BEAN.

3.4 Barramento de Sensores

É desejável que o protótipo do nó sensor seja fácil de expandir para permitir uma variedade de aplicações. A solução encontrada é definir um barramento de sensores. O barramento de expansão provê uma interface de usuário para placa de sensores adicionais. Portanto, para servir em uma aplicação específica, basta construir uma placa de sensores específica e conectá-la ao barramento de sensores do BEAN. Por exemplo, para uma estação metereológica, uma placa com os sensores de temperatura, luz e humidade.

3.5 Depuração

Para depurar, quatro LEDS são adicionados ao projeto do protótipo. O consumo de corrente dos LEDS pode ser maior que o do rádio, e portanto é aconselhável usá-los apenas para depuração. A interface JTAG (IEEE1149.1) é usada para programar e depurar o microcontrolador servindo também para programar a memória flash.

3.6 Fonte de Energia

Como o projeto visa a construção de um protótipo, a opção foi usar uma fonte de alimentação para alimentá-lo.

Um diferencial do projeto do BEAN é a possibilidade de medir o consumo de energia de cada componente em particular (rádio, microcontrolador, barramento de sensores, memória externa e todos). Foi adicionado um resistor “shunt” na fonte de alimentação de cada componente, permitindo medir o consumo de energia. Para o nosso conhecimento, este é o primeiro protótipo de nó sensor com esta vantagem.

Outra opção interessante é conectar o barramento de sensores do BEAN com os pontos de medição de outro BEAN. Isto levará a uma nova metodologia para avaliar dinamicamente o consumo de energia de algoritmos de RSSF e como a ação de medir será feita por outro BEAN, a medida será independente e não distorcida pelo ato de medir.

3.7 Outros componentes

É desejável saber quando um evento ocorre, como por exemplo, ao gravar a leitura do sinal de um sensor. Adicionando um relógio de tempo real permite o nó sensor medir o tempo ou criar um livro de “log”. Também é possível criar um relógio de tempo real com o microcontrolador, mas também é desejável colocar o microcontrolador em baixo consumo de energia para economizar energia. Esta solução também faria o software mais complexo. A abordagem mais simples é adicionar um componente de hardware.

É desejável que cada nó sensor tenha um identificador único como um número. Uma solução em software é escrever um número no componente de memória na fase de programação. Embora isto seja uma solução, uma solução via hardware é mais elegante.

O componente DS2417 [28] oferece uma solução simples para armazenamento e recuperação da informação de tempo com um hardware mínimo. Este componente contém um identificador único e um relógio de tempo real implementado como um contador binário. Ele usa o protocolo 1-Wire onde apenas um pino é necessário para alimentar e comunicar com este dispositivo.

4 Componentes de Software

O projeto do BEAN também inclui o desenvolvimento de componentes de software. BEAN_API é composto de uma API (*application programming interface*) e os componentes que a implementam. A API é um conjunto de funcionalidades para controlar, configurar e prover serviços dos componentes

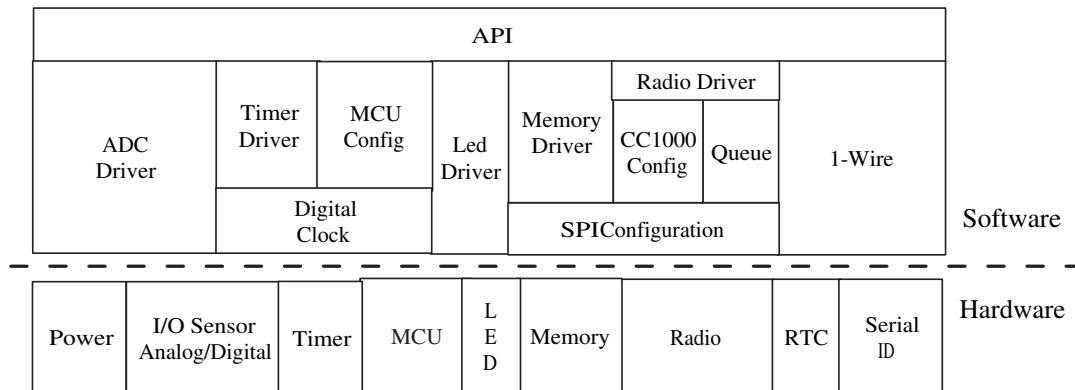


Figura 3: API.

do hardware através de uma interface bem definida.

A Figura 3 mostra a BEAN_API. Ela é composta de *drivers* que controlam o hardware e provê um conjunto de funcionalidades para a camada acima. Embora temporizadores, conversores analógico-digital (ADC), pinos de entrada e saída sejam unidades periféricas do microcontrolador, eles estão separados na figura para melhor explicar a integração hardware/software. Embora todos os componentes de software atuem dentro do MCU, a figura tenta explicar qual driver de software controla os componentes de hardware. O hardware do relógio e o número serial comunicam com o MCU através do protocolo de software 1-Wire. A memória externa e o rádio comunicam com o MCU através do módulo SPI. Temporizadores são configurados usando o *Digital Clock* e *Timer Driver*. Para medir o consumo de energia e os sinais dos sensores, é necessário usar o ADC, que é controlado pelo ADC Driver.

A API comunica com a camada de cima que é um sistema operacional sendo desenvolvido para o BEAN. Alguns componentes de software são:

- **MCU Config** - O bloco de configuração do MCU permite mudar o modo de operação do MCU. O MCU tem seis diferentes modos de operação e são capazes de tratar eventos de interrupção
- **ADC Driver** - A funcionalidade do ADC driver é configurar e manipular o módulo de hardware ADC. O driver é usado para medir entradas analógicas e providas pelos sensores ou nível de tensão.
- **1-Wire** - O módulo 1-Wire implementa o protocolo 1-Wire. Ele é usado para comunicar com o componente DS2417.

- **Digital Clock** - Este módulo configura o relógio do MCU, provendo uma maneira de configurar o relógio interno como múltiplos do relógio básico de 32 KHz.
- **SPI Driver** - O módulo de SPI configura o hardware SPI. Este protocolo é usado pela memória externa e rádio.
- **Memory Driver** - O driver de memória controla a memória externa M25P40.
- **Radio Driver** - Este driver configura as propriedades do rádio como potência de saída, frequência, e também controla a transmissão e recepção de pacotes. Este driver define duas filas, uma para o buffer de transmissão e uma para o buffer de recepção.

5 Questões Energéticas

Nesta seção, um modelo de energia para nó sensores é apresentado. Valores são baseados em *datasheets* dos fabricantes. BEAN normalmente estará em um dos estados a seguir:

- **Modo Down** - tudo está desligado e o MCU está no modo de operação LPM3. A corrente é $10,5\mu\text{A}$ e a potência é $31,5\mu\text{W}$.
- **Modo de Recepção** - o MCU está no modo ativo, o rádio no modo de recepção e o resto está desligado. A corrente é de 10mA e a potência é de 30mW .
- **Modo de Transmissão** - o MCU está no modo ativo, o rádio está no modo de transmissão e o resto está desligado. A corrente é $16,9\text{mA}$ e a potência é 51mW .
- **Lendo a memória** - o MCU está no modo ativo, a memória no modo de leitura e o resto desligado. A corrente é $4,4\text{mA}$ e a potência é $13,2\text{mW}$.
- **Escrita na memória** - o MCU está no modo ativo, a memória está no modo de escrita e o resto está desligado. A corrente máxima é $15,4\text{mA}$ e a potência é $46,2\text{mW}$.
- **Modo de Sensoriar** - o MCU está no modo ativo, o sensor específico está ligado e o resto desligado. Este modo é dependente de qual placa de sensores está sendo usada.

Microcontrolador (1,8-3,6) V			
Down:0,1 μ A	Atoa: 1,3 μ A	Ativo: 400 μ A	
Rádio (2,1 - 3,6) V			
Down:0,2uA	Transmitir:16,5mA	Receber:9,6mA	
Memória (2,7-3,6)V			
Down:10 μ A	Standby:50 μ A	Ler:4mA	Escrever:15mA
Relógio de Tempo Real (2,5-5,5)V			
0,200 μ A			

Tabela 1: *Orçamento energético do BEAN.*

Tabela 1 mostra o consumo de corrente e tensão da maioria dos componentes do BEAN.

Apenas para comparação, o BTnode [53] gasta 50mW no modo down e 450mW no modo de comunicação. Claramente, BEAN é mais econômico.

Para comparar a plataforma, duas aplicações serão definidas. No primeiro cenário, o nó sensor irá coletar e transmitir dados dos sensores e repassar dados recebidos. Este cenário opera em 1% do tempo (MCU está no modo ativo). Neste período, lê a entrada do sensor, tenta receber pacotes $\frac{3}{4}$ do período e transmite em $\frac{1}{4}$ do período. Ele nunca usa memória externa.

Para o segundo cenário, o nó sensor atua como repetidor, mantendo um log de eventos. Ele opera em 1% do tempo. Neste período, recebe pacotes em $\frac{3}{4}$ do período e transmite em $\frac{1}{4}$ do período. Escreve na memória externa usando $\frac{1}{4}$ do período e também lê a memória externa $\frac{1}{4}$ do tempo para armazenar os pacotes recebidos e manter consistência dos dados. Os sensores não são utilizados.

Tabela 2 mostra o consumo de corrente das plataformas BEAN e Mica2 e os ciclos do cenários. Assume-se o mesmo consumo de corrente na placa de sensores para as duas plataformas.

Tabela 3 mostra os consumos de energia por componentes em mA-hora calculado para os dois cenários para cada plataforma. O processador BEAN é mais econômico que o processador Mica2.

Tabela 4 mostra o tempo de vida (em número de meses) para cada cenário e plataforma, dependendo do tipo de capacidade da bateria. No cenário 1, usando uma bateria de 300mA-hr, BEAN pode coletar dados por quase 26 meses.

Tabela 5 mostra quantitativamente a economia de BEAN comparado com Mica2 nos dois cenários. BEAN pode consumir quase que 50% a menos que Mica2. A economia principal é do processador e memória externa do BEAN.

	BEAN (mA)	Mica2 (mA)	Cenário 1 (%)	Cenário 2 (%)
Processador				
corrente (operação completa)	0,4	8	1	1
corrente dormindo	0,0013	0,008	99	99
Rádio				
corrente recebendo	8	8	0,75	0,75
corrente transmitindo	12	12	0,25	0,25
corrente dormindo	0,002	0,002	99	99
Logger Memória (max)				
Escrever	15	35	0	0,25
Ler	4	10	0	0,25
Dormir	0,01	0,02	100	99,5
Placa de Sensores				
corrente (operação completa)	5	5	1	0
corrente dormindo	0,005	0,005	99	100

Tabela 2: *Orçamento Energético do BEAN e do Mica2.*

Calculado mA-hr	Ciclo Cenário 1		Ciclo Cenário 2	
	BEAN	Mica2	BEAN	Mica2
Plataforma				
Processador	0,00529	0,08792	0,00529	0,08792
Rádio	0,09198	0,09198	0,09198	0,09198
Logger Memória	0,01	0,02	0,05745	0,1324
Placa de Sensores	0,05495	0,05495	0,005	0,005
Total (mA-hr)	0,16222	0,25485	0,15972	0,3173

Tabela 3: *Consumo em mA-hora.*

Capacidade da bateria (mA-hr)	Ciclo Cenário 1		Ciclo Cenário 2	
	BEAN	Mica2	BEAN	Mica2
Plataforma				
250	2,14	1,36	2,17	1,09
1000	8,56	5,45	8,7	4,38
3000	25,69	16,35	26,09	13,13

Tabela 4: *Capacidade da bateria em meses.*

	Economia de BEAN
Cenário 1	36,35%
Cenário 2	49,66%

Tabela 5: *Economia de BEAN.*

6 Conclusão

Uma plataforma computacional foi projetada, chamada BEAN, que inclui componentes de software e hardware, usada como protótipo de um nó sensor. Ele permite testar e demonstrar algoritmos para RSSF. Este sistema embutido é capaz de realizar todas as tarefas que um nó sensor real deve realizar e também tem as mesmas características como restrições de energia, memória e processamento.

BEAN pode consumir quase que 50% menos que o atual estado-da-arte Mica2 Mote. BEAN é eficiente na questão de energia porque a MCU do BEAN é um dos microcontroladores mais eficientes em termos de energia que existe atualmente, gastando cerca de 0,361 nJ por instrução. Além de energia, outras vantagens do BEAN são preço e a não necessidade de um dispositivo dedicado.

BEAN é genérico porque ele possui um barramento bem definido, sendo capaz de um grande número de aplicações. É necessário apenas uma placa de sensores específica para a aplicação. BEAN também suporta o estudo de outros tipos de rádio porque BEAN tem um barramento de rádio bem definido.

Este projeto também inclui o desenvolvimento de componentes de software, a BEAN_API. Um modelo básico de energia para nó sensor e o orçamento energético do BEAN também são discutidos.

Chapter 1

Introduction

[The Universe] is written in mathematical language.

Galileo Galilei

Wireless sensor network (WSN) is composed of hundreds or thousands of autonomous and compact devices called sensor nodes. The objective of this network is to collect data. The availability of integrated low-power sensing devices, embedded processors, wireless communication kits, and power equipment are enabling the design of sensor nodes. Figure 1.1 illustrates a WSN. Each dot represents a sensor node. Each device senses the environment, processes and usually transmits the data to an external observer called base station.

Wireless Sensor Network has the potential for many applications and some already exists, for example in a large metropolis to monitor traffic density and road conditions; in engineering to monitor bridges [51] and buildings structures; in a forest for fire detection [81] , in other environments like oceans and air resources; in precision agriculture; in disaster recovery service; in condition based maintenance devices like powerplants; in biomedicine [83]; in a smart kindergarten to create a development problem-saving environment for early childhood education [56]. Other applications include managing complex physical systems like airplane wings and complex ecosystems.

A sensor node is composed of a power unit, processing unit, sensing unit, and communication unit. The power unit has the purpose to power the node. The processing unit is responsible to collect and process signals captured from sensors and transmit them to the network. Sensors devices are devices that produce a measurable response to a change in a physical condition like temperature and pressure. The wireless communication channel provides a medium to transfer signals from sensors to

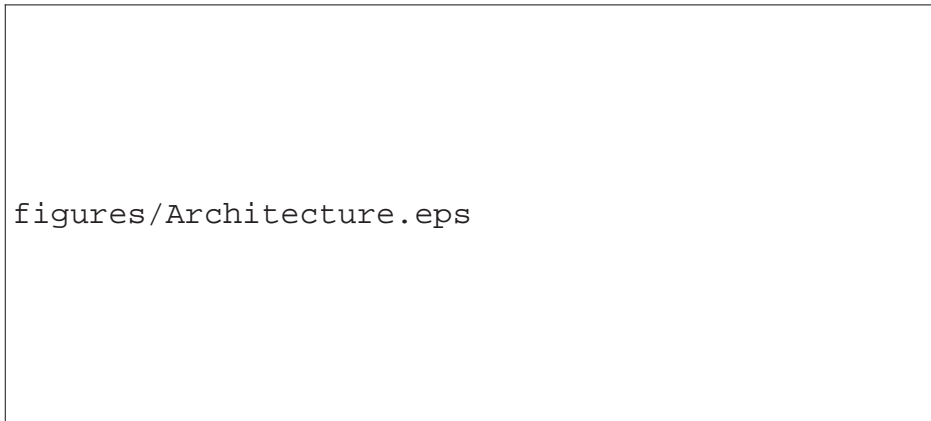


Figure 1.1: *Wireless sensor network.*

exterior world or a computer network, and also an internal mechanism of communication to establish and maintain of WSN.

Power consumption is and will be the primary metric to design a sensor node. While there is the Moore's Law that predicts doubling the complexity of microelectronic chips every 18-month [68], and Gilder's Law [68], which theorizes a similar exponential growth in communication bandwidth, there is no equivalent forecast for battery technology.

1.1 WSN Architecture

This section gives an overview of the WSN architecture. WSNs are networks composed of a large number of sensor nodes. The objective of these networks is to collect data. Sensor nodes are usually deployed over a desire area, then they wake-up, self-test and establish dynamic communications among them, composing a network [80].

WSNs usually do not have an infrastructure, like cellular phone or local wireless networks. WSN is considered as a special type of ad hoc network, since its topology is dynamic, due to the fact that sensor nodes can wake-up joining the network, or go to sleep, leaving the WSN. An important characteristic is that the flow of data is typically unidirectional. The information flows from source nodes to one or more access points.

Sensor nodes do generic tasks such as computing, transmitting data and monitoring using specific sensors.

The key resource of a WSN is the stored energy. Each sensor node is composed of a small battery, with a limit capacity. It is almost infeasible to recharge all battery since WSN can be composed of thousands of sensor nodes. Therefore, the WSN project focus, from hardware design to network protocols, is saving energy. Other sensor node restrictions include memory and processing power.

A WSN tends to be application-dependent, in other words, the hardware and software requirements and the operation modes vary according to the application.

1.2 Embedded System

Embedded system, as defined in [7], is a combination of computer hardware and software, and perhaps additional mechanical or other parts, designed to perform a specific function. They are present in equipments such as electric coffee machines, cameras and cellular phones. Opposite to personal computers that are capable of executing innumerable tasks, they are designed for specific functionalities, such as controlling the sparks in a car engine or controlling a microwave oven. Using microcontrollers and microprocessors for these tasks allows automation of manual tasks. Many microcontrollers have been developed for specific applications in a way to aggregate a set of small functionalities. For example, advanced mathematical functions do not need to be present in a coffee machine microcontroller. The small cost of these devices allows their uses at a great number of equipments.

Embedded systems compromise cost with functionalities. In this way, a minimal hardware and software should be utilized to attend system requirements and minimize cost.

Sensor nodes can be seen as a special case of embedded systems and benefit from the large body of knowledge already present.

1.3 Objective and Motivation

The objective of this work is to design an embedded system, that includes software and hardware components, which will be a testbed prototype device for wireless sensor networks. This sensor node prototype is called Brazilian Energy-Efficient Architectural Node (BEAN).

In this document, the design considerations and component choices for a testbed prototype device for WSN will be discussed. We present the state-of-the-art for sensor node architectures, investigating and analyzing some of the architectural challenges posed by these devices, including a survey of

sensor node platforms and energy management techniques. WSN can be seen as a special case of embedded system and benefit from the large body of knowledge already present. A comparative study of component-off-the-shelf (COTS) such as microcontrollers, battery types, and radio devices, which are very important for system design, is presented. The design focus on individual components and not in subsystem level details. Hardware choices will be discussed, as well as software solutions. Software components that act as “device drivers” are presented in this work. We also define and present an application programming interface (API) that can be used in other projects.

To our knowledge, BEAN is the first sensor node that allows measuring the power consumption of each component. BEAN is also one of the most recent design that uses the newest Texas Instruments MSP430F169 microcontroller. Finally, BEAN is the first sensor node prototype designed in Brazil.

The major motivations for this work are the necessity of a sensor node prototype for the SENSORNET project [85] and also that there is no computational platform for wireless sensor network in the Brazilian national market since it is a recent research topic. Finally, it is very important the development of this technology, having the complete knowledge from the hardware to the software. As stated by NSF [66] WSN is one of the greatest networking research challenges present nowadays.

1.4 Text Organization

This work is organized in seven chapters. Chapter 2 discusses related work for sensor node platforms depicting platforms, components, operating systems and their contributions.

Chapter 3 presents the system architecture of a generic sensor node prototype pointing to BEAN architecture.

Chapter 4 comments about hardware components used by BEAN. A comparative study of COTS such as microcontrollers, battery types, and radio devices for system design, is presented. This chapter also discuss the project decisions for BEAN.

Chapter 5 discusses the software components, called BEAN_API. It includes a set of “device drivers” to control and configure the hardware components.

Chapter 6 discusses energy issues, presenting a basic version of an energy model for a sensor node. We discuss the difference between power and energy, between low-power and energy efficiency, and two power saving schemes. We also discuss the minimum required time for the memory device to go to the power down mode saving energy. Finally, the power budget of BEAN is presented.

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions and new ideas for future works.

Chapter 2

Related Work

Intellectuals solve problems, geniuses prevent them.

Albert Einstein

This section surveys the current state-of-the-art for sensor node platforms depicting platforms, components, and operating systems (Table 2.1 [99]). The majority of the components will be analyzed in this work. Most of the related work uses battery as power supply unless otherwise specified.

At Berkeley, the Smart Dust project [50] aims at developing sensor nodes of millimetric size. Their focus is on miniaturization of sensor nodes so that it has the size of a dust particle. Since this is a long term project, the first step was the development of the Mote's family. WeC Mote (Figure 2.6) and CCR mote were the first two types of sensor node developed in this project. CCR mote used laser as communication media and WeC Mote used radio. The laser communication presented some problems that will be discussed in section 4.3. Berkeley project opted to use radio devices. Then, they developed Rene, Mica Mote (Figure 2.3) and finally to Mica2 Mote (Figure 2.4). The designer claims that the advantage of the latter is its more robust radio. Another advantage is that it does not need a co-processor to reprogram the sensor node since Mica microcontroller needs an extra processor to help reprogram its memory. Mote family uses TinyOS [38], a compact, and simple event-based operating system. Mica2Mote is one of the most commercialized sensor nodes [23].

One of the Mica2Mote advantage is the expansion bus that allows the connection of devices called sensor boards. Separating the sensor boards from the radio and microcontroller allows the Mica2Mote to be generic and capable of a variety of applications. The Mica Weather Board, stacked to the processor board via the 51 pin extension connector, includes temperature, photoresistor, barometer, humidity

and thermopile sensors. Other advantage of Mote's family is that it uses a hardware component to generate an unique identifier number.

Mica2Dot (Figure 2.4) is a small version of Mica2 with all Mica2 capabilities except for the voltage regulator and the expansion board, which has only 18 pins. Many sensor boards are available such as magnetometer board, battery adapter, sounder ranging board and ultrasound ranging board.

Telos [92] (Figure 2.7) is the next-generation Mote platform. It will use a different microcontroller and Zigbee radio channel, which is an IEEE 802.15.4 radio, providing only 50 meter range. The radio has an internal FIFO, allowing the microcontroller to sleep while receiving a packet. A more complete discussion on the radio device is presented at section 4.3. Telos has an optional external memory and uses an USB component to connect to a PC.

For the gateway, the Mica's family has the MIB600CA, an Ethernet Interface Board [23]. The MIB600CA provides Ethernet (10/100 Base-T) connectivity to the MICA2 family of motes for communication and in-system programming. The MIB600CA allows remote access to sensor network data via TCP/IP.

Berkeley project also constructed Spec Mode (Figure 2.13), a general-purpose sensor node that is customized for miniaturization, achieving reduced size [39].

The PicoRadio project [73] at Berkeley Wireless Research Center is another project at Berkeley. The objective is to develop a low-cost and low-power sensor node. Its focus is on the radio hardware, link and network layer stack.

Medusa Mk-2 [15] (Figure 2.2) and iBadge [56] are sensor nodes from UCLA. These sensor nodes use more than one processor and iBagde also include a Bluetooth chip. Mk-2 is also equipped with a set of ultrasound transceivers that are used to perform high accuracy distance measurements between adjacent nodes. iBadge includes a speech processing unit, a microphone, a localization unit, an environment sensing unit with humidity, light, pressure, temperature sensors, and a orientation unit composed of accelerometer and magnetic sensors. iBadge was used in a smart Kindergarten to create a development problem-saving environment for early childhood education.

Generalized Network Of Miniature Environmental Sensor (GNOMES) is a project from Rice University [105]. Its MCU is the MSP430F149 Texas Instruments. It has an accelerometer expansion for structural analysis and GPS for coordinating sensors with location. It also has a sensor bus that allows for additional application specific sensor boards. The RS232 interface is used to communicate with a computer. It can use Ethernet via its HOBBIT board. A communications header allows for

variable communications boards and an expansion port for connection with additional boards. The communication uses Bluetooth or 900 MHz radio. GNOMES are designed to be battery powered with an alternative power source for recharging the batteries (750mAH NiMH cell) such as solar panels. It also has an external Real Time Clock.

PushPin [13] (Figure 2.5) is a sensor node that is part of an MIT project. Pushpin's requirements also meet the wireless sensor network needs. It uses a different approach for communication, using an infrared link. Its operational system Bertha [54] is an interesting work since it fits in the 8051 microcontroller and its purpose is for distributed system. The power supply is via power bus.

Some sensor nodes have already been developed with GPS interface. Multimodal Networks of In-situ Sensors (MANTIS) sensor node, called Nymphs [67] (Figure 2.11), is claimed by their authors to be the first sensor node that supports GPS [1]. Mantis is a project from the University of Colorado that uses ATMEGA as the microcontroller. They are developing their own operating system, called MantisOS, which is a multi-threaded OS. They have a clear, well-defined and documented API.

BTnode (Figure 2.10) is a sensor node from the Smart-its project [53]. It uses a Bluetooth radio and a bluetooth stack component for TinyOS have being developed for this project. Martin [53] shows that the Bluetooth device is suggested for applications that are active over a limited time period, with few unpredictable bursts of very heavy network traffic (taking advantage of the high throughput).

The European Research group, EYES [29], developed a prototype for low-end sensor node (Figure 2.1). The processor used in this prototype is the MSP430F149, produced by Texas Instruments. The sensor node is also equipped with an auxiliary serial EEPROM memory of 8 Megabits used for application and data storage. They are also developing an operating system for wireless sensor network, called Preemptive EYES Real Time Operating System (PeerOS) [65]. The project has also the idea to connect specific sensor board to the sensor node, but their expansion bus is not available. Since the radio do not have a great range, it has to add to the design an external amplifier. The sensor node is programmable using a RS232 interface.

The Embedded Sensor Board (ESB) (Figure 2.12) is the sensor node for the Scatterweb project [82]. It uses the MSP430 processor and the RFM TR1001 [76] radio component. The sensor is also embedded in the board, thus, it is not possible to change the application. It has many sensors that includes microphone, tilt/vibration, luminosity, temperature and infrared movement sensor. The actuators are LEDs and a beeper. Besides the transceiver, it also has infrared sender and receiver, hence, ESB can receive IR commands from standard remote controls. ESBs communicate via the serial port with a

standard computer for application development. ESBs communicate with mobile phones via the serial port to connect to a wide-area mobile phone networks. This enables remote configuration of ESBs via short messages (SMS) as well as reception of sensor data on arbitrary mobile phones world-wide. ESB has a battery compartment for three AAA batteries. It also has a voltage controller to stabilize the input voltage to 3 V and an additional connector for a solar panel.

μ AMPS (micro-Adaptive Multi-Domain Power-Aware Sensors) project [63] (Figure 2.8) and WINS [106] (Figure 2.9) from Rockwell Science Center chose low power StrongARM (SA-1100) microprocessor for computation, uses an energy management technique. μ AMPS can program to change dynamically the voltage supply and clock frequency of the SA-1100 from 74 to 206 MHz and 0.85 to 1.44 V, respectively.

WINS enables data rates of 100 kbits per second over ranges in excess of 100 meters. At the link layer, a Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA) protocol has been implemented. The processor runs at 133MHz with 150 MIPS. The processor consumes 300 mW, the radio consumes 600 mW in transmit mode and 300 mW in receive mode, and the sensor transducers consumes 100 mW. The type of sensors are seismic, acoustic, magnetometer and accelerometer.

The Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) [2] from California Institute of Technology is developing a project called SensorWeb, supported by National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). The Sensor Web is an independent network of wireless, intra-communicating sensor nodes (called sensor pods), deployed to monitor and explore a limitless range of environments. The engineering objective is to test the Sensor Web in harsh environments, as for instance Antarctica [34].

PODS [9] is a research project in University of Hawaii that built WSN to investigate why endangered species of plants will grow in one area but not in neighboring areas. They deployed camouflaged sensors node, called Pods, in Hawaii Volcanos National Park. The Pods, consist of a computer, radio transceiver and environmental sensors sometimes including a high resolution digital camera, relay sensor data via wireless link back to the Internet. Bluetooth and IEEE 802.11b are chosen as channels and data are delivered in IP packets. Two types of sensor data are collected, weather data and image data.

Some commercial sensor nodes are already available. Millennial Net [61] builds heterogeneous WSNs, dividing the networks in sensor nodes (endpoints), routers, and gateways. Its sensor node is called i-Bean, its typical range is 30m and data rate up to 250 kbps.

Ember [32] is another commercial solution. Its sensor node uses the Atmega 64L processor and

CC1020 radio. It also has a temperature sensor and 2-Axis accelerometer.

MicroStrain [86] has launched one of the newest sensor node. It has a 8-bit microcontroller, Flash EEPROM for sensor data logging, ADC of 16-bit resolution and a radio transceiver. But, the major contribution is an energy-harvester. MicroStrain is developing an energy-harvesting scheme based on storing cyclic strain energy by rectifying piezoelectric fiber output into a capacitor bank. When the capacitor voltage reaches a preset threshold, power is transferred to an integrated wireless sensor node [77].

The IEEE 802.15.4 [43] specification is a cost effective low data rate (< 250 kbps), 2.4 GHz and 868/928 MHz wireless technology designed for short range and personal area networking. Target markets for the IEEE 802.15.4 Standard include industrial control and networking, home automation and control, inventory management, human interface devices, as well as wireless sensor networks.

The IEEE 802.15.4 Standard is the basis of an application and network layer protocol known as ZigBee [3]. The ZigBee Alliance is an association of companies working together to create software inter-operability certification and testing for IEEE 802.15.4 systems.

The IEEE 802.15.4 Standard details the Physical Layer (PHY) and Medium Access Control (MAC) specifications, and offers the building blocks for different types of networking. Key benefits of the IEEE 802.15.4 and ZigBee standards include extended battery life over current wireless standards, mesh and star network topologies, and cost effectiveness.

Range for ZigBee products is expected to be 30 meters in typical homes, compared to 10 meters for Bluetooth products (without additional power amplifier) [3].

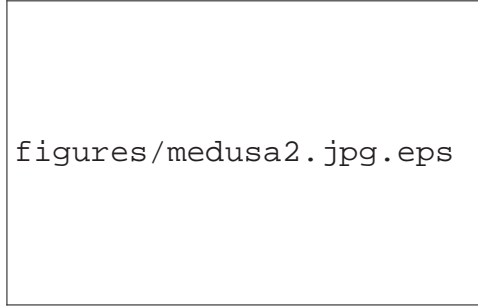
Sensor Node	Radio	Processor	Operating system	Memory
BTNode	Ericsson ROK 101 007	ATmega128L	TinyOS	64KB
μ AMPS	LMX3162	StrongARM SA-1100	RedHat and eCos	512 KB Flash
WINS	Connexant RDSSS9M	StrongARM SA-1100	μ C/OS-II	4MB Flash
PicoNode	Proprietary	DW8051	N/A	N/A
PushPin	IrDA transceiver 83F8851	Cygnal C8051F016	Bertha	N/A
GNOMES	Bluetooth or 900 MHz radio	MSP430F149	N/A	32 KB
Eyes	TR1001	MSP430F149	PeerOS	8 Mbit
WeC Mote	TR1000	AT90LS8535	N/A	32KB
Mica Mote	TR1000	ATMEGA 103L	TinyOS	512KB Flash
Mica2 Mote	CC1000	ATMEGA128L	TinyOS	4 Mbit Flash
Telos	CC2420	MSP430F149	TinyOS	4 Mbit Flash
Nymphs	CC1000	ATMEGA128L	MantisOS	64kB EEPROM
ESB	TR1001	MSP430F149	N/A	8kB EEPROM
Medusa MK-2	TR1000	ATMEGA128L AT91FR4081 ARM THUMB	N/A	1 MB Flash
IBadge	TR1000 Bluetooth ROK101007	AtMEGA 103L TMS320VC5416	N/A	N/A
BEAN	CC1000	MSP430F169	YATOS [97]	4M bit

Table 2.1: *Sensor Node Platforms.*



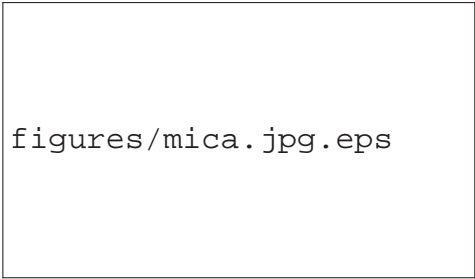
figures/eyes.jpg.eps

Figure 2.1: *EYES.*



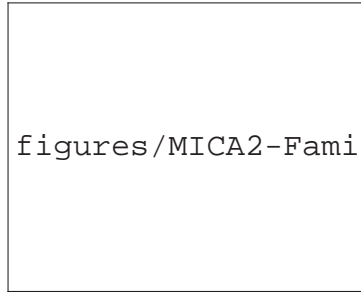
figures/medusa2.jpg.eps

Figure 2.2: *Medusa2.*



figures/mica.jpg.eps

Figure 2.3: *Mica.*



figures/MICA2-Family.jpg.eps

Figure 2.4: *Mica2 and Mica2-dot.*



figures/PushPin.jpg.eps

Figure 2.5: *PushPin.*



figures/wec.jpg.eps

Figure 2.6: *Wec Mote.*



figures/telos.jpg.eps

Figure 2.7: *Telos.*



figures/uamp.jpeg.eps

Figure 2.8: *μamp.*

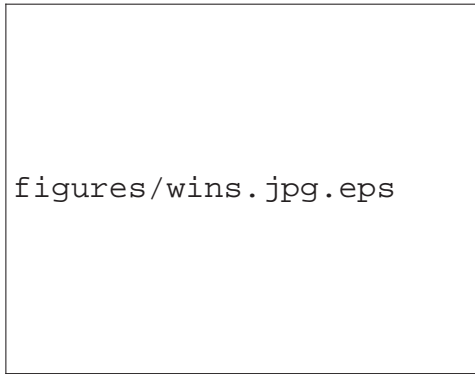


Figure 2.9: *WINS*

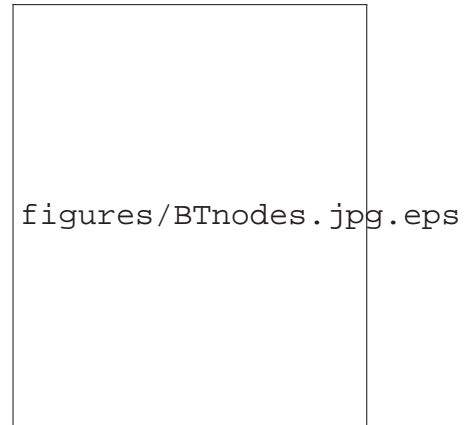


Figure 2.10: *BTnode.*

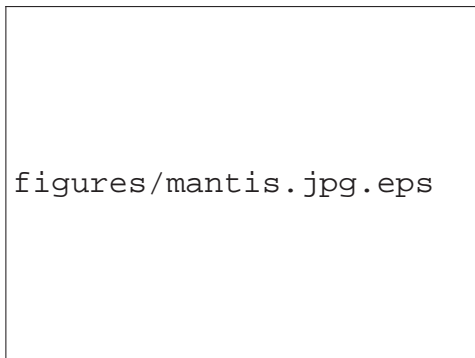


Figure 2.11: *Nymph.*

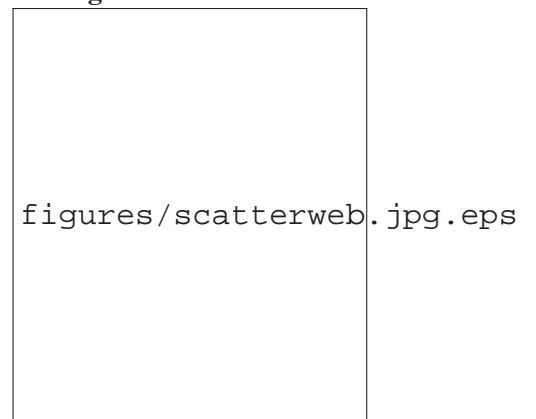


Figure 2.12: *ESB.*

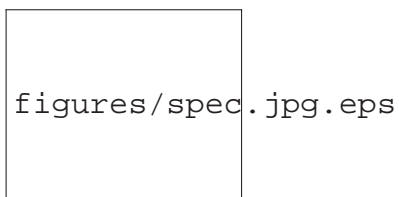


Figure 2.13: *Spec.*

Chapter 3

Sensor Node Architecture

Hardware is the part of a computer system that can be kicked and software is the part that can only be screamed at.

–Unknown

In this section we discuss WSN components, some characteristics and requirements of a sensor node prototype and present the system architecture of a generic sensor node prototype.

3.1 WSN Components

WSNs can be classified according to its organization as hierarchical (sensor nodes self-organized in clusters) or flat; to its composition as homogeneous (the same type of sensor node) or heterogeneous (different types); and to its mobility as static (immobile) or mobile [79].

In a WSN, the information flows from source nodes to one or more access points. An access point can be a sensor node with the same or more hardware capability. The access point purpose is to collect data from the network and send to an external observer, called base station [55].

The project of a more computational powerful access point is outside the scope of this work. Our project also does not include any mobile feature.

The task that sensor nodes must be able to do includes monitor their physical environmental, process their measurement data and forward other sensor nodes readings.



Figure 3.1: *Block Diagram of Sensor Node Prototype.*

3.2 Sensor node functional components

Figure 3.1 presents the system architecture of a generic sensor node prototype. It is composed of six major blocks: power supply, communication, processing unit, storage, debugging interface and sensors. The power supply block has the purpose to power the node and usually consists of a battery and a dc-dc converter. The communication block consists of a bi-directional wireless communication channel. Most of the platforms use a short-range radio. Other solutions include laser and infrared media. The processing unit is composed of internal memory to store data and applications programs, a microcontroller to process data and an Analog-to-Digital Converter to receive signal from the sensing block. The storage unit is an external memory device that works as a secondary memory, keeping a data log. The debugging interface is used to program and test the sensor node, for example, programming interface, LEDs, serial interface, JTAG (IEEE1149.1). This block can be omitted in a final sensor node product. The sensing unit block links the sensor node to the physical world and has a group of sensors and actuators that depends on the application of the wireless sensor network.

3.2.1 Processing Block

A very interesting question is: should there be a dedicated processing element for each I/O device or should the processing of the I/O devices be centralized? For example, besides the single CPU unit, another approach is to use two general purpose processors: one handling the communication block and one handling the other devices.

Sensor nodes may act as a router, forwarding packets meant for other nodes. Srivastava [75] suggested the use of an intelligent radio hardware, with a dedicated CPU, that enables packets that need to be forwarded to be identified and redirected from the communication block itself, allowing the computing block to remain in Sleep mode, saving energy.

Since there is no such intelligent radio hardware COTS yet, it would need a processor in the communication block to determine to forward or not the received packet. Thus, it would not save a processor energy. This approach may be interesting if the main unit consumes much more energy than the communication processor block.

BEAN approach is a single CPU handling multiple I/O devices. It is simpler and less expensive. The communication block does not need a processor because BEAN has already the processing unit to process the radio packets. This approach may change if the communication channel increases to a very high rate and BEAN is overloaded and incapable of processing all the radio packets.

The processing unit may have other approaches such as finding the high-energy pieces of software and move them to dedicated hardware. Lach [52] shows that implementing a JPEG compression algorithm for WSN saves energy. This approach is interesting for a more robust or specific-application sensor node, that is not BEAN purpose.

3.2.2 Sensing Block

Sensors can produce analog or digital signals. Analog sensors need an Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC). In general, microcontrollers have additional peripherals that include ADCs. Hence, initially, sensor boards do not need dedicated ADCs. ADCs have a limited rate to converter signals, for example, the MSP430 family [45] is capable of 200.000 samples per seconds (ksps) divided in eight channels. For complex sensor boards that need higher sample rates or larger channel number, a different approach is to embed ADCs directly on the sensor boards.

Depending on the sensor type, it can change completely the sensor node design. For example,

an image sensor would need a very high bandwidth, which would require a communication block redesign.

3.3 Characteristics and Requirements

This project does not intent to design a device that will be comparable to real-life wireless sensor node. While in a real product size and cost are essential requirements, our design focus in a system ease to expand with a number of sensors, robust and easy to reprogram.

Following is the design considerations, characteristics and requirements when designing BEAN:

- **Energy-efficiency** - Sensor nodes must be energy efficient. Sensor nodes have a limited amount of energy that determines their lifetime. Since it is unfeasible to recharge thousands of nodes, each node should be as energy efficient as possible. Hence, energy is the key resource, being the primary metric for analysis. BEAN project focus on energy-efficient COTS.
- **Power-Aware** - The hardware should be able to estimate what energy is left, so algorithms can adapt to the available power. BEAN is capable of measuring its own overall power consumption.
- **Low-cost** - It is desirable that sensor nodes be cheap since WSN may have hundreds or thousands of sensor nodes. For this purpose, BEAN uses only the necessary devices.
- **Distributed sensing** - Using a wireless sensor network, many more data can be collected compared to just one sensor. Even deploying a sensor with a large range, it could have obstructions. Thus, distributed sensing provides robustness to environmental obstacles [33].
- **Wireless communication** - The sensor node needs to be wireless. In many applications, the environment being monitored does not have installed infrastructure for communications. Laying wires may be too difficult or expensive, thus, sensor nodes should use wireless communication channels. The data rate in WSN is low, thus, a short range transceiver in a license free band is sufficient.
- **Multi-hop** - A sensor node may not reach the base station. The solution is to communicate through multiple hops. Another advantage is that radio signal power is proportional to r^2 ,

where r is the distance of communication. Depending on radio parameters as shown in [8], it can be more energy efficient to transmit many short-distance messages than one-long distance message. Thus, the sensor node should receive and transmit, needing a bi-directional communication channel.

- **Distributed processing** - Each sensor node should be able to process local data, using filtering and data fusion algorithms to collect data from environment and aggregate this data, transforming it to information. BEAN has a microcontroller for this purpose.
- **Programmability** - Since this component will be a test prototyping, it will be often reprogrammed for development of communication protocols and applications for WSN. Hence, the programming should be easy. BEAN chooses a microcontroller with embedded debug.
- **Expandability** - The hardware design must be expandable with a number of sensors to support a variety of applications. BEAN project defined a generic sensor bus and radio bus for future expansion.
- **Size** - For demonstration purposes the devices should be reasonably small. But size is of less importance in our project since it does not need to be as small as a real-life wireless sensor node.

3.4 Challenges

Figure 3.2 illustrates some challenges for WSNs. Each block has its unique challenge. The storage block was included in the processing unit and the debugging interface is not needed in a real-life sensor node. A power management layer is required to control the main resource of a sensor node, its energy level. The power management layer could use the knowledge of battery's voltage slope to adapt dynamically the system performance [69]. Another advantage is that other energy source can be added and the power management can make the best use of the energy resources. New network protocols are necessary, including link, network, transport, and application layers to solve problems like routing, addressing, clustering, synchronization and they have to be energy-efficient. A micro-kernel for sensor node is necessary. Many operating systems exist for small device (like handheld and PDAs), but not so small as a sensor node and not aggressive on power management for long



figures/SystemArchitectureChallenges.eps

Figure 3.2: *System architecture and challenges of a sensor node.*

life and wireless communication as well. Algorithms for filtering and data fusion are also necessary. Many other challenges exist, including localization of sensor nodes and security issues, such as cryptography.

Although WSN is a recent research topic, many interesting works already exist such as microkernels [26], middlewares [102], scheduling algorithms [101], routing protocols [100], [47], deployment algorithms [98] and architecture management scheme algorithms [80] for WSN.

Chapter 4

BEAN Hardware Components

But what .. is it good for?

*Engineer at the Advanced Computing Systems
Division of IBM, 1968, commenting on the microchip*

Make everything as simple as possible, but not simpler.

Albert Einstein

In this chapter, we will discuss the component choices for the hardware design of BEAN. A comparative study of COTS for the major sensor node prototype architectural block (processing, power, communication, sensing, storage and debugging interface units) is presented. Then, we comment about interfacing the radio with the MCU. Finally, we summarize the major BEAN hardware project decisions.

4.1 Processing Unit

Since the sensor node is expected to communicate, process and gather sensor data, sensor nodes must have processing units. The central processing unit of a sensor node determines to a large degree both the energy consumption as well as the computational capabilities of a sensor node. Many different types of CPUs can be integrated into a sensor node and they are discussed in this work. There are a large number of commercially available microcontrollers, microprocessors and field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs), which allows a big flexibility for CPU implementations.

4.1.1 Programmable Logic

Many types of programmable logic are available. Complex Programmable Logic Devices (CPLDs) consist of multiple PAL-like (Programmable Array Logic) logic blocks interconnected together via a programmable switch matrix [6]. CPLDs are used for high-performance control-logic or complex finite state machines but limited to the size of a few thousand gates. Although there is low-power CPLDs, such as CoolRunner-II [107], that consumes as low as $14\mu\text{A}$ standby current, their consumption is not as low as a sensor node should be. For example, CoolRunner-II operating at 1.8V and 20MHz, needs a current supply of 17.22 mA. WSNs are dependable on the application scenario. The architecture of CPLD is not very flexible, being applicable for small application and is not capable of implementing a CPU. For a specific application which needs a complex controller, CPLD may be an option.

An Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) consists of an array of logic blocks, surrounded by programmable I/O blocks, and connected with programmable interconnect [6]. FPGAs offer narrower logic resources than CPLDs but offer a higher ratio of flip-flops [12]. Because of all the extra flip-flops, reaching millions of gates, the architecture of an FPGA is much more flexible than that of a CPLD [12]. Nowadays, FPGA presents some major disadvantages. First, their consumption is not as low as a sensor node should be. Another disadvantage is that today is not possible to turn off separate blocks of FPGAs. In addition to consuming more power, the FPGAs are not compatible with traditional programming methodologies (i.e., no C compiler). It does not mean that FPGAs are not a good solution for the near future. Maybe with the development of ultra-low power FPGAs, FPGAs will be a good solution for sensor node monitoring a planet, since they have the advantage of being reprogrammable and reconfigurable, eliminating the deployment cost in space applications.

In terms of energy, microcontrollers are a better solution than FPGAs. Microcontrollers may be designed to be optimal and it is possible to turn their functional blocks off. In addition, FPGAs are not capable of turning off separate blocks. Even with this feature, turning off a FPGA block does not mean turn off a functional block because it will depend on the partitioning algorithm. Finally, since a FPGA block must be generic to implement any logical module, it will not be power optimized as a microcontroller.

4.1.2 Microcontrollers

A microcontroller is very similar to a microprocessor. The main difference is that a microcontroller is designed specifically for use in embedded systems [7]. In general, microcontrollers are microprocessor with additional peripheral or support devices [5]. Microcontroller includes not only memory and processor, but also non-volatile memory and interfaces such as ADCs, UART, SPI, counters and timers. In this way, it can iterate with sensors and communication devices such as short-range radio to compose a sensor node.

Some of the advantages of the microcontroller's higher level of integration as stated in [5] are:

- **Lower cost** - one part replaces many parts.
- **More reliable** - fewer packages, fewer interconnections.
- **Faster** - signals can stay on the chip.

Nowadays, there are many types of microcontrollers, ranging from 4 to 32 bits, varying the number of timers, bits of ADC, power consumption, size of memory, etc. A discussion of these devices is presented below.

Table 4.1 shows comparison of actual microcontrollers. Microcontroller Control Units (MCUs) have many attributes like number of bits, flash memory, size of memory, number of ADC and timers, operating voltage, current consumption and power modes. An important feature is the start-up time, since the MCU will usually go to idle mode, but it is not very often divulged.

The EM6603 [31], which is 4-bit, is ultra-low-power MCU but its computational power is also very limited. It is used for Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) applications. The advantages of Motorola DragonBall MC9328MX1 are that it is 16-bit and has a Bluetooth Accelerator radio interface. It also has a Time Processing Unit (TPU), a co-processor unit that seems to be able to perform various real-time control tasks (like sampling a pin). The shortcomings are performance (only 2.7 MIPS), no integrated memory or flash, relatively large footprint (100 or 144 pins), not ultra-low-power.

The ARM family has floating-point computational capabilities, being a possibility for devices demanding more computational power, such as a gateway or a robust sensor node, which can be the head of hierarchical wireless sensor network cluster. One common example is the processor module Intel StrongArm SA1100 embedded controller. The SA1100 is a general-purpose, 32-bit

RISC microprocessor based on the ARM architecture that is rated as the most efficient processor (in MIPS/Watt). The processor offers a 16KB instruction cache, a 8KB data cache, serial I/O and JTAG interface all combined in a single chip. Program and data storage are provided by 1MB SRAM and 4MB of bootable flash memory. Connection with the sensor modules is easily achieved using a 4-wire SPI interface. The processor has three states: normal, idle and sleep that can be controlled to reduce power consumption.

The choice of MCU depends on application scenario. The ideal choice of microcontroller is the one that matches its performance level with application's need. Other factors that affects the selection of the proper microcontroller besides energy level include word size, peripherals, memory, speed, physical size, price, availability, personal experience, and vendor support.

Characteristic	Bits	Flash	RAM	ADC	Timers	Operating Voltage	Power Active	Power Idle Mode	Power Down Mode
AT90LS8535	8	8 Kb	512B	10 bit	3	4-6V	6.4 mA	1.9 mA	<1 μ A
ATMega128L	8	64 Kb	4K B	10 bit	3	2,7 - 5,5V	5mA @4MHz @3V	2 mA	12 μ A
PIC16F8X	8	68 Kb	1 KB		1	2-6V	2mA @5V @4 MHz	N/A	<1 μ A
MSP430F149	16	60 Kb	2048 B	12 bit	3	1.8-3.6V	400 μ A @3V	1,3 μ A	<1 μ A
SrongArm 1100	32	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	3-3.6V	230mW @133MHz	50mW @133MHz	Typical 25 μ A
MC68HC05PV8A	8	N/A	192B	8bit	1	3.3-5.0 V	4.4mA	1.95mA	485uA
80C51RD+	8	64kB	1024 B	0	1	2.7 to 5.5 V	16mA @16MHz	4mA @16MHz	50uA @16MHz
EM6603	4	N/A	96x4	0	1	1.2-3.6 V	1.8uA @32KHz	0.35 μ A	0.1 μ A
DragonBall MC9328MX1	16	N/A	128K	13 bit	2	1.62 to 3.3 V	90mA @96MHz	0.16 mW	N/A

Table 4.1: Microcontroller Comparison.

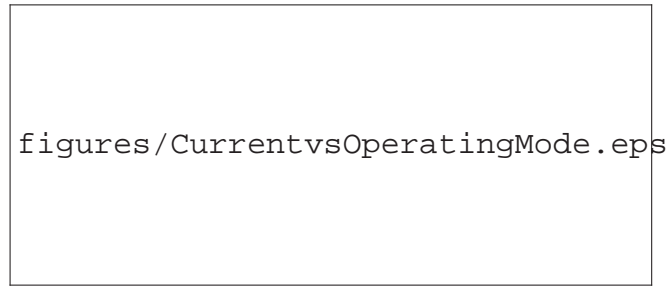


Figure 4.1: *Typical Current Consumption vs. Operation Modes [93].*

4.1.3 Texas Instruments MSP430

The microcontroller used in our project is the MSP430F169, produced by Texas Instruments. It is a good option for sensor nodes since it is a 16-bit, 8 MIPS, providing more computational power than 8 bit microcontrollers, and also ultra-low power. It has 60kbytes of program memory and 2kbytes of data memory. It is equipped with a full set of analog and digital processors. It has embedded debugging and in-system flash programming through a standard JTAG interface, and is supported by a wide range of development tools including gcc [62] and IAR Embedded Workbench [42].

The MSP430 family has six different operating modes and is fully supported during interrupt event handling. There are the active mode (AM) and five Low-Power Modes (LPM0, LPM1, LPM2, LPM3 and LPM0, LPM4). An interrupt event awakes the system from each of the various operating modes and returns, using the RETI instruction, to the mode that was selected before the interrupt event occurred. The current consumption of each operation mode is shown in Figure 4.1. The microcontroller can be configured to consume only the energy necessary to its works through the selected operation mode. More information can be found at [93].

The MSP430 is a RISC microcontroller that employs a von-Neumann architecture, therefore, all programs and data share a single address space. The CPU has sixteen registers that provide reduced instruction execution time. This reduces the register-to-register operation execution time to one cycle of the processor frequency. Four of the registers are reserved for special use as program counter, stack pointer, status register, and constant generator (Figure 4.2) [45]. The remaining registers are available as general-purpose registers. Peripherals are connected to the CPU using a data address and control bus, using specific registers for control and data transfers sharing the memory space, and can be handled with all memory manipulation instructions.

The MSP430 consumes less than 400 mA in active mode operating at 1 MHz in a typical 3V



Figure 4.2: *Register Overview [45].*

Figure 4.3: *Low-Power CPU [45].*

system and can wake up from a 2mA standby mode to fully synchronized operation in less than 6 μ s. These exceptionally low current requirements, combined with the fast wake-up time (6 μ s), enable a developer to build a system with minimum current consumption and maximum battery life. Figure 4.3 shows the current consumption of an application that switches between active and stand-by modes.

MSP430 family has a rich peripheral set. It has an abundant mix of peripherals and memory sizes enabling true system-on-a-chip designs as illustrated in Figure 4.4 [45]. The peripherals include a 12-bit Analog-to-Digital converter, multiple timers (some with capture/compare registers and PWM output capability), integrated precision comparator, on-chip clock generation, hardware multiplier, USART(s), Watchdog Timer, General Port Input/Output, and multiple Input/Output with extensive

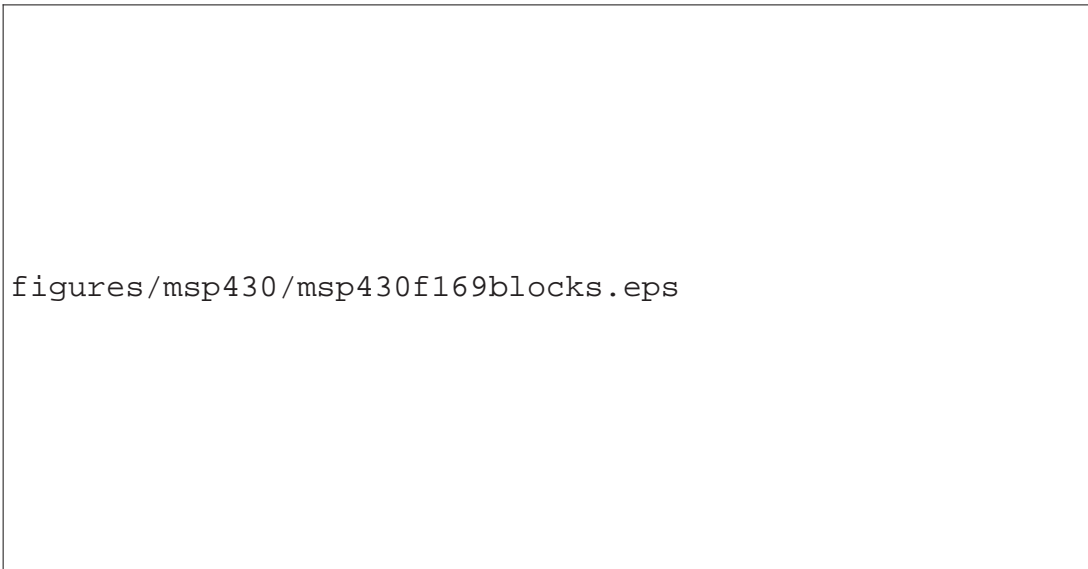


Figure 4.4: *Functional block diagram of MSP430xx16x [45].*

interrupt capability and others.

The Basic Clock Module of MSP430 is design for low power consumption applications. Applications should use low clock frequency for energy conservation and time keeping but it also should use high clock frequency for fast reaction to events and fast burst processing. The faster it finishes the processing, the more time at low-power mode it has.

The Basic Clock Module addresses the above conflicting requirements by allowing the designer to select from the three available clock signals:

- **ACLK (Auxiliary clock)** - For optimal low-power performance, the ACLK can be configured to oscillate with a low 32,786-Hz watch-crystal frequency, providing a stable time base for the system and low power stand-by operation. ACLK is software selectable for individual peripheral modules.
- **MCLK(Main clock)** - MCLK is used by the CPU and system. The MCLK can be configured to operate from the on-chip digitally controlled oscillator (DCO) which is only activated when requested by events.
- **SMCLK (Sub-main clock)** - The SMCLK can be configured to operate from either the watch-crystal or the DCO, depending on peripheral requirements. SMCLK is software selectable for



Figure 4.5: *Frequency versus Supply Voltage [45].*

individual peripheral modules.

The clock distribution and divider system is provided to fine tune the individual clock requirements. All basic clock-module configurations are under software control.

The Basic Clock Module includes two or three clock sources:

- **LFXT1CLK** - low-frequency/high-frequency clock source. One oscillator that can be used with low-frequency watch crystals, standard crystals, resonators, or external clock sources.
- **XT2CLK** - high-frequency clock source. This optional high-frequency oscillator can also use standard crystals, resonators, or external clock sources in the 450-kHz to 8-MHz range.
- **DCOCLK clock source** - The digitally controlled oscillator (DCO) is an integrated RC-type oscillator in the Basic Clock Module. The DCO frequency can be tuned by software.

Using the DCO, it is possible to control the operating frequency. The operating frequency depends on the supply voltage as show in Figure 4.5 [45]. The MCU operates between 1.8 and 3.6 V. To program the MCU, the supply voltage should be above 2.7 V. We can model the graph using the line equation. Let's y be the frequency (MHz) and x the supply voltage (V):

$$Y(x) = \frac{3.85}{1.8} * (x - 1.8) + 4.15 \quad (4.1)$$

To operate at 3.3 V, the frequency should be 7.358Mhz. BEAN was designed to use the LFXT1CLK with a 32,768-Hz watch crystal and the DCO at 7.358Mhz.



Figure 4.6: *Pin Designation [46].*

Figure 4.6 [46] shows the pin designation of MSP430. Table 4.2 illustrates the MCU port mapping, showing the port name, port number, if input or output or programable, and what function the port was mapped to.

Table 4.2: *MCU Port Mapping.*

Name	Number	I/O	Mapped to
AVCC	64		Analog supply voltage
AVSS	62		Ground
DVCC	1		Digital supply voltage (3.3 V)
DVSS	63		Ground
P1.0/TACLK	12	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin- enable interrupt Int0 sensor bus
P1.1/TA0	13	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin- enable interrupt Int1 sensor bus
P1.2/TA1	14		
P1.3/TA2	15		
P1.4/SMCLK	16	O	General-purpose digital I/O pin Red Led

Table 4.2: *MCU Port Mapping.*

Name	Number	I/O	Mapped to
P1.5/TA0	17	O	General-purpose digital I/O pin Orange Led
P1.6/TA1	18	O	General-purpose digital I/O pin- Green Led
P1.7/TA2	19	O	General-purpose digital I/O pin- Yellow Led
P2.0/ACLK	20		General-purpose digital I/O pin Dclk (Radio)
P2.1/TAINCLK	21	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin RTC_INT- RealTimeClock
P2.2/CAOUT/TA0	22	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin PWM0
P2.3/CA0/TA1	23	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin PWM1
P2.4/CA1/TA2	24	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin- 1-Wire (Real Time Clock)
P2.5/Rosc	25		General-purpose digital I/O pin External Memory Hold
P2.6/ADC12CLK/ DMAE0	26		
P2.7/TA0	27		General-purpose digital I/O pin - External Memory Write
P3.0/STE0	28		General-purpose digital I/O pin External Memory Chip Select
P3.1/SIMO0/SDA	29		SPI Mode External Memory
P3.2/SOMI0	30		SPI Mode External Memory
P3.3/UCLK0/SCL	31		SPI Mode External Memory
P3.4/UTXD0	32	O	UART mode (sensor bus)
P3.5/URXD0	33	I	UART mode (sensor bus)
P3.6/UTXD1	34		General-purpose digital I/O pin -I2C (sensor bus)
P3.7/URXD1	35	I/O	General-purpose digital I/O pin -I2C (sensor bus)
P4.0/TB0	36	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)
P4.1/TB1	37	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)
P4.2/TB2	38	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)
P4.3/TB3	39	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)
P4.4/TB4	40	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)
P4.5/TB5	41	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)
P4.6/TB6	42	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)

Table 4.2: *MCU Port Mapping.*

Name	Number	I/O	Mapped to
P4.7/TBCLK	43	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin (sensor bus)
P5.0/STE1	44	I	General-purpose digital I/O pin Chp_out (Radio)
P5.1/SIMO1	45	O	SPI mode Dio (Radio)
P5.2/SOMI1	46	I	SPI mode Dio (Radio)
P5.3/UCLK1	47	O	SPI mode Dclk (Radio)
P5.4/MCLK	48	I/O	General-purpose digital I/O pin Pale (Radio)
P5.5/SMCLK	49		General-purpose digital I/O pin Pclk (Radio)
P5.6/ACLK	50		General-purpose digital I/O pin Pdata (Radio)
P5.7/TBoutH/ SVSOUT	51		
P6.0/A0	59	I	12-bit ADC - RSSI (Radio)
P6.1/A1	60	I	12-bit ADC - Sensor Bus
P6.2/A2	61	I	12-bit ADC - Sensor Bus
P6.3/A3	2	I	12-bit ADC - Sensor Bus
P6.4/A4	3	I	12-bit ADC - Sensor Bus
P6.5/A5	4	I	12-bit ADC - Sensor Bus
P6.6/A6/DAC0	5	I	12-bit ADC - Sensor Bus
P6.7/A7/DAC1/ SVSIN	6	I	12-bit ADC - Sensor Bus
RST/NMI	58	I	Reset input - jtag connector
TCK	57	I	Test clock - jtag connector
TDI	55	I	Test data input - jtag connector
TDO/TDI	54	I/O	Test data output port - jtag connector
TMS	56	I	Test mode select - jtag connector
VeREF	10	I/P	
VREF	7	O	
VREF-/VeREF-	11	O	

Table 4.2: *MCU Port Mapping.*

Name	Number	I/O	Mapped to
XIN	8	I	Input port for crystal oscillator XT1.
XOUT/TCLK	9	I/O	Output terminal of crystal oscillator XT1
XT2IN	53	I	Input port for crystal oscillator XT2.
XT2OUT	52	O	Output terminal of crystal oscillator XT2

4.2 Power

The power supply block usually consists of a battery and a dc-dc converter and has the purpose to power the node, since the sensor node needs energy to monitor the environment.

Since we are constructing a prototype, we opted to use an external power supply. A voltage regulator could be added, whose purpose is to maintain the output voltage at a fixed value. Below, we discuss some idea that can be used in future works.

It might be possible to extend lifetime of a sensor node by extracting energy from the environment, for example light, vibration and RF. Amirtharajah et al. have demonstrated a MEMS system that extracts electric energy from vibrations [4]. Nowadays, CMOS transistors and solar cell's arrays can be co-fabricated. The Icarus process [41] combines solar cells, high voltage CMOS, and SOI (Silicon-on-insulator)-MEMS structures on the same die. With the addition of isolation trenches, devices and MEMS structures can be electrically isolated, and solar cells can be stacked to yield high voltages.

Table 4.3 [74] shows a comparison of energy sources based on a combination of published studies, theory, and experiments.

Continuum Control Corp. [22] has launched the iPower energy harvesters. These devices, extract electric energy from mechanical vibrations, motion, or impact, and store it for use by wireless sensors or other electronic devices.

4.2.1 Batteries

Batteries supply energy to the sensor node. It is important to choose the battery type since it can affect the design of a sensor node. Battery Protection Circuit to avoid the overcharge/overdischarge

Energetic source	Power Density
Solar (outdoors)	15mW/cm ² (direct sun)
	0.15mW/cm ² (cloudy day)
Solar (indoors)	0.006mW/cm ² (standard office desk)
	0.57mW/cm ² (< 60W desk lamp)
Vibrations	0,01-0,1mW/cm ³
Acoustic noise	3E-6mW/cm ² a 75dB
	9,6-4mW/cm ² a 100dB
Passive human-powered systems	1,8mW(shoe inserts)
Nuclear reaction	80mW/cm ³ 1E6mWh/cm ³

Table 4.3: Comparison of energetic sources.

Battery	Rechargeable	Volumetric density(Wh/l)	Environmental concerns
Alkaline-MnO ₂ (AA)	No	347	
Silver Oxide	No	500	
Li/MnO ₂	No	550	
Zinc Air	No	1150	
Sealed Lead Acid	Yes	90	Yes
NiCd	Yes	80-105	Yes
NiMH	Yes	175	No
Li-ion	Yes	200	Yes
Li-Polymer	Yes	300-415	

Table 4.4: Battery technology Comparison.

problem, power voltage regulator and other components may be added to the sensor nodes.

There are many types of batteries being available. Batteries can be divide into primary (non-rechargeable), and secondary (rechargeable). They can also be classified according to electrochemical material used for electrode such as NiCd, NiZn, AgZn, NiMh, and Lithium-Ion.

Table 4.4, based on [68] and [35], compares most common batteries's types. NiMh and Lithium-Ion are the most commercialized rechargeable batteries.

The battery type will depend on the application. If there is not a harvest energy source, non-rechargeable battery is a good choice since they have higher energy density. Among the rechargeable batteries, Li-based batteries appear to be the best choice. However, there are a number of other considerations and the proper choice of battery technology is not obvious without a detailed examination of the application operational profile. For instance, in a pulse-discharge scenario, a Li battery would

perform poorly while a NiCd would perform well due to the large differences in the internal resistance of these battery types. Furthermore, Li-based battery cost is higher.

Among the rechargeable battery types, Nickel Metal Hydride (NiMH) is the only environmentally friendly product. Its energy density is second only to Li-battery types and it can be recharged at any time without experiencing voltage depression (memory effect). The disadvantage is that it needs overcharge/overdischarge protection.

4.3 Communication

Sensor nodes must communicate among them and also to a base station using a wireless communication channel. We explore three possibilities, laser, infrared and radio frequency (RF) channels.

4.3.1 Laser communication

The advantages of laser communications are:

- Spend less energy than radio over larger range.
- Security, since there is no broadcast and if a channel is intercepted it would interrupt the signal
- No need for antenna.

The disadvantages are:

- Needs line of sight ("LOS"), since the laser beam of the transmitting device must be lined up to the receiver. It involves not only a temporal step but also a spatial acquisition step
- Sensitive to atmospheric conditions.
- The communication is directional and due to the fact that sensor nodes will be deployed randomly, this is not an attractive solution.

The transmitting device uses a laser beam to send information and the receiver device uses a photodiode or CCD array. Optical communication can be classified into two types, passive and active communication. In active optical communication, the transmitting device generates its own laser signal whereas in passive communication the laser signal is generated through a secondary source.

Hollar [40] reports that the active laser consumes 50 mA at 3V and could established communication with distances up to 21.4 km. The passive cost of transmission is limited to the energy required to deflect one of the mirrors, which in the case of the MEMS corner-cube-reflectors (CCRs) used in COTS Dust amounts to 100 pJ/bit [40].

4.3.2 Infrared

Infrared communication is usually directional. Since sensor nodes will be deployed randomly, a good solution adopted by PushPin project [13] is to use a diffuser made of sandblasted polycarbonate tubing to create a more omni-directional communication range within a plane. But, the node still needs to be aligning within a plane. PushPin project adopted the IrDA transceiver 83F8851 [91]. Its disadvantage is a short-range of about 1m. Its maximum current consumption in transmission mode is 10mA and in receive mode is 25 mA. The advantage of infrared is no need for antenna.

4.3.3 Radio-frequency (RF)

RF communication is based on electromagnetic waves. One of the most important challenges in RF communications devices is the antenna size. To optimize transmission and reception, an antenna should be at least $\lambda/4$, where λ is the wavelength of the carrier frequency. Assuming a sensor node with a quarter wavelength of 1 mm, the RF carrier frequency is 75 GHz, which is out of the range of modern low power RF electronics. It is also necessary to reduce energy consumption with modulation, filtering, demodulation, etc. RF communication advantages are its ease of use, integrality, and well established in the commercial marketplace, which make it an ideal testing platform for sensor node.

Several aspects affect the power consumption of a radio including the type of modulation, data rate, and transmission power. In general, radios can operate in three distinct modes of operation: transmit, receive, idle. Most radios operating on idle mode results in high power consumption, almost equal to receive mode, thus, it is important to shutdown the radio.

4.3.3.1 Modulation

Here, we discuss some popular modulation schemes, On/Off key (OOK), Amplitude Shift Key (ASK), Frequency Shift Key (FSK), Gaussian Frequency Shift Key (GFSK) and Offset-Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (O-QPSK).

ASK modulation offers the advantage of being more immune to interfering signals than OOK and is easier to implement at a lower cost than FSK modulation. In ASK, the data is transmitted using the carrier amplitude.

OOK is the special case of ASK modulation where no carrier is present during the transmission of a zero. OOK modulation is a very popular modulation used in control applications. Due to its simplicity and low implementation costs, OOK modulation has the advantage of allowing the transmitter to idle during the transmission of a zero, therefore conserving power. The disadvantage of OOK modulation arises in the presence of an undesired signal.

The data at FSK modulation is transmitted using different tones. FSK modulation is commonly believed to perform better in the presence of interfering signals. However, it is usually more difficult and expensive to implement.

Both OOK and ASK receivers require an adaptable threshold or an automatic gain control (AGC) in order to ensure an optimal threshold setting. The FSK modulation does not usually require this because it incorporates a limiter that keeps the signal envelope amplitude constant over the useful dynamic range [49]. Figure 4.7 [49] shows the different modulations discussed.



Figure 4.7: *Different modulation for RF [49].*

GFSK is similar to FSK but uses a Gaussian filter. In a GFSK modulator everything is the same as a FSK modulator except before the pulses go into the FSK modulator, it is passed through a Gaussian filter to make the pulse smoother, limiting its spectral width [16]. The purpose of the GFSK is to make a more bandwidth efficient system [21].



Figure 4.8: *I/Q phases of O-QPSK [19].*

The modulation format O-QPSK is shaped as a half-sine, transmitted alternately in the I and Q channels with one half chip period offset. This modulation format is used in the IEEE 802.15.4 standard. This is illustrated in Figure 4.8 [19]. The data at phase modulation is transmitted systematically shifting the carrier wave in uniformly degree at spaced intervals.

For more information, see Stallings [89]. Mathematical models of the modulations schemes discussed above are presented.

4.3.3.2 Off-the-shelf radio components

RFM TR1000 is a hybrid radio transceiver [76] that is very well suited for wireless sensor network application: it has low power consumption and small size. The TR1000 supports RF data transmission rates up to 115.2 kbps, and operates at 3 V. In the 115.2 kbps ASK, the power consumption for the receiver is almost 14.4 mW, for the transmitter is 36 mW, and in sleep mode 15 mW. The disadvantage is that the transmitter output power maximal value is 0.75 mW. It is necessary to amplify the signal, spending more energy.

The MICA platform, constructed using RFM Monoliths TR1000, was not capable to handle a great number of sensor nodes since the lost packet ratio increased with the distance between the sensor nodes, as stated in [48]. Figure 4.9 [48] illustrates this fact.

Chipcon's CC1000 is a very low power CMOS RF transceiver qualified for data rates up to 76.8 kbit/s. It has an internal bit synchronizer that simplifies the design of a high-speed radio link with the microcontroller. The signal interface can also be configured for a UART serial interface taking benefit of the hardware UART in a microcontroller. In power-down mode, the CC1000 current consumption is 0.2 μ A. The CC1000 is designed primarily for FSK systems in the ISM/SRD bands at 315, 433, 868 and 915 MHz. One advantage over TR1000 is that it can easily be programmed for operation at

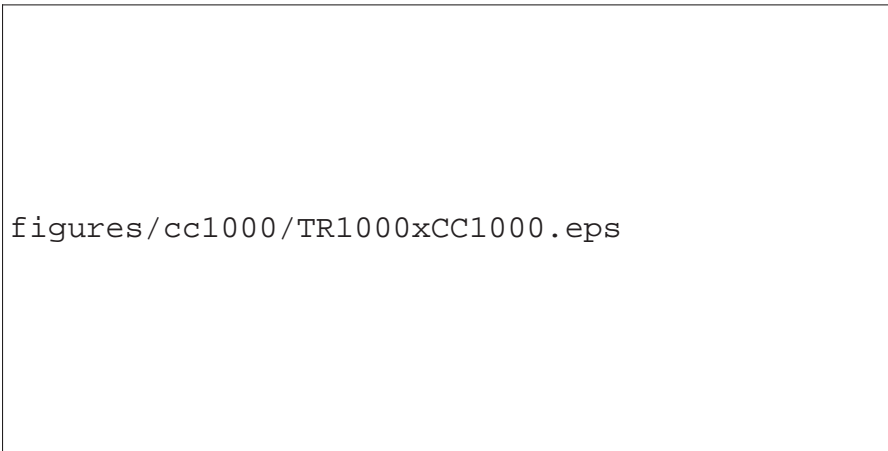


Figure 4.9: *Ratio of receiver packet per distance for TR1000 and CC1000 components [48].*

other frequencies between 300 MHz and 1000 MHz. Another great advantage is that it is possible to control the output power, thus, specifying the desired range of the radio, saving energy and decreasing interference problems. It is also possible to measure the received signal power with the Receive Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI), hence, it is possible to have an idea how distance the sensor nodes are from each other.

The Mica2 and Mica2-Dot platforms use this radio component. Figure 4.9 [48] illustrates their study, showing the ratio of received packet per distance of the CC1000 radio component. Their study was very important since it illustrates the difference between these radio components.

Looking at the range test results in Figure 4.9, the graphs consistently had dips at 300 and 900 ft. Once the sender moves farther from that distance, the receiver received the packets from the sender again. This happened because radio signal is propagated through waves. Radio waves from the sender take different paths while they travel and their phase can change when they reflect on some obstacles. Waves of opposite phase cancel each other and the resulting signal becomes weaker than the sensitivity of the receiving node, thus packets cannot be detected. This phenomenon is called Rayleigh fading and illustrated in Figure 4.10 [48].

More complex devices, like CDMA cellular phone, use multiple antenna of different phase to avoid this problem, but CC1000 cannot use this method because it has only a antenna. However, using multi-hop solves this problem.

The radio component depends on the frequency band of the application. If a higher frequency band is desired, the LMX3162 [84] radio is an option. LMX3162 is a monolithic integrated radio

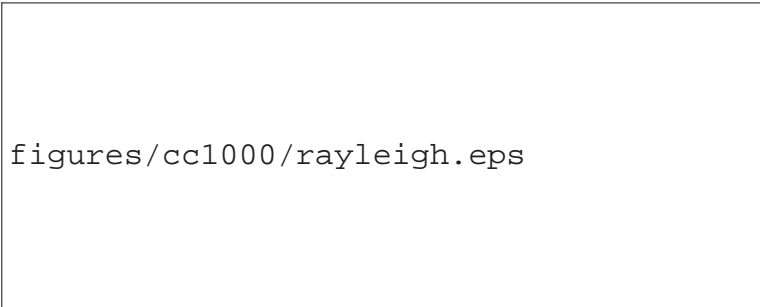


Figure 4.10: *Rayleigh fading* [48].

transceiver optimized for use in ISM 2.45 GHz band wireless systems.

Bluetooth is a standard that specifies a small-form factors, low-cost, short-range radio links [10]. The Bluetooth standard specifies the radio link, baseband link, and the link manager protocol. Bluetooth devices are classified into 3 power classes. The first power class is designed for long range (100m), with maximum output of 20 dBm and 100mW. The second class is for ordinary range devices (10m), with 4dBm and 2.5 mW. The third power class is for short-range devices (10cm), with 0dBm and 1mW [11].

Table 4.5 compares Bluetooth device (Philstar PH2401) with components already discussed. Bluetooth throughput is high for a sensor node, since it increases the sensor node complexity to receive data at this high speed, thus not being a good solution. Bluetooth can be a good solution for gateways or sensor nodes that need to transmit at high data rate such as a video application. Martin [53] shows that the Bluetooth device, may consume five more times than CC1000 and it is suggested for applications that are active over a limited time period, with few unpredictable bursts of very heavy network traffic (taking advantage of the high throughput).

Chipcon has also released a new device, the CC1020. It has fast data rate of 153.6 kbit/s. The modulation format supported are FSK, ASK and GFSK. An interesting work is to develop an extended finite state machine modulation scheme that changes the modulation type due to channel characteristics. The major drawback is the power consumption, 17.3 mA to receive and 13.7 mA to transmit. Realize that the receiving consumption is bigger than the transmitting consumption. This is an opportunity for new WSN protocols.

TRF6900 is a Texas Instruments transceiver that operates in 850 to 950 MHz band. Its main advantage is a high data rate of 200 kbps. It also has the possibility to measure RSSI. Its main disadvantage is the high energy consumption to transmit (40mA).

Micrel MICRF receiver family comprises 418 to 433 MHz and 900 MHz band devices. Its advantage is that the architecture eliminates the need for manual tuning of each unit. You can set the receiver to periodically wake up and check for incoming signals.

Another option is to use a radio module by Conexant Systems, Inc. The RDSSS9M Digital Cordless Telephone (DCT) chipset uses a 900 MHz spread spectrum RF communications link. The chipset has an embedded 65C02 microcontroller that performs all control and monitoring functions required for direct sequence spread-spectrum communication (12 chips/bit) as well as data exchange with the processor module. The radio operates on one of 40 channels in the ISM frequency band, selectable by the controller. The RF portion of the radio is capable of operating at multiple transmit power levels between 1 and 100 mW enabling the use of power-optimized communication algorithms.

CC2420 is the newest Chipcon product. The CC2420 is a single-chip 2.4 GHz IEEE 802.15.4 compliant RF transceiver designed for low power and low-voltage wireless applications. Its antenna is of only 2.9 cm. It has many advantages that facilitate the channel design. It has a true SPI bus to interface the microcontroller, an internal FIFO, is the slave of the communication but can also generate interrupt signals, the RSSI (Receive Signal Strength Indicator) is digital and a packet sniffer software to debug already exists. Although the power consumption in receive mode is higher than CC1000, it is necessary a study to determine what device spend less energy per bit since CC2420 has an internal FIFO, which allows the MCU to sleep more time, and the data rate is 250kbps, spending less energy per bit transmitted. The modulation is O-QPSK, having a different physical layer, thus, it is not compatible with CC1000. The disadvantages are that it has a small range (less than 50m), and being IEEE 802.15.4 compliant does not allow the study of new algorithms at data link layer (MAC and LLC) since they are already defined.

Table 4.5 summarizes this discussion, presenting the characteristics of the radio COTS devices. The dBm is a relative power unit defined as the ratio of the power in Watts to one milliwatt as in Equation 4.2. For example, 0 dBm is equal to 1mW of power.

$$Power(dBm) = 10 * \log(Power \text{ in Watts} / 0.001 \text{ Watt}). \quad (4.2)$$

The receiver sensitivity and transmitter power are important to determine the range. Range is usually estimated with statistics [20]. The radio link budget tells how much loss exists between the

transmitter and the receiver, and is given by [20]:

$$P_{LB} = TX \text{ Transmitter Power} + TX \text{ antenna Gain} + RX \text{ antenna Gain} - RX \text{ sensitivity} \quad (4.3)$$

In this budget model, the antenna is taken explicitly into account. The antenna gain has as great influence to the transmitter power and sensitivity. Based on the radio link budget, it is possible to estimate the range.

	TR1000	CC1000	LMX 3162	Philstar PH2401	TRF6901	MICRF 103/003	CC2420
Modulation Type	OOK/	FSK ASK	N/A	GFSK	FSK/ OOK	OOK/ ASK	O-QPSK
Carrier Frequency	916,5 MHz	300 to 1000 MHz	2.45GHz	2,4 GHz	868 to 928 MHz	800 to 1000 MHz	2.4GHz
Operating Voltage	3V 3V	2.1 V to 3.6 V	3.0 to 5.5 V	1.8 V	1.8 to 3.6V	4.75 V to 5.5 V	1.6 to 3.6
Current Transmit mode	12mA	16.5mA @868MHz 0dBm	50mA	<20mA	32mA	27.5mA@ 915MHz	17.4mA
Current Receive Mode	3.8 mA@ 115.2 kbps 1.8 mA@ 2.4kbps	9.6 mA@ 868MHz	27mA	<20mA	18 mA	4mA @ 868MHz	19.7mA
Throughput	OOK 30 kbps ASK 115.2 kbps	up to 76.8 kbit/s		1Mbit/s	Up to 200 kbps	20kbps	250kbps
Receiver Sensitivity	-97dBm@ 115.2 kbps	-110 dBm @ 2.4 kBaud	-93dBm	-84dBm	-99dBm	-95dBm	-94dBm
Transmitter Power	0dBm	-20 to 10 dBm	-7.5dBm	+2dBm	9dBm	-3 dBm	-24 to 0dBm

Table 4.5: Radio components.

4.3.3.3 Wake up Radio Challenge

An important challenge for the communication block unit is the design of a wakeup radio, a low-power radio that can receive very simple communication and in particular detects whether a communication with its own node is desired. In this case, it can power up the main radio that will then receive the actual communication. In PCs, external events such as keyboard presses or arrival of network packet result in the entire system waking up. However, in sensor nodes, this approach is not valid since it is highly desirable to turn off the radio because it is usually more power consumer than the other components. Turning off the radio, unfortunately, means that a neighboring node that detected an interesting event cannot wake a node up. This can lead to missed events and packets, increasing latency and wasting energy. Hence, a radio technological challenge is to have an ultra low-power communication channel to wake up neighboring nodes on demand. Currently, such wakeup radios are still an area of active research in chip design and communications research.

4.4 Sensing Unit

The sensing unit is composed of a group of sensors, which are devices that produce electrical signals to a change in a physical condition. Sensors can be classified as either analog or digital devices depending on the type of output they produce. Many types of sensor exist, as for example magnetometer, accelerometer, light, temperature, pressure, humidity, seismic sensor, gas sensor for H_2S , O_2 , sonar rangers, array sensors for images. Given the diversity of sensors, there is no typical power consumption, as illustrated at Table 4.6. The type of sensors being used in a sensor node will depend on the application purpose. The sensor type can also affect the radio design since it could need a higher throughput like image sensors.

Magnetometers are sensors that measure magnetic fields. They can measure 60 Hz fluctuations from power lines or the Earth's naturally occurring magnetic field. Accelerometers use capacity sensing to measure distance between a reference mass and a proof mass. The word accelerometer is a bit of a misnomer since force is the unit being measure. Accelerometers can measure the magnitude and direction of Earth's gravity.

An orientation unit can be design combining three components between accelerometer and magnetometers. Each sensor should be mutually perpendicular. Rotating the orient unit, each sensor detects the Earth's magnetic field and detects the new orientation. An application that uses this scheme

Type of sensor	Current Consumption	Voltage range	Min/Max range	Accuracy Accuracy	Product
Magnetometer	650uA	2.7-5.25 V	-/+0.5Gauss	2mGauss	AA002-02 NVE
Accelerometer	600uA	3-5.25V	-/+2g	25mg	ADXL202 analog
Light sensor	200uA	2.7-5,5V	0 to26mW/m2	6mW/m2	H53371 ESSD
Temperature sensor	600uA	2.7-5.5V	-20°C/100°C	0.25°C	AD7418 Analog
Pressure sensor	650uA	2.7-5.5	0.6 gauge @14,4 PSI	2.4mPSI	SM5310SMI
Humidity sensor	200uA	4-9V	0-100% relative humidity	+/-2% RH	HIH-3605 Hy-Cal

Table 4.6: *Sensor types specifications.*

is [40].

Sensors have a startup time, in other words, minimum time after turned on to correct sample data. It is desirable that the startup time be as small as possible because it is required to turn off the sensors to reduce energy when they are not being used.

In the deployment on Great Duck Island Project [71], some issues about sensors were learned. Some of the readings from the Mica Weather Board were out of range. The solutions were to use all digital calibrated sensors, increase sensor accuracy and reduce startup time. It has also have to decouple the entire circuit from the power lines.

4.4.1 Sensor Bus

It was desirable to construct a sensor node prototype that is easily expandable to support a variety of applications. The solution is to define a sensor bus. The expansion connector (sensor bus) provides a user interface for additional sensor boards. Hence, to fit an application, it is only necessary to construct a specific sensor board and connect it to the expansion connector of BEAN. For example, for the localization application a sensor board with ultrasound; for a weather station a sensor board with temperature, light, and humidity sensors; to collect vibration data, a sensor board with accelerometers.

The BEAN sensor bus should be small but also complete and generic. The sensor bus signals can

be classified in the following types:

- **power** - power type that includes digital and analog power and ground;
- **interrupt** - interrupt signals are capable of generating interrupt at the MCU;
- **UART/USART interface** - include the Rx and Tx signals and also the clock signal for the USART interface;
- **PW** - digital I/O that control power of peripheral sensors;
- **ADC** - analog inputs for reading analog sensor outputs;
- **SPI** - serial SPI interface (SIMO,MISO,CLK);
- **I²C**- serial I²C interface (SDA,SCLK);
- **PWM** - signals for reading digital sensor outputs at pulse width format;
- **Reset** - signal capable of resetting the sensor node.

After classifying the sensor bus signals, the BEAN sensor bus was defined. Table 4.7 shows the assigned sensor bus pin signals . BEAN sensor bus has 31 pins. It has at least a signal for each sensor signal type previously defined. Although the MCU has eight ADC pins, since one pin was necessary for the radio connector, seven ADC pins were left for the sensor bus. The BEAN PW signals are digital lines that may have other purposes than power control, like reading digital sensors. Table 4.7 also depicts the Mica2 (51 pins) and Mica2-Dot (18pins) sensor bus.

4.5 Other components

Here we present the other components that compose BEAN.

4.5.1 Extended memory

Many algorithms and applications required a large number of data to be stored. The amount of RAM in the microcontroller is limited. The solution to this problem is to add an external memory device that will work as secondary storage like a harddisk in a Personal Computer.

Type/Platform	BEAN (31pins)	Mica2Dot (18pins)	Mica(51pins)
Power	GND(2),VCC,AVCC	GND,VCC	VCC,VSNRS,GND(2)
Interrupt	0,1	0,1	0-3
Uart/Usart	Rx,Tx	Rx, Tx	Rx(2),Tx(2),clk
PW	0-7	0,1	0-7
ADC	0-6	2/jul	0-7
SPI	Simo,somi,clk	Clk	Prog_Simo,Prog_mosi,clk
I2C	Sda,sclk		Clk,data
PWM	0-1	Pwm1b	0,1A,1B
Reset	Reset	Resetn	Rstn
Other			Rd,Wr,Ale ThermPW, Bat_Mon AC+,AC-,Led1-3 Thru1-3(no connection)

Table 4.7: *Sensor bus comparison.*

Many types of memory devices are available for use in embedded systems. We will discuss two types of programmable non-volatile memory devices, EEPROM and Flash.

EEPROM means Electrically-Erasable-Programmable ROM. They are internally similar to EPROMs (erasable-and-programmable), but the erase operation is accomplished electrically, rather than by exposure to ultraviolet light. Any byte in the EEPROM can be erased or rewritten. Once written, the new data will remain in the device until is electrically erased.

Flash memory is the most recent advancement in memory technology. It combines all the best features of the memory devices. Flash memory devices are high density, low cost, nonvolatile, fast to read, and electrically reprogrammable. Flash and EEPROM memory devices are very similar to a software viewpoint. The major difference is that Flash devices can erase only one sector at a time, not a single byte level. EEPROM is relative more expensive than Flash.

The Scatterweb project [82] chose the memory component 24L64. The advantages of this device are that there is already a software driver by Texas Instruments for the MSP430 MCU [59] and it is low power. But this component communicates through I2C, thus it is slower than SPI devices. For instance, to write 32 bytes, it spends 5ms. The Mica2 mote uses the AT45DB041 memory device. It is a SPI bus but it can consume too much energy. The M24M01 consumes only 2mA on write mode. The disadvantage is that it uses I2C to communicate, so it is also slow. M24M01 will spend 20 ms to write 256 bytes, thus, 40 ms*mA per 256 written bytes. The M25P40 [60] will spend 22.5mA*ms per

Component	24L64	AT45DB041	M24M01	M25P40
Type	EEPROM	Flash	Flash	Flash
Bus	I2C	SPI	I2C	SPI
Write current	3mA	15-35mA	2mA	15mA
Write time	5ms (32 bytes)	7-14ms	10ms (128 bytes)	1.5-5ms(256 bytes)

Table 4.8: *Memory Comparison.*

256 written bytes. Although M24M01 has the lower write current, it is not the lower power device. We choose the ST M25P40, a serial flash memory that is fast and can be switched to a low power mode when it is not used. Table 4.8 illustrates the above discussion.

4.5.1.1 M25P40

The M25P40 is a 4 Mbit (512K x 8) Serial Flash Memory, with write protection mechanisms, accessed by a high speed SPI-compatible bus. The memory can program 1 to 256 bytes at a time, using the Page Program instruction. The memory is organized as 8 sectors, each containing 256 pages. Each page is 256 bytes wide. Thus, the whole memory can be viewed as consisting of 2048 pages, or 524,288 bytes. The whole memory can be erased using the Bulk Erase instruction, or a sector at a time, using the Sector Erase instruction. Figure 4.11 [60] shows the memory schematic and Table 4.9 explains the pin assignment.

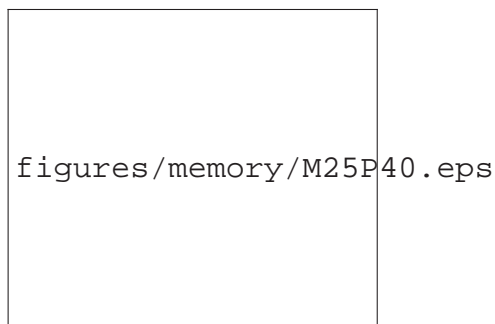


Figure 4.11: *M25P40 [60].*

C	Serial Clock
D	Serial Data Input
Q	Serial Data Output
S	Chip Select
W	Write Protect
HOLD	Hold
VCC	Supply Voltage
VSS	Ground

Table 4.9: *Memory Pin Description.*

Pin	Description
TCLK	A clock input that synchronizes the JTAG port logical operations
TMS	A test mode select input that is sampled on the rising edge of the TCK to sequence the internal state machine controller (TAP Controller).
TDI	The input test data stream that is sampled on the rising edge of the TCK
TDO	The output test data stream that is sampled on the falling edge of the TCK
TRST	An active low asynchronous reset

Table 4.10: *JTAG interface pin.*

4.5.2 Debugging

For debugging, four LEDs are added to the prototype design. Thus, the sensor node can map sixteen states to be debugged. The current consumption of the LEDs can be as high as the radio channel, so it is advised to use them only for debug purpose.

A JTAG (Joint Test Action Group IEEE1149.1) interface is used to program and debug the microprocessor. JTAG was designed to supplement the board tester by connecting all the testpoint in the board to individual bits of a long shift register. JTAG is an open standard. However, the JTAG standard only defines the communications protocol to use in the processor. How the JTAG connects the core elements and extension are specific of a particular manufacturer.

Because the JTAG implementation is a serial protocol, it requires few microprocessor I/O pins. Table 4.10 describes the pin for the IEEE 1149.1 JTAG interface.

A RS-232 interface could be added to the design, but since we already have the JTAG interface, it was not really necessary.

4.5.3 Serial Number

It is desired that each sensor node have a unique identification, such as a number. A software solution is to write a number in the memory device at the programming phase. Although this is an option, a hardware solution is more elegant. Dallas Semiconductor devices, such as DS2401, offer a unique ROM code that contains a 64-bit number. We opted for a hardware solution, using the DS2417 [28], which contains the same unique serial number feature.

The 64-bit number, where the first eight bits are a 1-Wire family code, the next 48 bits are a unique serial number and the last eight bits are a Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC) of the first 56 bits,

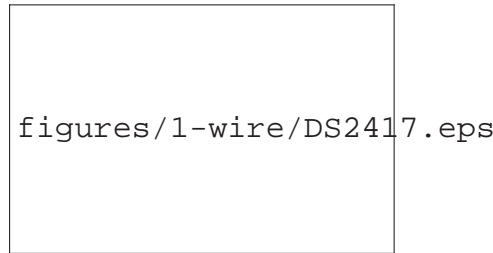


Figure 4.12: *DS2417* [28].

is uniquely produced by Dallas Semiconductor. This number assures absolute traceability because no two parts are alike, facilitating device management.

This serial number does not necessarily have to be the identification number for a WSN protocol. A 48-bit number is usually too large to be sent in a sensor node packet. A solution is to use a bit-mask but this solution does not guarantee uniqueness. Other approach is to use smaller identification number and the WSN management could keep a conversion table between the identification protocol number and the 48-bit serial number.

4.5.4 Real Time Clock

It is desired to know the time when an event happens, like keeping record when a sensor signal was read. Adding a real-time clock allows the sensor node to time and date stamp, or create a logbook. It is also possible to create a real-time clock with the microcontroller, but it is also desired to put the microcontroller in the low-power mode to save energy. This solution would make the software very complex. A more simple approach is to add a real-time clock.

The DS2417 time chip [28] offers a simple solution for storing and retrieving vital time information with minimal hardware. It contains a unique serial number, and real-time clock/calendar implemented as a binary counter. It uses the 1-Wire protocol, thus, only one pin is required for communication with the device.

The DS2417 has clock accuracy ± 2 minutes per month at 25°C and uses a binary time/date representation with 1second resolution. Figure 4.12 shows the DS2417 package and Table 4.11 the pin description.

Pin Number	Name	Description
1	GND	Ground Pin
2	1-Wire	Data input/output Open drain.
3	/INT	Interrupt pin Open drain.
4	VDD	Power input pin. 2.5V to 5.5V.
5, 6	X1, X2	Crystal pins. Connections for a standard 32.768kHz quartz crystal

Table 4.11: *DS2417 Pin Description [28].*

4.5.5 Measuring Energy

A differential in BEAN's project is that it is possible to measure the power consumption of each component (radio, MCU, sensor bus, external memory and overall). We add a shunt resistor in the power supply of each component, allowing the measurement of the power consumption. To our knowledge, this is the first sensor node prototype which such feature.

BEAN is also capable of measuring its own overall power consumption. Using a jumper, the user can configure BEAN to measure at port number 6.5 its power consumption or the ADC signal 5 from the sensor bus.

Another interesting option is to connect the BEAN sensor bus to the energy measure points of another BEAN. This would lead to a new methodology to evaluate on-the-fly the power consumption of Wireless Sensor Network algorithms and since the action of measuring the power consumption will be done by the another BEAN, the measurement will be independent and not corrupted. Figure 4.13 illustrates this new methodology.

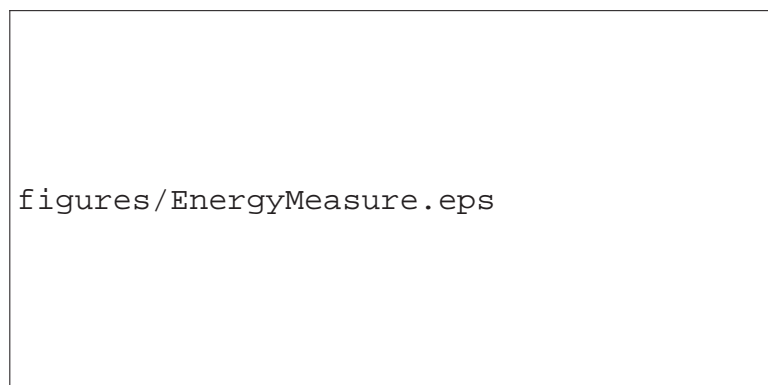


Figure 4.13: *A new methodology to evaluate on-the-fly the power consumption of WSN algorithms.*

4.6 Interfacing CC1000 and MSP430

4.6.1 CC1000 Application Circuit



Figure 4.14: *CC1000 Application Circuit [17].*

Few components are required for CC1000 to implement a radio channel. A typical application circuit is shown at Figure 4.14. We identify five blocks. The first block is an optional filter. The second part is used to match the transmitter and receiver to 50 Ohms antenna impedance. The third block is composed of voltage supply de-coupling capacitors. These capacitors should be placed as close as possible to the voltage supply pins of CC1000. Block number four is an inductor to determine the operating range. The voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) is completely integrated except for this inductor. Finally, the last block is the crystal oscillator circuit.

4.6.2 Interfacing Radio and the Microcontroller

This section discusses how the CC1000 can be interfaced to the MCU. The only requirement is that the MCU to have enough free I/O pins. To configure the CC1000, three I/O pins are required (one bidirectional and two output pins). The pins connected to PDATA (Programming Data) and PLCK (Programming Clock) can be shared with other circuitry, providing these circuits are not active when the configuration interface is active. The PALE (Programming Address Latch Enabled) signal must

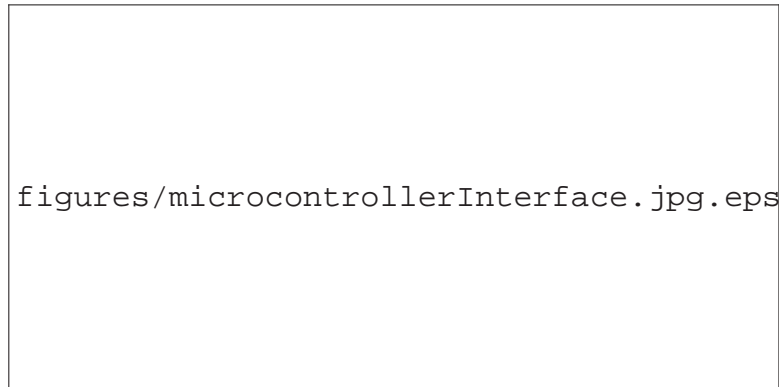


Figure 4.15: *CC1000-MCU Hardware Interface [96].*

be driven by a pin dedicated only to interfacing the CC1000. For the data interface, two I/O pins are required, one bidirectional for DIO (Data Input/Output) and one input for DCLK (Data Clock). The pin used to interface with DCLK should be able to generate an interrupt on signal edges. Figure 4.15 shows the CC1000-MCU hardware interface configuration.

In power-down mode, the CC1000 pins assume the states described in Table 4.12.

Pin	Description
PDATA	Input
PCLK	Input
PALE	Input with internal pull-up resistor
DIO	Input
DCLK	High-impedance output

Table 4.12: *CC1000 Pins.*

4.6.2.1 Configuration Interface

The CC1000 is configured using the PCLK, PDATA and PALE signals. The configuration registers are also readable, so that the user can verify settings and read status bits.

Using general-purpose I/O pins to handle an interface in this way is called "bit banging". This approach is very flexible, as the user is free to use any I/O pins on the microcontroller, but the software is more complex and it is also slower than using a hardware solution. The biggest advantage of using a hardware interface module is that the communication is faster than "bit banging".

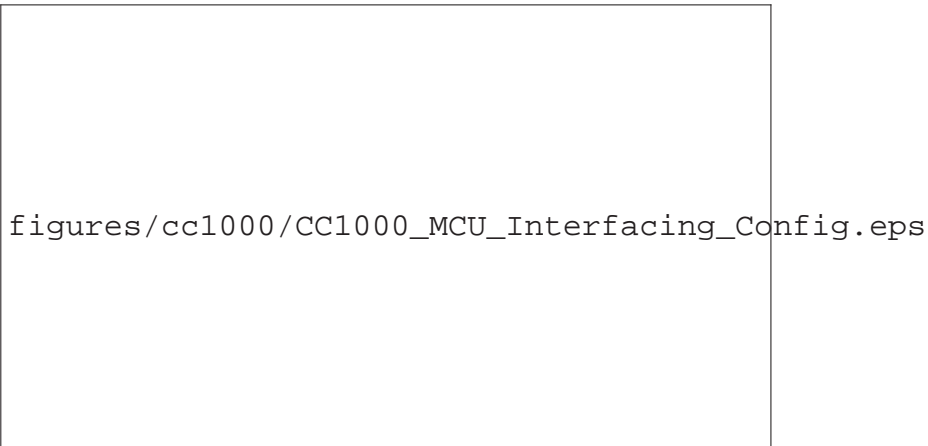


Figure 4.16: *SPI Configuration Interface [96].*

The alternative is to use a synchronous serial interface to interface with the CC1000. An SPI master interface or some types of USART (Universal Synchronous/Asynchronous Receiver/Transmitter) are suitable. When interfacing with an SPI master, the MISO (master in, slave out) and MOSI (master out, slave in) pins should be connected together. The MOSI pin should be configured as an input when reading from the CC1000. A free general I/O pin can be used to interface with the PALE pin of the CC1000 as show in Figure 4.16. The other SPI signals are SCK (Serial Clock) and SS (Slave select). SS is not used when interfacing the CC1000 with an SPI interface.

The software driver must be careful to avoid short-circuit since the MISO and MOSI are connected together. If both port are configured as output and emit different signals at the same time, it may damage the circuit.

Chipcon recommends resetting the CC1000 (by clearing the RESET_N bit in the MAIN register) when the chip is first powered up. All registers that need to be configured should then be programmed. Registers can be programmed freely in any order. The CC1000 should then be calibrated in both RX and TX mode. After this is complete, the CC1000 is ready for use.

4.6.2.2 Data Interface

The data interface can be interfaced using general-purpose I/O pins. The DCLK pin on the CC1000 should be connected to an input pin that can generate an interrupt to the MCU. DIO should be connected to a bi-directional I/O pin.

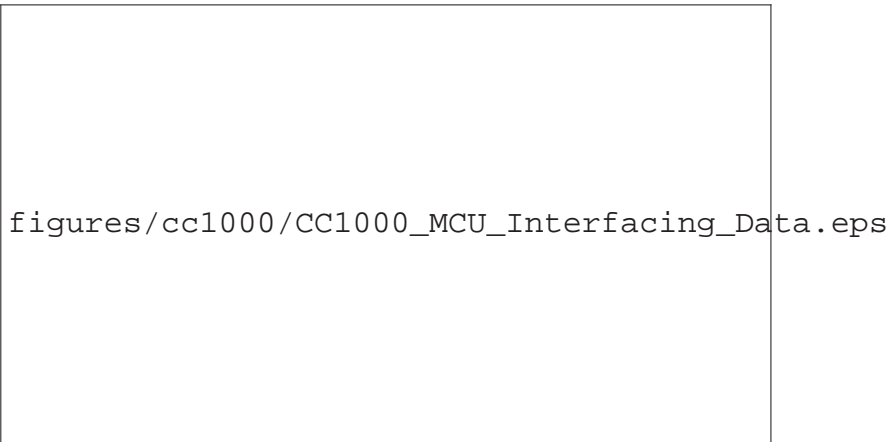


Figure 4.17: *SPI data Interface [96].*

In TX mode, the interrupt should be triggered on the falling edge of DCLK. When the interrupt occurs, write the next bit to be transmitted to the I/O pin. In RX mode, the interrupt should be triggered on the rising edge of DCLK. When the interrupt occurs, read the data from the I/O pin.

Note that data transferred to/from the MCU is always NRZ coded, regardless of whether Synchronous NRZ or Synchronous Manchester mode is selected. The mode setting only affects the signal modulated onto the RF carrier. The Manchester encoding/decoding is performed by the CC1000.

The data interface can also be connected to a synchronous serial interface in the same way as the configuration interface. In this case, since the CC1000 provides the DCLK signal, the microcontroller must act as a slave. If an SPI interface is used, the MISO signal pin must be set as an input when reading data from the CC1000, as illustrated in Figure 4.17. When receiving, the microcontroller software must handle byte synchronization. This involves detecting a start-of-frame (SOF) unique identifier, which is sent after the preamble. When this word is detected, the serial interface is enabled, and from there on out, the receiver is byte-synchronized with the transmitter.

The MSP430F169 has two USART Modules. Each module can be configured exclusively to work as SPI module or UART module. One module (USART0) was connected to the external memory and sensor connector. Thus, only one SPI module was available for the radio interface. We chose to use the SPI module to connect the radio data interface. The radio configuration interface is connected using general I/O, in other words, the communication process will be done using “bit banging”. For debugging purpose, it is also possible to communicate to the radio data interface using “bit banging”. An additional connection to an interrupt enable port (port2.0) was connected to the radio device.



Figure 4.18: *Connection MCU USART Modules to other BEAN Components.*

These connection are illustrated in Figure 4.18.

The memory device uses the USART0 in the mode SPI and the sensor bus as UART, thus, it is not possible to use both simultaneously. The MSP430F16xx family also has an I2C interface embedded at the USART0 Module but it is not being used.

If projecting a MCU, it would be interesting to construct three SPI module, one UART module and one I2C module, so the radio could connect to using SPI modules, the external memory using the other SPI, and the sensor bus using the I2C and UART modules.

4.6.2.3 Other features

The CC1000 supports two encoding strategies, NRZ (non-return to zero) and Manchester, as illustrated in Figure 4.19. The NRZ map the data value 1 onto the high signal and the data value 0 onto low signal. The Manchester encoding merges the clock with the data signal by using the exclusive-or (XOR) function. The Manchester code usually result in less transmission error but it only uses half of bit rate. The CC1000 includes a Manchester violation bit available at the CHP_OUT pin if the LOCK register is correctly configured.

CC1000 allows programming the operating frequency. The operation frequency is set by programming the frequency word in the configuration registers. There are two frequency words registers, termed A and B, which can be programmed to two different frequencies. One of the frequency words can be used for RX (local oscillator frequency) and other for TX (transmitting frequency) in order to be able to switch very fast between RX mode and TX mode. They can also be used for RX (or TX) at two different channels. Frequency word A or B is selected by the F_REG bit in the MAIN register.

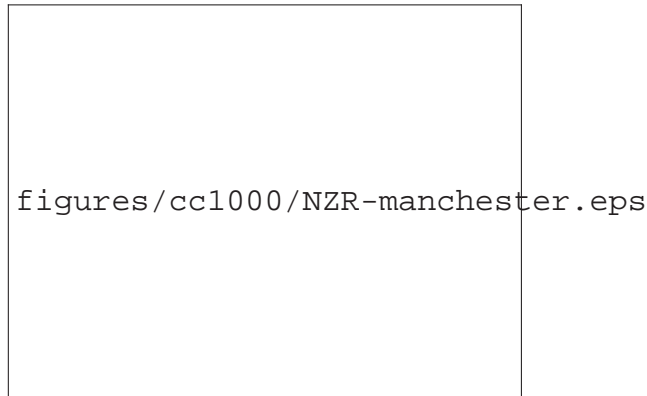


Figure 4.19: *Different encoding strategies [17].*

The FSK frequency separation is programmed at FSEP(1:0) registers.

The RSSI/IF pin is optional pin to interface to MCU. An analogue RSSI signal is available at this pin. The RSSI should be turned off when not in use, as the RSSI circuitry consumes around 0.3mA in receive mode. The RSSI is connected to an ADC, which is a microcontroller built-in peripheral. The RSSI output ranges between 1.2 and 0 V.

The RF output power is programmable and controlled by the PA_POW register. Controlling transmit power and measuring the RSSI has many advantages. The output power can be programmed to reduce the energy that is used to communicate to relatively close neighbors. It allows a sensor node to adjust the number of neighbors. It minimizes interference and also can be used to determine the relative position of the sensor node. Figure 4.20 illustrates the programmable output power capability.

The signal Table 4.13 shows some values for output powers and the typical current consumption. The minimum output power is -20dBm and the current consumption is 8.6mA. At 0 dBm, the current consumption is 16.8 mA. The maximum output power is 5dBm and the current consumption is 25.4 mA.

4.6.3 CC1000PP

Chipcon has designed the CC1000PP plug-and-play module (Figure 4.21), which is available in the CC1000 Development Kit, to serve as a reference design and enable very quick prototyping of an RF system.

The CC1000PP module (28x20 mm) contains all RF components required for proper operation.

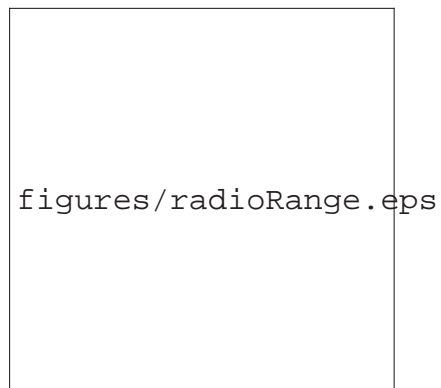


Figure 4.20: Programmable output power allows changing radio range.

Output Power (dBm)	Current Consumption (mA)
-20	8.6
-15	9.3
-10	10.1
-5	13.8
0	16.8
5	25.4

Table 4.13: Output power settings and typical current consumption at 868 Mhz.

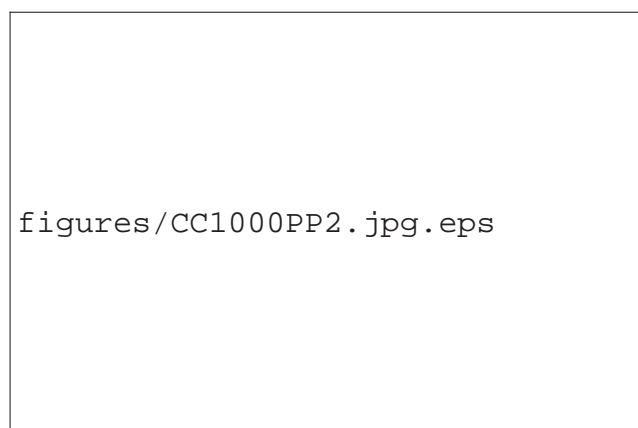


Figure 4.21: CC1000PP [18].

Pin	Description	Pin	Description
1	VCC	2	VCC
3	PALE	4	Pdata
5	PCLK	6	Chip_out
7	DIO	8	Dclk
9	GND	10	RSSI

Table 4.14: *Pin description of Radio Connector.*

This includes the CC1000, as well as a reference crystal and a LC output filter. In a ready-built form, the CC1000PP is ideal for quick prototyping. The module may be connected to a prototyping board or PCB containing the rest of the system. The CC1000 can, in this way, be tested in a complete system without having to create a custom RF PCB layout.

4.6.4 Radio Connector

To allow the development of other radio boards, BEAN defines a radio connector as illustrated in Table 4.14. The pin description names are the radio signals from CC1000. Using a radio connector, it is possible to modify the radio design without changing BEAN. For instance, using an adapter it is possible to use the CC1000PP module.

The radio channel implemented was designed as an under-graduate term project at the Electrical Engineering course at UFMG [24]. The radio board used the CC1000PP design as a guideline and its interface matches BEAN radio bus. The schematic and layout are presented in Appendix D, and were performed by the student César Almeida Khouri.

4.7 Project Decisions

In this section, we discuss the major project decisions taken during the design of BEAN project. BEAN major requirement is to be energy-efficient, thus, BEAN project focus on energy-efficient COTS.

BEAN MCU needs to be energy-efficient, with different operating modes, and fast wake-up time. It does not need to have extremely power computability as a 32-bit microcontroller. The MCU should has an embedded JTAG interface to facilitate the programming and debugging phases. BEAN MCU choice is the MSP430F169 since it has a 16-bit CPU and is ultra-low power. It has six different

operating modes that are fully supported during interrupt event handling. The MSP430 consumes less than 400 mA in active mode operating at 1 MHz in a typical 3V system and can wake up from a 2-mA standby mode to fully synchronized operation in less than 6 μ s.

BEAN communication channel needs to be bi-directional to support different operating modes, to be energy-efficient, allows setting the output power, and have relatively slow data rate. The range should be between 1 to 250 meters. BEAN Radio choice is the Chipcon CC1000. CC1000 is a very low power CMOS RF transceiver qualified for data rates up to 76.8 kbit/s. It has an internal bit synchronizer that simplifies the design of a high-speed radio link with the microcontroller. In power-down mode, the CC1000 current consumption is 0.2 μ A. Another great advantage is that it is possible to control the output power, thus, specifying the desired range of the radio, saving energy and decreasing interference problems. It is also possible to measure the received signal power with the RSSI signal, hence, it is possible to have an idea how distance the sensor nodes are from each other.

At the sensor unit, BEAN is generic since it has a well-defined expansion bus, being capable of a large number of applications. For the near future, BEAN will use the temperature sensor TMP37 [27], to develop an application very similar to the Sensornet project experiment.

BEAN external memory should be energy-efficient, not too slow and operate on low-power mode. BEAN uses as an external memory the ST M25P40, a serial flash memory that is fast and can be switched to a low power mode when it is not used.

BEAN has an unique serial number and a Real-time Clock that allows the microcontroller to go to the low-power mode without losing time-control. The Dallas Semiconductor DS2417 is used.

BEAN has shunt resistors in the power supply track for each component to measure the power consumption (radio, MCU, sensor bus, external memory and overall).

BEAN was designed to use the MCU clock module LFXT1CLK with a 32,768-Hz crystal and the DCO at 7.358Mhz. The operating voltage is 3.3 V.

Table 4.15 summarizes BEAN major components.

The schematic and layout are presented in Appendix A and B and were performed by the undergraduate student Rangel Flávio Resende Leite under a Sensornet Project grant.

BEAN	
Microcontroller	
Type	MSP430F169
Program Memory	60 KB
Data Memory	2KB
Storage	
Chip	M25P40
Communication Type	SPI
Size	4Mbit
Communication	
Radio	CC1000
Speed	Up to 76.8Kbps
Modulation Type	FSK
Extra	
RTC	DS2417
ID	DS2417

Table 4.15: *BEAN Overview.*

Chapter 5

BEAN_API

Computer science is no more about computers than astronomy is about telescopes.

E.W. Dijkstra

The BEAN project also includes the development of software components. BEAN_API is composed of an application programming interface (API) and the components that implement it. The API is a set of functionalities to control, configure and provide services of the hardware components through a well define interface. Appendix C details the API parameters.

Figure 5.1 shows the BEAN_API. It is composed of drivers that control the hardware and provides a set of functionalities to the upper layer. Although timers, ADCs, I/O pins are peripheral units of the microcontroller, they were separated in the figure to better explain the hardware/software iteration. Although all software runs inside the MCU, the figure try to explain which software driver controls each hardware component. The RTC and Serial Number hardware components communicates to the MCU through the 1-Wire software protocol. The external memory and radio communicates to the MCU through the SPI module. Timers are configured using the Digital Clock and Timer Driver. To measure the power consumption and the sensor signals, it is necessary to use the ADC, which is controlled by the ADC Driver.

The Figure 5.1 also explains the iteration between software modules. Memory and Radio software components need the SPI driver. The radio also needs to be configured and uses the Queue module.

The API communicates to an upper layer that is an operating system being concurrently developed for BEAN, called Yet Another Operating System (YATOS) [97]. It is a low power operating system de-

sign to attend the requirement of WSN, such as memory and energy constrains. It is event-driven, has a scheduler with priority mechanism, and uses the BEAN_API. Hence, the developer has accesses to important hardware functionalities implemented in BEAN_API such as changing the microcontroller operating mode.



figures/api.eps

Figure 5.1: *BEAN_API*

5.1 Drivers

The major software components are:

- **MCU Config** - The MCU configuration block allows changing the MCU operating mode. The MCU has six different operating modes and is fully supported during interrupt event handling. There are the active mode (AM) and five low-power modes (LPM0, LPM1, LPM2, LPM3 and LPM4). We actually only need to use two operating modes, the active mode and the LPM3 since this is the most economical operating mode that does not completely turn off all clocks.
- **ADC Driver** - The ADC driver functionality is used to configure and manipulate the ADC hardware module. This driver is used to measure the analog input signals provided by sensors or the supply voltage level.

- **1-Wire** - 1-Wire module implements the 1-Wire serial protocol. It is used to communicate with DS2417 [28] component.
- **Digital Clock** - This module configures the MCU clock providing a way to set the internal clock as a multiple of the basic clock, the 32 KHz oscillator.
- **Timer Driver** - The MCU has a set of timers, which can be configured and set using this driver.
- **LED Driver** - The LED driver is a set of functions to control the state(on/off) of four LEDs.
- **SPI Driver** - A SPI module configures the SPI hardware. This serial protocol is used by the external memory and radio.
- **Queue** - A Queue module implements a circular queue abstract data type. The radio driver uses this module. The queue module is independent of the radio driver and may be used by other software components.
- **Memory Driver** - The memory driver module controls the external memory M25P40.
- **Radio Driver** - The radio driver configures the radio properties like output power, frequency, and physical layer configuration and also it controls the transmission and reception of packets. The radio driver defines two queues, one for the transmit buffer and one for the receive buffer.

5.1.1 SPI Driver

Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI) is a 4-wire full-duplex synchronous serial data link that defines the following signals:

- **SCLK** (Serial Clock) - synchronizes master and slave
- **MOSI** (Master Out Slave In) - Data from master to slave
- **MISO** (Master In Slave Out) - Data from slave to master
- **SS** (Slave Select) - enable/disable communication to slave

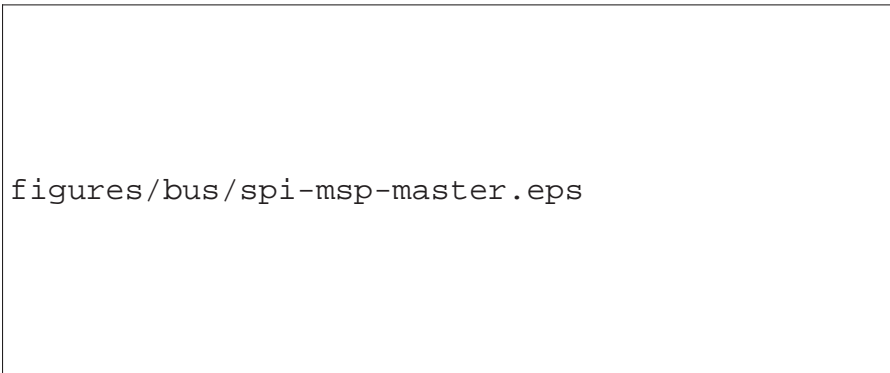


Figure 5.2: *MSP430 USART as Master, External Device With SPI as Slave [93].*

SPI was originally developed by Motorola and is used for interconnecting peripherals to microprocessors. The data is serially transmitted to other SPI devices. There is only one master active at a time. The speed transfers depends on the system clock. Actually, this is a “3 + n ” wire interface where n is the number of devices at the bus.

MSP430 has a USART peripheral module that connects to the CPU as a byte-oriented peripheral module. It connects the MSP430 to the external system environment with three or four external pins. This module can work as USART, UART or SPI.

The USART peripheral module is a serial channel that shifts a serial bit stream of 7 or 8 bits in and out of the MSP430. Bit SYNC in control register UCTL selects the required mode:

- SYNC = 0: UART-asynchronous mode selected
- SYNC = 1: SPI-synchronous mode selected

This module supports three-pin and four-pin SPI operations via SOMI, SIMO, UCLK, and STE ports. We configured to operate on three-pin SPI mode. The MCU can be the slave or master. Figure 5.2 illustrates the MSP430 as the master of the communication. This configuration is used to communicate to the external memory. Figure 5.3 illustrates the MSP430 as the slave of the communication. This configuration is used to communicate with the radio. The USART peripheral module has separate shift registers for receive (URXBUF) and transmit (UTXBUF).

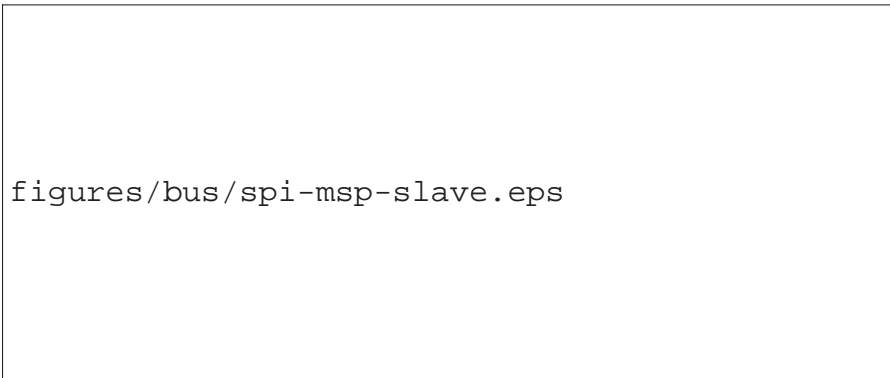


Figure 5.3: *MSP430 USART as Slave in Three-Pin or Four-Pin Configuration [93].*

5.1.2 1-Wire Driver

1-Wire¹ is an interface protocol that supplies control, data, and power over a single-wire connection. It was projected to simplify designs. Although only a single wire is used, a 1-wire device may have a variety of built-in functions such as identification, sensor, control, or memory.

The 1-Wire protocol was implemented via software. The system requirements for proper operation of the software solution are:

- The communication port is bidirectional, its output is open-drain, and there is a weak pull-up on the line. This is a requirement of any 1-Wire bus.
- The system is capable of generating an accurate and repeatable $1\mu\text{s}$ delay.
- The communication operations must not be interrupted while being generated.

The four basic operations of a 1-Wire bus are Reset, Write 1 bit, Write 0 bit, and Read bit. The time it takes to perform one bit of communication is called a time slot. Byte functions can then be derived from multiple calls to the bit operations. See Table 5.1 [25] below for a brief description of each operation and a list of the steps necessary to generate it. Figure 5.4 [25] illustrates the waveforms graphically.

The 1-Wire Driver is also the driver component for the RTC. The protocol for accessing the DS2417 via the 1-Wire port is as follows:

- Initialization

¹1-Wire is a registered trademark of Dallas Semiconductor.



Figure 5.4: *1-Wire waveforms [25].*

Operation	Description	Implementation
Write 1 bit	Send a 1 bit to the 1-Wire slaves (Write 1 time slot)	Drive bus low, delay $6\mu s$ Release bus, delay $64\mu s$
Write 0 bit	send a 0 bit to the 1-Wire slaves (Write 0 time slot)	Drive bus low, delay $60\mu s$ Release bus, delay $10\mu s$
Read bit	Read a bit from the 1-Wire slaves (Read time slot)	Drive bus low, delay $6\mu s$ Release bus, delay $9\mu s$ Sample bus to read bit from slave Delay $55\mu s$
Reset	Reset the 1-Wire bus slave devices and ready them for a command	Drive bus low, delay $480\mu s$ Release bus, delay $70\mu s$ Sample bus, 0 = device(s) present, 1 = no device present Delay $410\mu s$

Table 5.1: *1-Wire Operations.*

- ROM Function Command
- Clock Function Command

The transactions on the 1-Wire bus begin with an initialization sequence. The initialization sequence consists of a reset pulse transmitted by the master followed by presence pulse transmitted by the slave (DS2417). The presence pulse lets the master (microcontroller) know that the DS2417 is on the bus and is ready to operate.

After the master has detected the presence of a device, it can issue one of the ROM function commands that the DS2417 supports. All ROM function commands are eight bits long. The ROM functions implemented in the driver are [28]:

- Read ROM: This command allows the bus master to read the DS2417 8-bit family code, unique 48-bit serial number and 8-bit CRC.
- Skip ROM: This command can save time in a single-drop bus system by allowing the bus master to access the clock functions without providing the 64-bit ROM code.
- Match ROM: The match ROM command, followed by a 64-bit ROM sequence, allows the bus master to address a specific DS2417 on a multidrop bus. Only the DS2417 that exactly matches the 64-bit ROM sequence will respond to the following clock function command.

After the ROM functions, the master issue one of the Clock Function Commands. The Clock functions implemented in the driver are:

- READ CLOCK: The read clock command is used to read the device control byte and the contents of the real-time clock counter.
- WRITE CLOCK: The write clock command is used to set the real-time clock counter and to write the device control byte.

5.1.3 LED Driver

The led driver functionality is to turn on, turn off or change the LED states. BEAN can signal sixteen states via four LEDs (red, green, orange, yellow). Users should use them only for debugging purpose since it consumes energy.

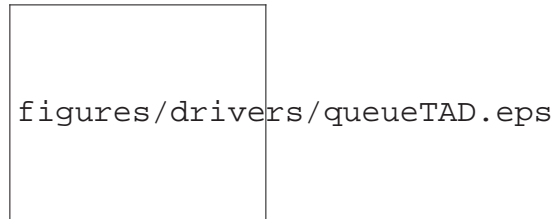


Figure 5.5: *Queue.*

5.1.4 Queue Driver

The queue driver implements a circular queue abstract data type. The radio driver uses this module. Figure 5.5 illustrates the circular queue abstract data type. It is basically composed of two pointers, the initial and final data pointers. Using the modulus operator turn this queue into a circular queue. The major advantage of our implementation is that it is possible to define the size of the queue at execution time. The queue module is independent of the radio driver and may be used by other software components.

5.1.5 Memory Driver

The memory driver uses the SPI driver. Its purpose is to communicate and control the M25P40 device [60], which is the slave on the communication channel. All instructions, addresses and data are shifted in and out of the device, most significant bit first. Serial Data Input (D) is sampled on the first rising edge of Serial Clock (C) after Chip Select (S) is driven Low. Then, the one-byte instruction code must be shifted in to the device, most significant bit first, on Serial Data Input (D), each bit being latched on the rising edges of Serial Clock (C).

The instruction set is listed in Table 5.2 [60]. Every instruction sequence starts with a one-byte instruction code. Depending on the instruction, this might be followed by address bytes, or by data bytes, or by both or none. Chip Select (S) must be driven high after the last bit of the instruction sequence has been shifted in.

In the case of a Read Data Bytes (READ), Read Data Bytes at Higher Speed (Fast_Read), Read Status Register (RDSR) or Release from Deep Power-down, and Read Electronic Signature (RES) instruction, the shifted-in instruction sequence is followed by a data-out sequence. Chip Select (S) can be driven high after any bit of the data-out sequence is being shifted out.

Instruction	Description	One-byte Instruction Code		Address bytes	Dummy bytes	Data bytes
WREN	Write Enable	0000 0110	06h	0	0	0
WRDI	Write Disable	0000 0100	04h	0	0	0
RDSR	Read Status Register	0000 0101	05h	0	0	1 to ∞
WRSR	Write Status Register	0000 0001	01h	0	0	1
READ	Read Data Bytes	0000 0011	03h	3	0	1 to ∞
FAST READ	Read Data Bytes at Higher Speed	0000 1011	0Bh	3	1	1 to ∞
PP	Page Program	0000 0010	02h	3	0	1 to 256
SE	Sector Erase	1101 1000	D8h	3	0	0
BE	Bulk Erase	1100 0111	C7h	0	0	0
DP	Deep Power-down	1011 1001	B9h	0	0	0
RES	Release from Deep Power-down	1010 1011 1010 1011	ABh	0	3	1 to ∞
RES	Read Electronic Signature	1010 1011	ABh	0	3	1 to ∞

Table 5.2: *Memory Instruction Set.*

In the case of a Page Program (PP), Sector Erase (SE), Bulk Erase (BE), Write Status Register (WRSR), Write Enable (WREN), Write Disable (WRDI) or Deep Power-down (DP) instruction, Chip Select (S) must be driven High exactly at the byte boundary, otherwise the instruction is rejected, and is not executed. That is, Chip Select (S) must be driven High when the number of clock pulses after Chip Select (S) being driven Low is an exact multiple of eight.

To exemplify the instruction set, we describe the Read Data Bytes (READ) instruction. The device is first selected by driving Chip Select (S) Low. The instruction code for the Read Data Bytes (READ) instruction is followed by a 3-byte address (A23-A0), each bit being latched-in during the rising edge of Serial Clock (C). Then the memory contents, at that address, is shifted out on Serial Data Output (Q), each bit being shifted out, at a maximum frequency f_R , during the falling edge of Serial Clock (C).

The instruction sequence is shown in Figure 5.6 [60]. The first byte addressed can be at any location. The address is automatically incremented to the next higher address after each byte of data is shifted out. The whole memory can, therefore, be read with a single Read Data Bytes (READ) instruction. When the highest address is reached, the address counter rolls over to 000000h, allowing the read sequence to be continued indefinitely. The Read Data Bytes (READ) instruction is terminated

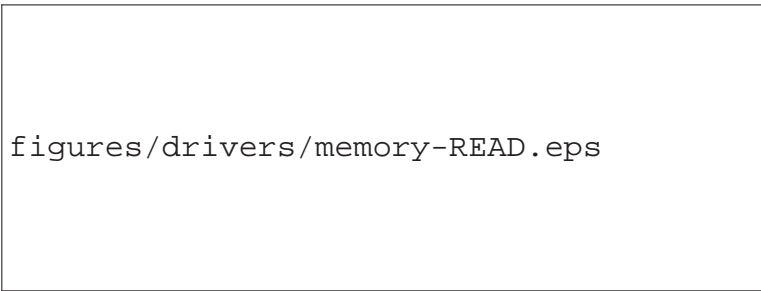


Figure 5.6: *Read Data Bytes (READ) Instruction Sequence and Data-Out Sequence [60].*

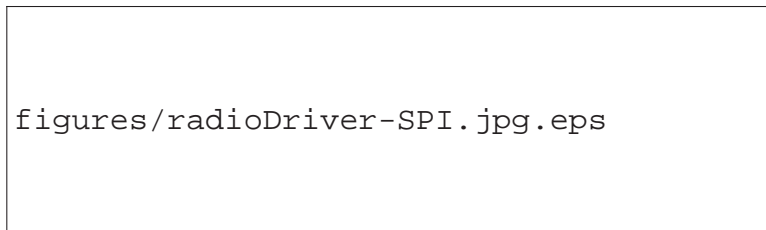


Figure 5.7: *Radio driver using SPI.*

by driving Chip Select (S) High. Chip Select (S) can be driven High at any time during data output. Any Read Data Bytes (READ) instruction, while an Erase, Program or Write cycle is in progress, is rejected without having any effects on the cycle that is in progress.

5.1.6 Radio Driver

The radio driver configures the radio properties like output power, frequency, and physical layer configuration and it also controls the transmission and reception of packets. The radio driver defines two queues, one for the transmit buffer and one for the receive buffer.

The hardware supports two options to communicate to the radio using “bit banging” or SPI.

The advantage of SPI is that it is faster and allows the microcontroller to do other tasks. The transmission is at byte level, as illustrated in figure 5.7. For example, if transmitting at 76Kbps, the bit banging mechanism uses the microcontroller every $13\mu s$ while in the SPI mode it is about $105\mu s$.

The drawback is that it needs a more complex initial configuration. For now, the radio is using “bit banging” with a state machine (Figure 5.8) as suggested in [20]. However, for the near future, an SPI module will be used.

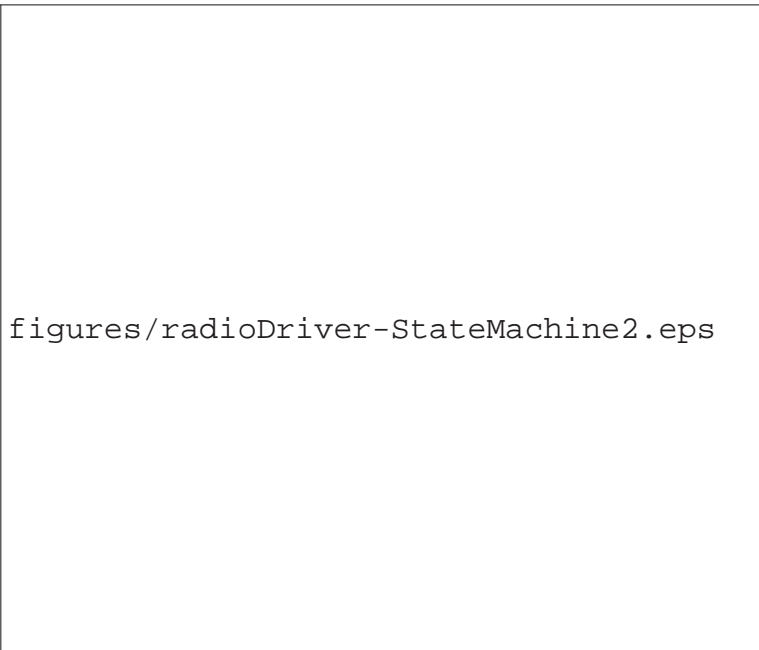


Figure 5.8: *Radio Driver using State Machine [20].*

5.1.7 Case Study

Here, we present an application example of BEAN_API using the LED, Queue and Radio Drivers. First, the example illustrates how to turn on and off the red LED and how to display a binary number using the *led_display* function. Then, a queue is created and data are inserted, removed and inserted again using the Queue functions. Finally, the radio, which is initialized with an initial queue and the frequency operation, sends data. Appendix C presents the BEAN_API.

5.2 Development Tools

Many development tools are available for the MSP430 family. It is important to discuss this issue because when programming embedded system, the source code is dependent on the development tools. A complete toolset includes at least a C compiler, assembler, linker, simulator, and in-circuit emulator. A study of these tools is presented below.

The MSP430 Flash Emulation Tool (FET) by Texas Instruments is a tool that includes hardware and software components to develop applications. The tool has an integrated software environment

Code 5.1 BEAN_API application example source code.

```
1 #include "led.h"
2 #include "queue.h"
3 #include "types.h"
4 #include "radio.h"
5
6 #define QUEUE_SIZE 30
7
8 void main(){
9
10     byte i;
11
12     queue_t q_test;
13     queue_t q_rx;
14     queue_t q_tx;
15     byte buffer[QUEUE_SIZE];
16     byte buffer_rx[QUEUE_SIZE];
17     byte buffer_tx[QUEUE_SIZE];
18     byte value;
19
20     /*led test*/
21     led_on(RED_LED);
22     led_off(RED_LED);
23     for(i=0;i<8;i++) led_display(i);
24
25     /* queue test*/
26     queue_Init(&q_test,buffer,QUEUE_SIZE);
27     for(i=0;i<QUEUE_SIZE;i++)queue_Enqueue(&q_test,i);
28
29     for(i=0;i<QUEUE_SIZE-5;i++)value = queue_Dequeue(&q_test);
30
31     for(i=0;i<QUEUE_SIZE-15;i++)queue_Enqueue(&q_test,i+QUEUE_SIZE);
32
33     /*radio & spi test*/
34
35     queue_Init(&q_rx,buffer_tx,QUEUE_SIZE);
36     queue_Init(&q_tx,buffer_rx,QUEUE_SIZE);
37     rf_init(&q_rx,&q_tx,0x89);
38     rf_send_byte(0xF0);
39
40 }
```

and connects directly to the computer. It permits to execute different programs directly from the PC using the microcontroller. It is a tool to debug software in execution time. A compiler and simulator are also development tools needed in embedded system design project.

The `mspgcc` is a free cost GNU License project that constructed a GCC toolchain for the Texas Instruments MSP430 family. This includes the GNU C compiler (GCC), the assembler and linker (`binutils`) and the debugger (GDB). It does not include an IDE (Integrated Development Environment) but any text editor can be used. A tool to permit to use the FET adapter to debug an execution program is being developed but it is not completely available nowadays. There is no interrupt/Input/Output simulator available.

The SBSIM430 [87] software development tools consists of an assembler, a linker, and a simulator. There is no C-compiler.

The AQ430 [72] is a proprietary IDE. Its compiler does not support type casting, pointer expressions, multi-dimensional arrays or structures. It does not include a simulator. The debugging process uses the FET Adapter.

The CS430 (Crossworks `msp430`) [78] is a proprietary IDE. It includes ANSI C compiler, macro assembler, linker, core simulator, flash downloader and JTAG debugger. The C-compiler supports long and long double.

The ICC430 from ImageCraft [44] is a C-Compiler that also includes Assembler, Linker, and a simple IDE. The compiler has a code compressor that compacts the final program by up to 20%. The other ImageCraft tool is NoICE430, a C source level debugger.

The Embedded Workbench EW430 from IAR [42] is a proprietary IDE that includes ANSI C-compiler, a debugging environment and a simulator. The simulator allows generation of interrupts, watching internal registers and I/O pins. It also has the C-SPY program that, with the FET Adapter, can debug in-circuit the MCU. The compiler has extension functions for interrupt and assembly code. EW430 has the optional VS430 `visualSTATE`, which is a graphical state machine design tool to model and debug MSP430 application, to create system documentation and to generate C code.

Kickstart is a toolset with 4K C-Compiler, Assembler, Debugger, but limited to enerate up to 4K bytes of code. It is free available at Texas Instruments [94]. The MSP430 Simulation Environment [94] is a free Texas Instruments tool that only simulates assembly instructions. It also simulates I/O and LCD.

The Hi-Tide is a MSP430 C-Compiler from Hi-Tech Software [37]. It does not include a simulator.

Tool Name	Company	Brief Description
EW430	IAR Systems	Embedded Workbench for MSP430: Highly optimized C/C++ 430 Compiler, JTAG debugger, 430 Simulator
VS430	IAR Systems	visualSTATE for 430: UML state machine design tool with auto C code generation for the 430 series
ICC430	ImageCraft	C Compiler, Assembler, Linker, IDE
NoICE430	ImageCraft	C Source Level Debugger
AQ430	Quadravox, Inc.	Complete C code development system, JTAG interface source level debugger
Cross Works for MSP430	Rowley Associates Limited	Optimizing C compiler, assembler, linker core simulator, flash downloader, JTAG debugger
SBSIM430	SoftBaugh	Assembler, Linker and Simulator
Hi-Tide	Hi-Tech Software	C-Compiler, Code Wizard
MSPGCC	GCC	GNU C Compiler
MSP430FET	Texas Instruments	Programming and Debugging tool
kickstart	Texas Instruments	4K C-Compiler, Assembler, Debugger, Simulator

Table 5.3: *Development Tools.*

The main advantage of this toolset is that there is a Demo Code Wizard that was of great help to initially configure MSP430 piece of code.

We used the EW430 C-Compiler since it is the only one that includes an interrupt/input/output simulator. The simulator was very important because we designed the software in parallel with the hardware, before having a board to run the software. BEAN_API was developed with EW430 and some piece of code are dependent on this workbench, such as interrupt routines.

For the near future, if the JTAG debugging software is completed, mspgcc will be a very interesting option, but the BEAN_API will need to be ported to this compiler.

Table 5.3 depicts the above discussion.

Chapter 6

Energy issues

Beware of bugs in the above code; I have only proved it correct, not tried it.

Donald Knuth

This chapter discusses energy issues. A basic energy model for a sensor node is presented. We discuss the difference between power and energy and also low-power and energy-efficiency. Two power saving schemes are also presented. We discuss the power down versus shutdown trade-off for a memory device in terms of minimum idle time in order to obtain the best energy saving. Finally, the power budget of BEAN is presented and compared to the Mica2 Mote.

6.1 Background

In this section we present a background to discuss energy issues. We also present a basic version of an energy model for a sensor node.

Power is defined as voltage times current:

$$P = V * i \quad (6.1)$$

It is important to distinguish between Power and Energy. Power is the energy consumption per unit of time, as illustrated:

$$P = E/t \quad (6.2)$$

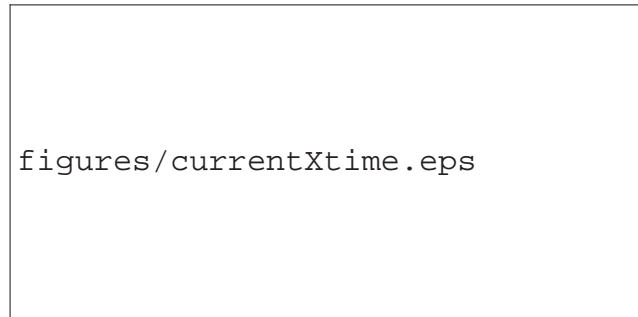


Figure 6.1: *Current per unit time of a set of tasks.*

Thus, the energy consumption is given by:

$$E = V * i * t \quad (6.3)$$

As stated before, a sensor node consists of several components, such as radio, memory, micro-controller, power, and sensors. Each component has a set S of possible states s_1, \dots, s_k . The current consumption will be different for each state. A task will have each component in a specific state. Table 6.1 in the section 6.6 shows the state and current of each BEAN component. The total current of a task will be the summation of each component's current.

Given a set of operation modes, the power consumption of a sensor node will be :

$$\sum_{n=1}^N V * i_n * t_n \quad (6.4)$$

where V is the supply voltage, i_n is the supplied current, in Amperes, for task n , t_n is the execution time in seconds, N is the number of tasks.

Figure 6.1 shows a possible current consumption per unit time for a set of tasks. The total Energy consumption (supposing fixed supply volt) will be:

$$E = V * (i_1 * t_1 + i_2 * t_2 + i_3 * t_3). \quad (6.5)$$

This model assumes that the energy needed to switch between the different states is meaningless (it is already embedded in the execution time factor) and the battery is a perfect energy storage device (eg. recharging capability is not being considered).

Let r be the transmission rate (bits/s). The energy per bit transmission (J/bit) is :

$$E_b = V * i / r \quad (6.6)$$

6.1.1 Battery behavior

In most low-power design designs, as our basic energy model, batteries are implicitly viewed as ideal charge reservoirs, containing a fixed amount of charge, and providing a fixed output voltage until the charge is fully depleted. In reality, batteries are nowhere close to being ideal charge storage units [14]. The main non-idealities of real-life battery cells are:

- Battery output voltage is not constant over a discharge. It drops progressively as the cell discharges and then plummets very rapidly when the charge is exhausted. Because of this fact, batteries cannot be directly connected to electronic circuits, but their output voltage must be shifted and stabilized by feedback-based DC-DC conversion circuitry.
- Capacity depends on the current load. At high currents, the effective capacity (i.e., the total amount of charge that can be extracted from a battery) decreases. Thus, it is important not to assume that the charge can be extracted from a cell at an arbitrarily high rate. Most batteries are in fact rated for maximum discharge current, but at this load level, capacity is significantly degraded.
- Batteries have some (limited) recovery capacity when they are discharged at high current loads. If a battery is discharged at high current for a short period, and then it is allowed some rest time at low load, its output voltage goes up.
- Nominally equal battery cells can have a significant difference in terms of internal resistance, output voltage and discharge curve.

6.1.2 Radio Energy Model

A main characteristic for the radio channel in WSN is the energy consumption in transmit and receive modes. Here a simple radio energy model that is widely used, as for instance [8] [36] [100] [58], is presented.

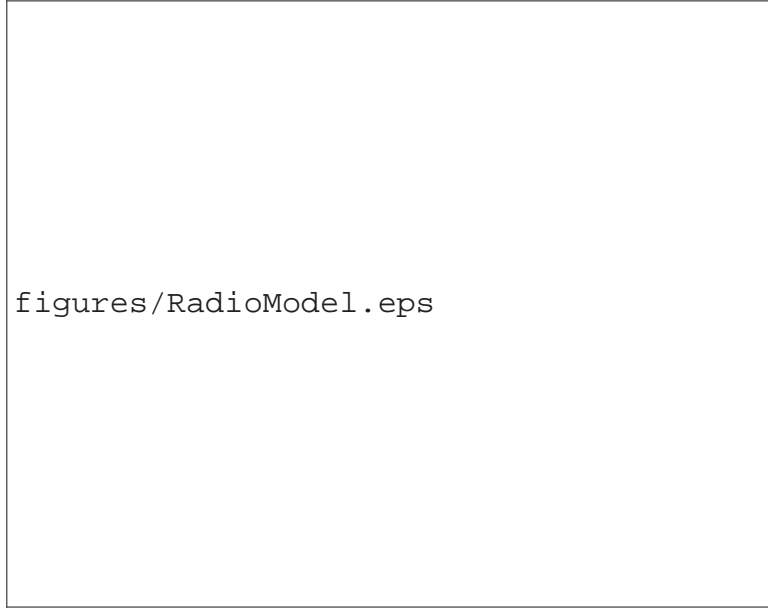


Figure 6.2: *Radio Model.*

The radio consumes $E_{RX-elec}$ (J/bit) to run the receiver circuitry, in other words, to process the receiving bit. In transmission mode, the radio consumes $E_{TX-elec}$ (J/bit) to run the transmitter circuitry, which process the transmitting bit. The radio also dissipates energy with the transmitter amplifier ϵ_{amp} (J/bit/m²). To a distance d , there is the path loss. In the free space model, the path loss increases with the square of the distance [20]. Thus, to transmit k bits at distance d , the radio expends:

$$E_{Tx}(k, d) = E_{TX-elec} * k + \epsilon_{amp} * k * d^2 \quad (6.7)$$

To receive k bits, the radio expends:

$$E_{Rx}(k, d) = E_{RX-elec} * k \quad (6.8)$$

Some models assume $E_{RX-elec} = E_{TX-elec} = E_{elec}$ as depicted in Figure 6.2.

If two sensor nodes are far away from each other, direct communication will require a large amount of transmit power from each node since the distance d is large. A solution is to route the data through intermediate sensor nodes to minimize the transmit amplifier energy. This is called multiple hops. The optimum distance will depend on the E_{elec} and ϵ_{amp} factors.

To simplify the discussion, suppose the radio energy circuitry E_{elec} consumes too little energy and can be neglected. If direct transmitting k bits over a distance d , the consumed energy over a single hop will be:

$$E_{single} = k * \epsilon_{amp} * d^2 \quad (6.9)$$

However, if using two hops of distance $d/2$, the total dissipated energy to transmit k will be:

$$E_{multi} = 2 * k * \epsilon_{amp} * (d/2)^2 = 2 * k * \epsilon_{amp} * d^2 / 4 \quad (6.10)$$

Thus, $E_{multi} = E_{single} / 2$.

The above example illustrates the advantage of using multiples hops since the energy savings is 50%.

6.2 CMOS technology

The MSP430 is an ultra low power MCU that uses CMOS (Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor) technology. This is not a coincidence, since the logic family more suitable for low-power circuits is CMOS. This section describes the power dissipation of CMOS to fulfill our understanding on how to minimize the power consumption. It is based on Tim's book [95].

The power dissipation of a CMOS gate under normal operation is due to three factors: quiescent power dissipation, capacitive power dissipation and transient power dissipation.

Quiescent power dissipation is due to leakage currents in the circuit when it is not switching. It is very small at room temperature, so that in most cases it can be neglected. At high-temperature situations it can, however, contribute significantly to the overall consumption. It is a technology dependent factor.

Capacitive power dissipation P_C is due to the charging and discharging of load and stray capacitances each time a device switches. This load capacitance (C_L) is distributed within the device transistors as well as the external printed circuit board (PCB) tracks. Every time the device swings to logic 1, C_L charge up with $Q = C_L * V_{cc}$. Let f be the switching frequency, so this happens f times per second. Thus, the I_C (charging current) is $I_C = Q * f = C_L * V_{cc} * f$.

Hence, the power P_C is $V_{cc} * I_C = C_L * V_{cc}^2 * f$.

Transient power dissipation, P_T is due to current that flows through both CMOS output transistors

as they are partially turned on during the process of switching. It is given by $P_T = C_{PD} * V_{cc}^2 * f$ Where f is the switching frequency and C_{PD} is a value specified for a particular CMOS IC.

The guidelines for minimizing power consumption in CMOS circuits are:

- Define all inputs clearly as logic 0 or 1;
- Minimize clock frequencies;
- Minimize the power supply voltage;
- Ensure fast logic transitions;
- Minimize load and interconnection capacitances;

6.3 Energy Management Techniques

There are two major power saving schemas, dynamic power management (DPM) [104] and dynamic voltage scheduling (DVS) [70].

The basic idea behind DPM is to shutdown the devices when not needed and get them back when needed. Turning off some components gives good energy savings, but in many cases, it does not know beforehand when to turn on or off a particular device. A solution is a stochastic analysis to predict future events. An embedded operating system that is able to support DPM is also needed. For this approach, the devices should have the states: active, sleep and idle. However, it is important to consider that moving between these operating modes involves a power and latency overhead.

The main idea behind DVS is to change the power to match the workload, avoiding idle cycles. DVS reduces the power consumed by a processor by lowering its operating voltage. By varying the voltage along with the frequency, it is possible to obtain a quadratic reduction in power consumption. The problem is the fact that future workloads are non-deterministic. For this approach, the microcontroller should permit to change its voltage supply and clock. Some works have been using StrongARM SA-1100 MCU since it can vary voltage and frequency from 59MHz/0.79V to 251Mhz/1.65V.

BEAN is capable of using DPM technique because BEAN's MCU and radio can change their operating modes. BEAN may partially apply the DVS technique since it is capable of changing its frequency only but not its supply voltage and software module will be necessary.

6.4 Low Power X Energy-Efficiency

As pointed by Srivastava [57], it is important to differentiate low power from energy-efficiency. Low power is a quality of a device that consumes low energy per clock and energy-efficiency is a device that consumes low energy per operation. For example, ATmega128L @ 4MHz consumes 16.5 mW and ARM Thumb @ 40 MHz consumes 75 mW. But, ATmega128L @ 4MHz efficiency is 242 MIPS/W, spending 4nJ/Instruction and ARM Thumb @ 40 MHz efficiency is 480 MIPS/W, spending only 2.1 nJ/Instruction.

Other examples, taken from [14], are:

- 0.2 nJ/Instruction for Cygnal C8051F300 @ 32KHz, 3.3V
- 0.35 nJ/Instruction for IBM 405LP @ 152 MHz, 1.0V
- 0.5 nJ/Instruction for Cygnal C8051F300 @ 25MHz, 3.3V
- 0.8 nJ/Instruction for TMS320VC5510 @ 200 MHz, 1.5V
- 1.1 nJ/Instruction for Xscale PXA250 @ 400 MHz, 1.3V
- 1.3 nJ/Instruction for IBM 405LP @ 380 MHz, 1.8V
- 1.9 nJ/Instruction for Xscale PXA250 @ 130 MHz, .85V

The energy consumption will be given by:

$$E_{MCU} = \frac{power}{\frac{clockrate}{CPI_{avg}}} = \frac{V * i}{\frac{clockrate}{CPI_{avg}}} \quad (6.11)$$

Using the MSP430 datasheet, V=3.3V, clock rate=7.3Mhz, current =400 μ A, and supposing $CPI_{avg}=2$, we have 0,361nJ/instruction.

Discounting Cygnal C8051F300 due to its slow clock (32KHz) and IBM405LP because it is a PowerPC, BEAN's MCU is the most energy-efficiency microcontroller. In an energetic perspective, MSP430 is an order of magnitude more economic than ATMEGA, strengthening BEAN choice of MCU.

6.5 Memory

The memory device has a down power mode. But, to go to this operating mode, it is necessary to send a command, which spend energy. In this section, we will determine the minimum required time that it is necessary to go to the down mode and also save energy.

The memory standby current is $50\mu\text{A}$. Let t be the total time that memory will be inactive. Let V be the memory supply voltage. Thus, the energy spent at standby mode will be $V * t * 50\mu\text{A}$.

To go to the down mode, it is necessary to send a DP instruction. The DP instruction drains from the memory a current of 4mA and it is 1 byte long. After this, there is a necessary t_{dp} time, that is $3\mu\text{s}$ and the memory current is at standby mode. Then, let t' be the time of inactive at down mode. The memory current at down mode is $10\mu\text{A}$. To go to active mode again, it is necessary to send a RES instruction, which is 1 byte long. After this, there is a waiting time of t_{res} time of $3\mu\text{s}$. Figure 6.3 shows the current consumption of both processes.

We will assume the transmission is at 1MHz per byte (8MHz/bit). The time relation is $t=2*(\text{transmission byte})+t_{dp}+t_{res}+t'$. Thus, $t=8\mu+t'$.

The energy spent at down mode will be: $E_{dm}=(4\text{mA}*1\mu\text{s}+3\mu\text{s}*50\mu\text{A}+t'*10\mu\text{A}+4\text{mA}*1\mu\text{s}+3\mu\text{s}*50\mu\text{A})*V$
 $= (8000+300\mu+10t') \mu*V$.

It is better to go to down mode when the energy spent at down mode is lower than the energy spent at standby mode: $50\mu*t*V \geq (8000+300\mu+10t') \mu*V$

Using the time equation, $t' \approx 200 \text{ s}$. Thus, it is better to go to down mode if the memory will be inactive for at least 200s.

6.6 Power Budget

In this section, we discuss and analyze the power budget for BEAN and compare to Mica2 platform. Table 6.1 shows the current consumption and voltage of the major components of BEAN. The values are taken from datasheets and are estimated.

Assuming the BEAN operates on 3V , the energy budget can be obtained using the formula presented at section 6.1. BEAN will be usually in one of the following states:

- **Down mode** - everything is turned off and the MCU is on the LPM3 operating mode. The current is $10.5\mu\text{A}$ and the power is $31.5\mu\text{W}$.

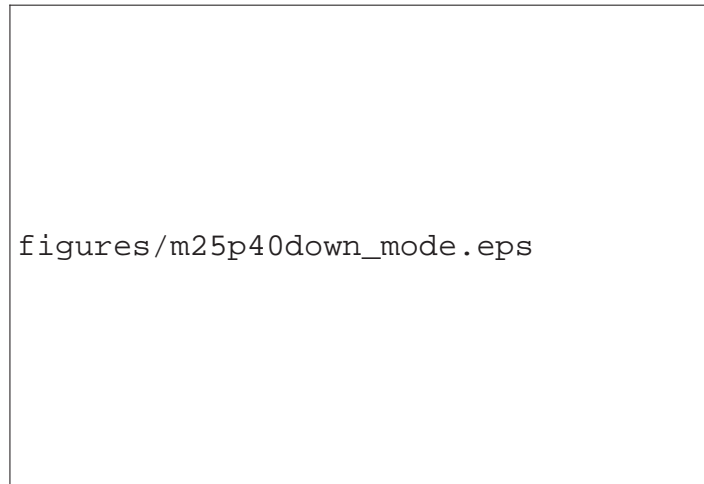


Figure 6.3: *Memory Current Consumption at Standby and Down Mode.*

Microcontroller (1.8-3.6) V			
Down:0.1 μ A	Idle: 1.3 μ A	Active: 400 μ A	
Radio (2.1 - 3.6) V			
Down:0.2uA	Transmit:16.5mA	Receive:9.6mA	
Memory (2.7-3.6)V			
Down:10 μ A	Standby:50 μ A	Read:4mA	Write:15mA
Real-Time Clock (2.5-5.5)V			
0.200 μ A			

Table 6.1: *BEAN Power Budget.*

Microcontroller			
Idle: $8\mu\text{A}$		Active: 6mA	
Radio			
Down: $0.2\mu\text{A}$	Transmit: 16.5mA	Receive: 9.6mA	
Flash Serial Memory (AT45DB041) Max			
Down:	Standby: $20\mu\text{A}$	Read: 10mA	Write: 35mA
Sensor Board			
5mA			

Table 6.2: *Mica2 Power Budget.*

- **Receive mode** - the MCU is on the active mode, the radio is on receive mode and everything else is turned off. The current is 10mA, the power is 30mW.
- **Transmit mode** - the MCU is on the active mode, the radio is on transmit mode and everything else is turned off. The current is 16.9mA, the power is 51mW.
- **Memory reading** - the MCU is on the active mode, the memory is on reading mode and everything else is turned off. The current is 4.4mA, the power is 13.2mW.
- **Memory writing** - the MCU is on the active mode, the memory is on writing mode and everything else is turned off. The current is 15.4mA, the power is 46.2mW.
- **Sensing mode** - the MCU is on the active mode, a specific sensor is on and everything else is turned off. This mode is dependent on which sensor board device is being used.

To know the average power consumption, just multiply the power consumption by the percentage of time in each mode cycle time.

Just for comparison, the BTnode [53] spends 50mW on down mode and 450mW at communication mode. Clearly, BEAN is more economic.

Table 6.2 shows the Mica2 power budget. Mica2 does not have an external Real-Time Clock. The Mica2 power budget includes the sensor board consumption.

To compare the platform, we define two applications examples. In the first scenario, the sensor node will collect, transmit and forward receiving data. It operates for 1% of the time (MCU is on the active mode). In this period, it reads the sensor input, tries to receive packet $\frac{3}{4}$ of this period and transmits in $\frac{1}{4}$ of this period. It never uses the external memory.

In the second scenario, the sensor node acts as a repeater, keeping a log of events. It operates for 1% of the time. In this period, it tries to receive packet $\frac{3}{4}$ of this period and transmits in $\frac{1}{4}$ of this period. It writes to external memory using $\frac{1}{4}$ period and also reads the external memory $\frac{1}{4}$ of the time to save the received packets and keep consistency of data. It does not use the sensors.

Table 6.3 shows the current consumption of the platforms and the two duties cycle scenarios. We will assume the same current consumption for the sensor board since BEAN does not have yet a sensor board and the consumption depends on the sensor device.

	BEAN (mA)	Mica2 (mA)	Scenario 1 (%)	Scenario 2 (%)
Processor				
current (full operation)	0.4	8	1	1
current sleep	0.0013	0.008	99	99
Radio				
current in receive	8	8	0.75	0.75
current transmit	12	12	0.25	0.25
current sleep	0.002	0.002	99	99
Logger Memory (max)				
Write	15	35	0	0.25
Read	4	10	0	0.25
Sleep	0.01	0.02	100	99.5
Sensor Board				
current (full operation)	5	5	1	0
current sleep	0.005	0.005	99	100

Table 6.3: Power budget of BEAN and Mica2.

Table 6.4 shows the values per components of the computed mA-hour of the two scenarios in each platform. The BEAN processor is more economic than the Mica2 processor.

Table 6.5 shows the lifetime (in number of months) for each scenario and platform, depending on the battery type capacity. In scenario 1, using a 300mA-hr, BEAN can collect data for almost 26 months.

Figure 6.4 shows quantitatively the saving percentage of BEAN compared to Mica2 in the two scenarios. BEAN can consume almost 50% less than Mica2. The major savings are due to BEAN processor and external memory.

Computed mA-hr	Example Duty Cycle 1		Example Duty Cycle 2	
	BEAN	Mica2	BEAN	Mica2
Platform				
Processor	0.00529	0.08792	0.00529	0.08792
Radio	0.09198	0.09198	0.09198	0.09198
Logger Memory	0.01	0.02	0.05745	0.1324
Sensor Board	0.05495	0.05495	0.005	0.005
Total current (mA-hr)	0.16222	0.25485	0.15972	0.3173

Table 6.4: *Computed mA-hr.*

Battery Capacity (mA-hr)	Example Duty Cycle 1		Example Duty Cycle 2	
	BEAN	Mica2	BEAN	Mica2
250	2.14	1.36	2.17	1.09
1000	8.56	5.45	8.7	4.38
3000	25.69	16.35	26.09	13.13

Table 6.5: *Months per battery Capacity.*

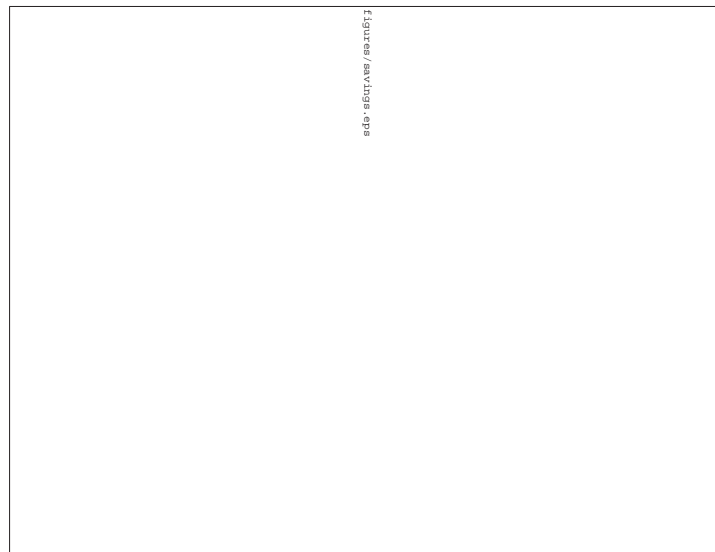


Figure 6.4: *BEAN Savings.*

Chapter 7

Final Considerations

I never think of the future - it comes soon enough.

Albert Einstein

7.1 Conclusion

Wireless sensor networks present fascinating challenges for the application of distributed signal processing and distributed control. These systems challenge the applications of appropriate techniques to construct cheap processing units with sensing nodes considering energy constraints.

We have designed a computer platform, called BEAN, that includes software and hardware components, which is a wireless sensor node prototype. It allows to test and demonstrate energy efficient networking algorithms to be developed in the Sensornet project. This embedded system is capable of performing all tasks of a wireless sensor node with energy, memory, and processing power restrictions. Figure 7.1 shows BEAN PCB with its MCU on it.

We presented the design considerations and components choices, investigating and analyzing some of the architectural challenges posed by these devices like computational power, energy consumption, energy sources, communication channels and sensing capabilities.

In this document, the state-of-the-art for sensor node, including a survey of sensor node platforms and energy management techniques were also discussed.

Many ideas for future work will be also presented indicating that BEAN has more uses and applications. We hope this prototype is the first of a new family of wireless sensor network devices.

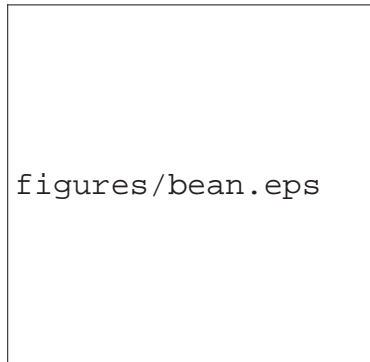


Figure 7.1: *BEAN board*

During the development of this project, we found many difficulties. We also conclude that to program an embedded system is quite different from programming a Personal Computer. The embedded systems developer must direct the tools concerning how to translate the source code for the specific hardware. They must know much more about their development tools and how they work than a desktop developer. For example, the source code is dependent on the compiler. For each different tested compiler, we needed to declare interrupt routines in different ways. The embedded systems developer must know how the system uses memory, what happens at startup, how interrupts and exceptions are handled. To test an embedded system program is usually more complicated than generic PC software.

A desktop programmer usually just needs a compiler, a debugger and an execution environment. This is not true for embedded systems developers. They need more complex and expensive tools like specific compilers, development kit, In-Circuitry Emulator, an interface to on-chip hardware debugging resource, ROM Emulator, logic analyzer and others. The radio development kit also needs an oscilloscope and an spectrum analyzer.

The embedded system developer also faces a dilemma between efficiency and modularity. Although it is desired to have both characteristics, it is not always possible. For example, an interrupt service routine should be as fast and possible. Thus, it does not pass any parameter. The solution is to use global variables, killing your modular design. The key is compromise.

BEAN can consume almost 50% less than the current state-of-the-art Mica2 Mote sensor node. The major savings are due to BEAN processor and external memory. BEAN is very energy-efficient since BEAN's MCU is one of the most energy-efficiency microcontroller, spending about 0,361 nJ/instruction.

Sensor Node	Price (FOB) March 25,2004
Mica2Dot	\$135,00
Mica2	\$190,00
Scatterweb	130,00 €
Telos	\$135,00
Millennial	\$500,00
BEAN	\$70,00

Table 7.1: *Sensor Node Prices.*

We do not compare the size of the sensor nodes because BEAN is a prototype and uses a two layer PCB while Mica2 uses four layer PCB. Besides energy, another advantage of BEAN is the price. The total price of BEAN includes the components and PCB. It is overestimate since some samples were used. Table 7.1 contains the current FOB price for each sensor node. The price does not include the antenna and importation costs. Finally, BEAN does not need a gateway node to be programmed.

BEAN is generic since it has a well-defined expansion bus, being capable of a great number of applications. It just needs a specific sensor board to fit many applications.

BEAN also supports the study of other radio devices since it has a well-defined radio bus.

This project also includes the development of software components, the BEAN_API. It is composed of an application programming interface (API) and the components that implement it. The API is a set of functionalities to control, configure and provide services of the hardware components through a well define interface.

We also presented a basic version of an energy model for a sensor node and BEAN power budget.

7.2 Future Work

Here, we list some new ideas and interesting works, extending this project.

7.2.1 Sensor boards

Since we defined a generic bus for sensing, many sensor boards can be project. Unique sensor board for localization (ultrasound), weather condition (temperature, light, humidity), vibration (accelerometer), can be project and innumerous new applications be support by our sensor node prototype.

Some sensor nodes will have to know their spatial localization. Global Positioning System (GPS) is a navigation system composed of 24 satellites and terrestrial bases. GPS receivers have been miniaturized into integrated circuitry. However, they do not work at indoor locations. It could be used in a more robust sensor node.

Solar panels can be connected to the sensor node, given some external power supply. This can change the design of new wireless sensor network protocols, like the project [103] that proposed and evaluated two protocols that perform solar-aware routing.

7.2.2 Radio

A directional antenna could be added to BEAN design. Omni-directional antennas have 360° degree coverage angle. This approach is simpler but a lot of energy is wasted in this way, since the power is broadcasted towards all directions [88]. A mechanical directional antenna would consume large amount of energy. The solution is to use electronically steerable directional antenna [88]. This approach would save more energy, reduce the probability of detection, lower the interference signals and would need the design of new wireless sensor network protocols.

BEAN allows the development of other radio boards. A great RF work is to extend the radio range. Chipcon [20] suggested using an external LNA (Low-Noise Amplifier) to improve sensitivity and an external PA (Power Amplifier) to increase the output power. The external LA would add only 1mA to the power budget and the external PA would increase the output power to 14dBm (about 1400m). Chipcon suggested using the Philips transistors BFG403W for LNA and BFG425W for PA.

Since Bean is a generic prototype sensor node, it is possible to connect it to other radio's device. An interesting work is to construct a radio board with the CC2420 device. A new radio device driver will also be needed. We called this sensor node BeanZig since it would be compatible with ZigBee standard.

7.2.3 BEAN_API

An interesting work is to design a module that allows a sensor node to self-program. The sensor node could be reprogrammed by air, using the radio module. However, when accessing a flash-memory array for an erase/program operation, the CPU cannot simultaneously execute the code in the flash array. Thus, the MCU cannot execute code and modify its memory contents at the same

time. The problem can be solved coping the erase/program memory into RAM. Interested people should read [64]. The Scatterweb project [82] and XNP component of TinyOS [90] have support for this application. Many new applications, as for example mobile code, would use it.

BEAN needs the development of an entire protocol stack. New protocols for data link, network, transport, application layer needed to be designed. An interesting work is to communicate BEAN with Mica2 since they have the same physical layer.

7.2.4 New Platforms

Construct a board that permits the BEAN to communicate with a PC for data collection and analysis. Two simple solutions are connecting using a RS232 or USB. The RS-232 serial interface would have level converters that allow free connection with PCs or notebooks. A component choice for RS-232 driver and receiver is the st3232. A component choice for USB is FT232BM. The expansion board already support the connection to the UART receive and UART transmit signals that communicate directly to the MCU hardware module. If the PC board uses this option, then, the external memory should not be used.

The technology grows very fast, as stated in Moore's Law, new COTS with increased performance, more memory available, more energetically economical devices are constantly appearing in the market.

Device	Flash(KB)	RAM(KB)	1KU Price March 25,2004
MSP430F1610	32	5	\$8.25
MSP430F1611	48	10	\$8.65
MSP430F1612	55	5	\$8.95

Table 7.2: *MSP430F161x.*

For the future, BEAN may be update. For instance, TI announced that they will produce a new series of MCU. Table 7.2 show the newest microcontrollers and their respective flash size, RAM size, and price per thousand units. The newest device will have up to 10 KB of RAM. The MSP430F1610 is the best option since it will have up to 10 KB of RAM. BEAN was already designed to support this device.

Construct a real-life sensor node, using our design. The debugging interface could be omitted. The components used should be the same. The difference in the project is that an effort at miniaturization

of the layout should be made. More than two layers could be used, using both side of integrated circuit to fix the components.

Bibliography

- [1] H. Abrach, S. Bhatti, J. Carlson, H. Dai, J. Rose, A. Sheth, B. Shucker, J. Deng, and R. Han. Mantis: System support for multimodal networks of in-situ sensors. In *2nd ACM International Workshop on Wireless Sensor Networks and Applications (WSNA)*, pages 50–59, 2003.
- [2] National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). Sensor webs, jet propulsion lab. <http://sensorwebs.jpl.nasa.gov>, March 2004.
- [3] ZigBee Alliance. Zig bee standards. <http://www.zigbee.com>, March 2004.
- [4] R. Amirtharajah, S. Meninger, J.O. Mur-Miranda, A. Chandrakasan, and J. Lang. A micropower programmable dsp powered using a mems-based vibration-to-electric energy converter, 2000.
- [5] Arnold S. Berger. *Embedded Systems Design, An Introduction to Processes, Tools and Techniques*. CMP Books, 2002.
- [6] Michael Barr. Programmable Logic: What's it to Ya? Embedded Systems Programming, June 1999.
- [7] Michael Barr. *Programming Embedded Systems in C and C++*. O Reilly, 1999.
- [8] M. Bhardwaj, A. Chandrakasan, and T. Garnett. Upper Bounds on the Lifetime of Sensor Networks, 2001.
- [9] Edoardo S. Biagioni and Kent Bridges. The application of remote sensor technology to assist the recovery of rare and endangered species. *Special Issue on Distributed Sensor Networks for the International Journal of High Performance Computing Applications*, 16(3), August 2002. <http://www.pods.hawaii.edu/>.

- [10] Bluetooth. The official bluetooth wireless info site. <http://www.bluetooth.com>, March 2004.
- [11] Mobile Info Bluetooth. Mobile Info Bluetooth WebSite. http://www.mobileinfo.com/Bluetooth/how_works.htm, March 2004.
- [12] Stephen Brown and Jonathan Rose. FPGA and CPLD Architectures: A Tutorial. IEEE Design and Test OF Computers, 1996.
- [13] M. Broxton, J. Lifton, D. Seetharam, and J. Paradiso. Pushpin Computing System Overview: a Platform for Distributed, Embedded, Ubiquitous Sensor Networks. In *Pervasive Computing 2002*, August 2002.
- [14] Davide Bruni, Luca Benini, and Bruno Ricc . System lifetime extension by battery management: an experimental work. In *Proceedings of the international conference on Compilers, architecture, and synthesis for embedded systems*, pages 232 – 237, 2002.
- [15] CENS. CENS center for embedded networked sensing. medusa project. http://www.cens.ucla.edu/Project-Descriptions/Sensor_Node_Platforms/, 2004.
- [16] Palo Wireless Resource Center. Palo wireless website. <http://www.palowireless.com>, March 2004.
- [17] Chipcon. SmartRF CC1000 Preliminary Datasheet (rev. 2.1). http://www.chipcon.com/files/CC1000_Data_Sheet_2_1.pdf, 2002.
- [18] Chipcon. SmartRF CC1000PP Plug and Play Module User Manual (Rev 1.22). <http://www.chipcon.com>, February 2003.
- [19] Chipcon. CC2420 Datasheet. <http://www.chipcon.com>, 2004.
- [20] Chipcon. Chipcon Application Note AN020, Remote Keyless Entry Reference Design. <http://www.chipcon.com>, 2004.
- [21] Chipcon. Chipcon corporation. CC1020 low power FSK transceiver. <http://www.chipcon.com>, 2004.

- [22] Continuum Control Corporation. iPower. <http://www.powerofmotion.com>, April 2004.
- [23] Crossbow. Mica2 - wireless measurement system, February 2004. http://www.xbow.com/Products/New_product_overview.htm.
- [24] César Almeida Khouri. Criação de uma canal de rádio frequência para a comunicação de nós sensores em uma rede de sensores sem fio. Technical Report, February 2004.
- [25] Dallas Semiconductor. Application Note 126 1-Wire Communication Through Software. <http://www.maxim-ic.com/>.
- [26] Vinícius Coelho de Almeida, Luiz Filipe Menezes Vieira, Breno Augusto Dias Vitorino, Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira, Antônio Otávio Fernandes, Diógenes Cecilio da Silva Jr., and Claudionor Nunes Coelho. Microkernel for nodes of wireless sensor networks. In *Poster session of the Student Forum SBCCI, Chip in Sampa 2003*, São Paulo, Brasil, September 2003.
- [27] Analog Devices. Tmp35/tmp36/tmp37 low voltage temperature sensors data sheet. <http://www.analog.com>.
- [28] DS2417 Datasheet. DS2417 1-Wire Time Chip with Interrupt. <http://www.maxim-ic.com/>.
- [29] S. Dulman and P. Havinga. Operating system fundamental for the eyes distributed sensor network. In *Progress 2002, Utrecht - Netherlands*, October 2002.
- [30] EAGLE. EAGLE Layout Editor. <http://www.cadsoft.de/>, March 2004.
- [31] EM MicroElectronics. Em microelectronics website. <http://www.emmarin.com>, March 2004.
- [32] Ember Embedded RF. Ember Embedded RF - Wireless Sensor Networks. <http://www.ember.net>, March 2004.
- [33] Deborah Estrin, Ramesh Govindan, John Heidemann, and Satish Kumar. Next century challenges: scalable coordination in sensor networks. In *Proceedings of the 5th annual ACM/IEEE international conference on Mobile computing and networking*, pages 263–270. ACM Press, 1999.

- [34] K. A. Delin et. al. Sensor web in antarctica: Developing an intelligent, autonomous platform for locating biological flourishes in cryogenic environments. 34th Lunar and Planetary Science Conference, March 2003.
- [35] Harding Energy,Inc. Nickel metal hydride batteries handbook, section 3. <http://www.hardingenergy.com>, March 2004.
- [36] W. Heinzelman, A. Chandrakasan, and H. Balakrishnan. Energy-efficient communication protocol for wireless microsensor networks. In Proceedings of the Hawaii Conference on System Sciences, January 2000.
- [37] Hi-Tech Software. Hi-Tide C-Compiler. <http://www.htsoft.com/>, March 2004.
- [38] Jason Hill. A software architecture supporting networked sensors. Master's thesis, University of California, Berkeley, December 2000.
- [39] Jason Hill. Spec Node. <http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~jhill/spec/index.htm>, March 2004.
- [40] S. Hollar. Cots dust. Master's thesis, University of California at Berkeley, 2000.
- [41] S. Hollar, A. Flynn, C. Bellew, and K.S.J. Pister. Solar powered 10mg silicon robot, January 2003.
- [42] IAR. Iar system. <http://www.iar.com>, March 2004.
- [43] IEEE Standards Association. IEEE Standards. <http://standards.ieee.org>, March 2004.
- [44] Imagecraft C embedded Development Tools. Icc430. <http://www.imagecraft.com/software/>, March 2004.
- [45] Texas Instruments. MSP430 Data Sheet. <http://wws.ti.com/sc/psheets/slas272c/slas272c.pdf>, 2001.
- [46] Texas Instruments. Mixed Signal Microcontroller (Rev. E). <http://www-s.ti.com/sc/ds/msp430f169.pdf>, 2003.

- [47] Chalermek Intanagonwiwat, Ramesh Govindan, and Deborah Estrin. Directed diffusion: a scalable and robust communication paradigm for sensor networks. In *Proceedings of the 6th annual international conference on Mobile computing and networking*, pages 56–67. ACM Press, 2000.
- [48] Jaein Jeong. DOT3 radio stack. Network Embedded Systems Technology Winter Retreat, 2003.
- [49] John Anthes. OOK, ASK and FSK Modulation in the Presence of an Interfering signal. Application Report for RF Monolithics, March 2004.
- [50] Kahan, J. M. and Pister, K. S. J. Next Century Challenges: Mobile Networking for Smart Dust. Technical report, University of California - Berkeley, Dept. of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, 2001.
- [51] Sukun Kim. Structural health monitoring of the golden gate bridge. <http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~binetude/ggb/>, January 2004.
- [52] John Lach, David Evans, Jon McCune, and Jason Brandon. Power-efficient adaptable wireless sensor networks. Military and Aerospace Programmable Logic Devices (MAPLD) International Conference, September 2003.
- [53] Martin Leopold, Mads Bondo Dydensborg, and Philippe Bonnet. Bluetooth and Sensor Networks: a Reality Check. In *Proceedings of the first international conference on Embedded networked sensor systems*, pages 103 – 113, 2003.
- [54] Joshua Lifton, Deva Seetharam, Margo Seltzer, and Joseph Paradiso. Bertha: The os for push-pin computers. Technical report, MIT Media Lab, May 2002.
- [55] Linnyer Beatrys Ruiz. *MANNA: Uma Arquitetura para o Gerenciamento de Redes de Sensores Sem Fio*. Ph.D. Thesis, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, December 2003.
- [56] I. Locher, S. Park, M.B. Srivastava, A. Chen, R.R. Muntz, and S. Yuen. Design of a wearable sensor badge for smart kindergarten. In *Proceedings of the 6th International Symposium on Wearable Computers*, 2002.

- [57] Mani Srivastava. Sensor node platforms & energy issues. Mobicom, Tutorial 2, 2002.
- [58] D. Maniezzo, K. Yao, and G. Mazzini. Energetic trade-off between computing and communication resource in multimedia surveillance sensor network. In *4th International Workshop on Mobile and Wireless Communications Networks*, pages 373–376, Stockholm Sweden, September 2002.
- [59] Brian Merritt. I2C Interfacing of the MSP430 to a 24xx Series EEPROM. <http://www.ti.com>, December 2000.
- [60] St microelectronics. M25P40 Data Sheet. <http://www.st.com>, 2002.
- [61] Millennial Net. Millennial net - wireless sensor networks, February 2004. <http://www.millennial.net>.
- [62] Mspgcc. Gcc toolchain for msp430. <http://mspgcc.sourceforge.net>, March 2004.
- [63] μ AMPS. μ Adaptive Multi-Domain Power Aware Sensors. <http://www-mtl.mit.edu/research/icsystems/uamps/>, March 2002.
- [64] Anton Muehlhofer. Application Report slaa103, MSP430 Flash Self-Programming Technique. <http://www.ti.com>, November 2000.
- [65] Job Mulder. Peeros preemptive eyes real time operating system. Technical report, University of Twente, April 2003.
- [66] National Science Foundation. Report of the National Science Foundation Workshop on Fundamental Research in Networking. <http://www.cs.virginia.edu/~jorg/workshop1>, April 2003.
- [67] University of Colorado at Boulder. Mantis: Multimodal networks of in-situ sensors. <http://mantis.cs.colorado.edu>.
- [68] P. Lettieri and M. Srivastava. *Advances in Wireless Terminals*, February 1999.
- [69] Sung Park and Mani B. Srivastava. Dynamic battery state aware approaches for improving battery utilization. In *International Conference on Compilers, Architectures and Synthesis for Embedded Systems*, pages 225 – 231, 2002.

- [70] Padmanabhan Pillai and Kang G. Shin. Real-time dynamic voltage scaling for low-power embedded operating systems. In *ACM Symposium on Operating Systems Principles*, pages 89–102, 2001.
- [71] Joseph Polastre. Design and implementation of wireless sensor networks for habitat monitoring. Master's thesis, University of California at Berkeley, 2003.
- [72] Quadravox. AQ430 Development Tools. <http://www.quadravox.com/AQ430.htm>, March 2004.
- [73] J. Rabaey, J. Ammer, J.L. da Silva Jr., and D. Patel. Pico-radio: ad-hoc wireless networking of ubiquitous low-energy sensor/monitor nodes. *Proceedings of the IEEE Computer Society Annual Workshop on VLSI (WVLSI'00)*, pages 9–12, April 2000.
- [74] Jan M. Rabaey, M. Josie Ammer, Julio L. da Silva, Danny Patel, and Shad Roundy. Picoradio supports ad hoc ultra-low power wireless networking. *Computer*, 33(7):42–48, 2000.
- [75] Vijay Raghunathan, Curt Schurgers, Sung Park, and Mani B. Srivastava. Energy-aware wireless microsensor networks. In *IEEE SIGNAL PROCESSING MAGAZINE*, March 2002.
- [76] RFM Monolithics. ASH Transceiver. <http://www.rfm.com>, 2004.
- [77] Tod Riedel. Power considerations for wireless sensor networks. <http://www.sensorsmag.com/articles/0304/38/>, March 2004.
- [78] Rowley Associates. CrossWorks for MSP430. <http://www.rowley.co.uk>, March 2004.
- [79] Linnyer Beatrys Ruiz, Luiz Henrique Correia, Luiz Filipe Menezes Vieira, Daniel F. Macedo, Eduardo Nakamura, Carlos Mauricio Figueiredo, Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira, Eduardo Habib Mechelane, Daniel Camara, Antonio Alfredo Ferreira Loureiro, José Marcos Nogueira, and Diógenes Cecilio da Silva Jr. Arquitetura para redes de sensores sem fio. *Minicurso, XXII Congresso da SBC*, May 2004.
- [80] Linnyer Beatrys Ruiz, José Marcos Nogueira, and Antonio A. F. Loureiro. Manna: A management architecture for wireless sensor networks. In *IEEE Communication Magazine*, volume 41, February 2003.

- [81] Sam Madden and Wei Hong and Rob Szewczyk. TASK in Redwood Trees. <http://today.cs.berkeley.edu/retreat-1-04/>, January 2004.
- [82] ScatterWeb Project. Scatterweb WebSite. <http://www.scatterweb.com>, March 2004.
- [83] Loren Schwiebert, Sandeep K. S. Gupta, and Jennifer Weinmann. Research challenge in wireless networks of biomedical sensors. In *Mobile Computing and Networking*, pages 151–165, 2001.
- [84] National Semiconductor. Lmx3162 single chip radio transceiver datasheet.
- [85] SensorNet. Sensornet project website. <http://www.sensornet.dcc.ufmg.br/index.html>, March 2004.
- [86] MicroStrain Microminiature Sensors. V-link analog input datalogging transceiver. <http://www.microstrain.com>.
- [87] SoftBaugh, Inc. Softbaugh. <http://www.softbaugh.com/>, March 2004.
- [88] A. Spyropoulos and C. Raghavendra. "energy efficient communications in ad hoc networks using directional antennas". in Proceedings of IEEE INFOCOM '02, June 2002.
- [89] Willian Stallings. *Wireless Communications and Networks*. Prentice Hall, 2002.
- [90] Berkeley WEBS: Wireless Embedded Systems. Tinyos website. <http://www.tinyos.net>.
- [91] AGILENT TECHNOLOGIES. 83f8851 datasheet.
- [92] Telos. Telos wireless sensor node. <http://www.moteiv.com/info.php>, March 2004.
- [93] Texas Instruments. MSP430x1xx Family User's Guide. <http://www-s.ti.com/sc/p sheets/slau049d/slau049d.pdf>, 2004.
- [94] Texas Instruments. <http://wwws.ti.com>, March 2004.
- [95] Tim Wilmshurst. *An introduction to the design of small-scale embedded systems*. Palgrave, 2001.

- [96] K. H. Torvmark. Chipcon Application Note AN009,CC1000CC1050 Microcontroller interfacing. <http://www.chipcon.com>, October 2002.
- [97] Luiz Filipe Menezes Vieira. Middleware para Sistema Embutidos e Redes de Sensores. Master's thesis, Departamento de Ciência da Computação, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte-MG, Brasil, April 2004.
- [98] Luiz Filipe Menezes Vieira, Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira, Linnyer Beatrys Ruiz, Antonio Alfredo Ferreira Loureiro, Antônio Otávio Fernandes, Diógenes Cecilio da Silva Jr., and José Marcos S. Nogueira. Efficient incremental sensor network deployment algorithm. In *XXII Simpósio Brasileiro de Redes de Computadores (SBRC)*, Gramado-RS, Brasil, May 2004.
- [99] Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira, Diógenes Cecilio da Silva Jr., and Claudionor Nunes Coelho. Survey on Wireless Sensor Network Devices. *IEEE International Conference on Emerging Technologies and Factory Automation (ETFA) 2003*, September 2003.
- [100] Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira, Luiz Filipe Menezes Vieira, Antonio Alfredo Ferreira Loureiro, Antônio Otávio Fernandes Linnyer Beatrys Ruiz and, Diógenes Cecilio da Silva Jr., and José Marcos S. Nogueira. Como obter o mapa de energia em rede de sensores sem fio? uma abordagem tolerante a falhas. In *Workshop Comunicacao Sem Fio*, São Lourenço-MG, October 2003.
- [101] Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira, Luiz Filipe Menezes Vieira, Antonio Alfredo Ferreira Loureiro, Antônio Otávio Fernandes Linnyer Beatrys Ruiz and, Diógenes Cecilio da Silva Jr., and José Marcos S. Nogueira. Scheduling nodes in wireless sensor network: A voronoi approach. In *The 28th Annual IEEE Conference on Local Computer Networks (LCN)*, Bonn/Königswinter, Alemanha, September 2003.
- [102] Breno Augusto Dias Vitorino, Luiz Filipe Menezes Vieira, Vinícius Coelho de Almeida, Marcos Augusto Menezes Vieira, Antônio Otávio Fernandes, Diógenes Cecilio da Silva Jr., and Claudionor Nunes Coelho. Middleware for wireless sensor networks. In *Poster session of the Student Forum SBCCI, Chip in Sampa 2003*, São Paulo, Brasil, September 2003.

-
- [103] Thiemo Voigt, Hartmut Ritter, and Jochen Schiller. Utilizing solar power in wireless sensor networks. In *The 28th Annual IEEE Conference on Local Computer Networks (LCN)*, Bonn/Königswinter, Alemanha, September 2003.
- [104] A. Wang and A. Chandrakasan. Energy efficient system partitioning for distributed wireless sensor networks, May 2001.
- [105] Erik Welsh, Walt Fish, and J. Patrick Frantz. Gnoms: A testbed for low power heterogeneous wireless sensor networks. <http://cmclab.rice.edu/sensors>, May 2003.
- [106] WINS. Wireless integrated network sensors. <http://www.janet.ucla.edu/WINS>, March 2004.
- [107] Xilinx. Xilinx: Programmable Logic Devices, FPGA & CPLD. <http://www.xilinx.com/>, March 2004.

Appendix A

Schematic

The BEAN project used the layout tool Eagle [30].

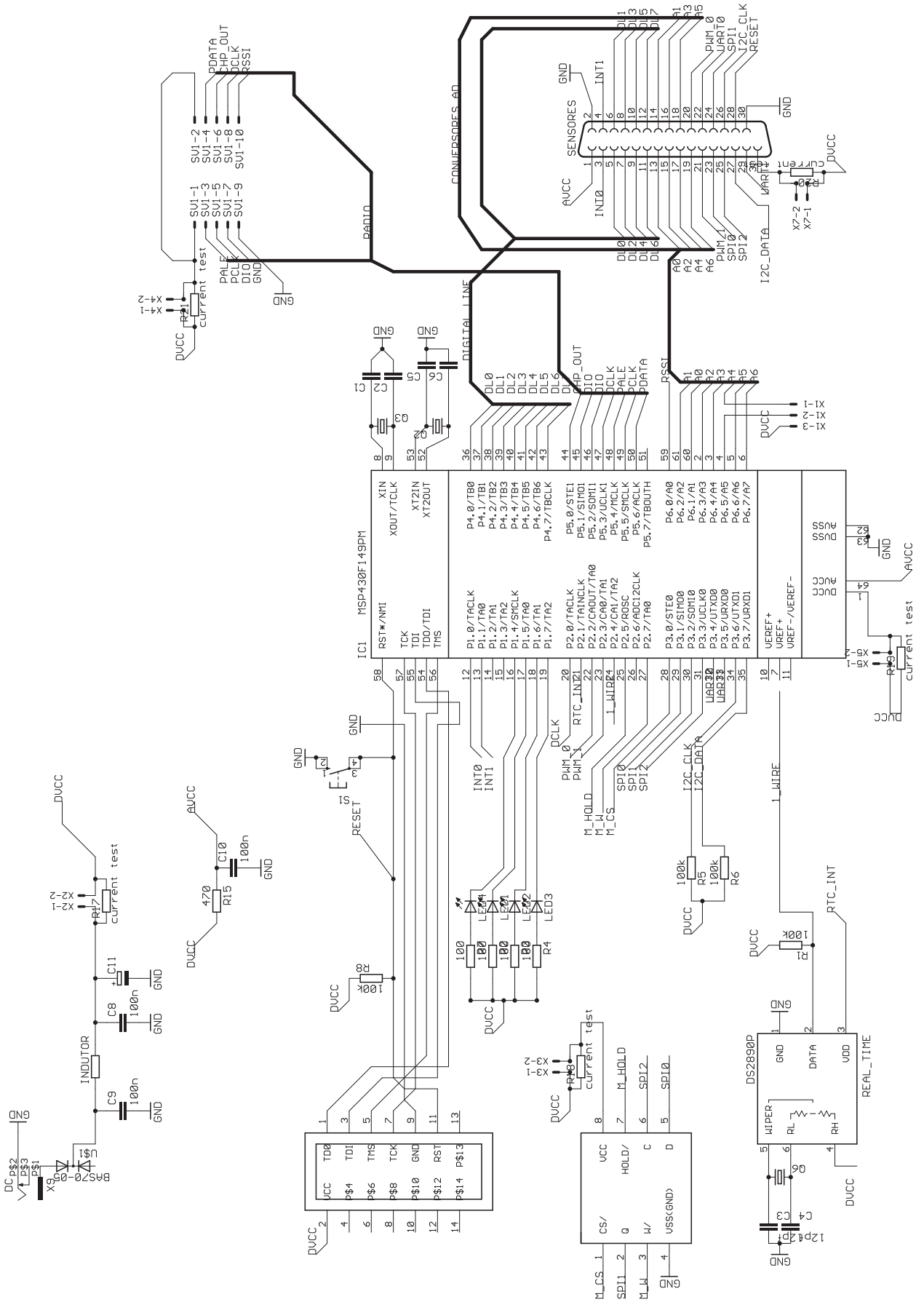


Figure A.1: BEAN Schematic

Appendix B

Layout

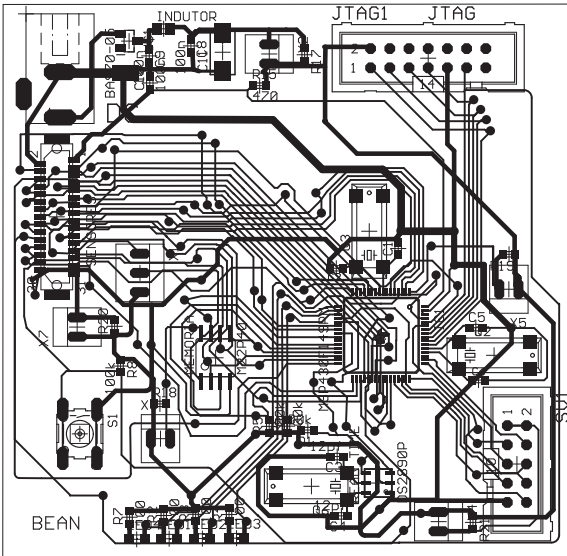


Figure B.1: All BEAN Components Layout

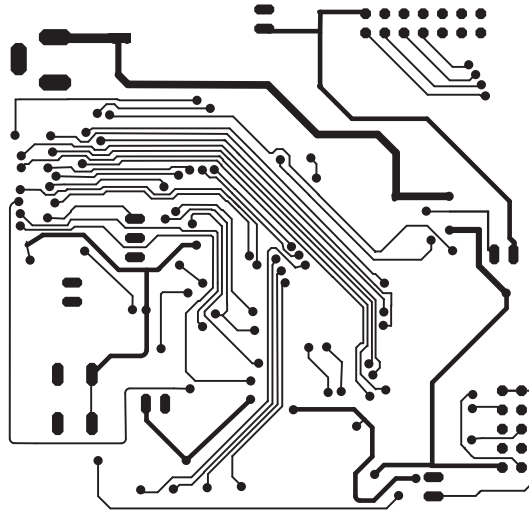


Figure B.2: *BEAN Bottom Layout*

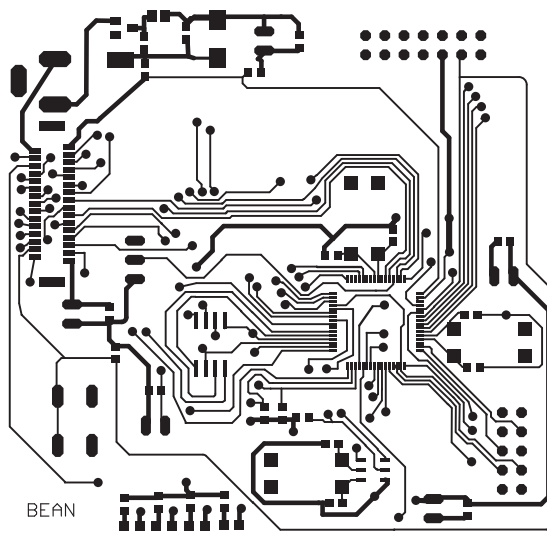


Figure B.3: *BEAN Top Layout*

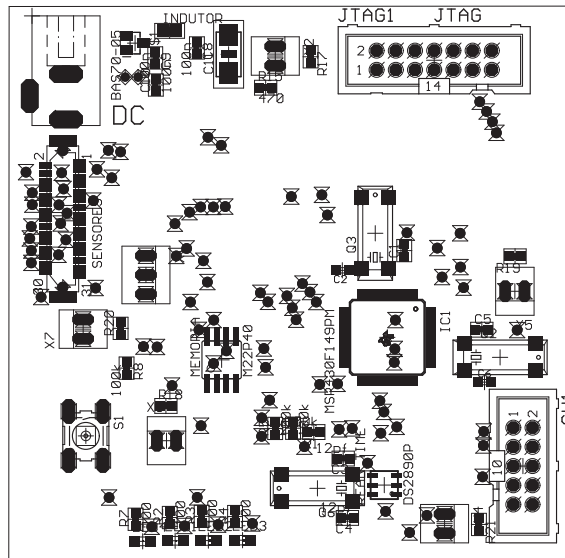


Figure B.4: BEAN Components Layout

Appendix C

API

C.1 Clock

```
void delay(word ticks);
```

```
void short_Delay(word ticks);
```

C.2 LED

```
void led_init();
```

```
byte led_get_num_leds();
```

```
void led_on(byte led);
```

```
void led_off(byte led);
```

```
void led_toggle(byte led);
```

```
void led_display(byte display_value);
```

C.3 Memory

```
void EEPROM_Disable(void);
```

```
void EEPROM_Init(void);
```

```
void EEPROM_Instr(byte instr);  
byte EEPROM_Get_Status(void);  
void EEPROM_Set_Status(byte s);  
void EEPROM_Write(dword address, byte *buf, word length);  
void EEPROM_Erase(dword address);  
void OSP_EEPROM_Bulkerase(void);
```

C.4 1-Wire

```
unsigned char OWTouchReset(void);  
void OWWriteBit(unsigned char bit);  
unsigned char OWReadBit(void);  
void OWWriteByte(unsigned char data);  
unsigned char OWReadByte(void);  
unsigned char OWTouchByte(unsigned char data);  
void OWBlock(unsigned char *data, unsigned int data_len);  
id_t get_1wire_addr(void);  
clock_t readClock(void);  
void setClock(const clock_ptr clock);  
void enableClock();  
void disableClock();  
unsigned char isClockEnable();
```

```
void usDelay(unsigned int no_of_usec);
```

C.5 Radio

```
void rf_init(queue_ptr rx,queue_ptr tx,byte freq);
```

```
void rf_set_mode(byte mode);
```

```
byte rf_recv();
```

```
void rf_send(byte data);
```

```
void rf_send_byte(byte data);
```

```
void rf_set_power(byte powerLevel);
```

```
byte rf_get_power();
```

```
void rf_set_freq(byte newFreq);
```

```
byte rf_get_freq();
```

C.6 SPI

```
void spi_radio_system_init();
```

```
void spi_radio_init();
```

```
void spi_radio_rxmode();
```

```
void spi_radio_txmode();
```

```
void spi_radio_send(byte data);
```

```
byte spi_radio_recv();
```

```
void send_string_using_tx_int(char *s);
```

C.7 Queue

```
void queue_Init(queue_ptr q,byte* buffer,byte max_size);
```

```
BOOLEAN queue_Empty(queue_ptr q);
```

```
BOOLEAN queue_Full(queue_ptr q);
```

```
BOOLEAN queue_Enqueue(queue_ptr q, byte d);
```

```
byte queue_Dequeue(queue_ptr q);
```

Appendix D

Radio Board

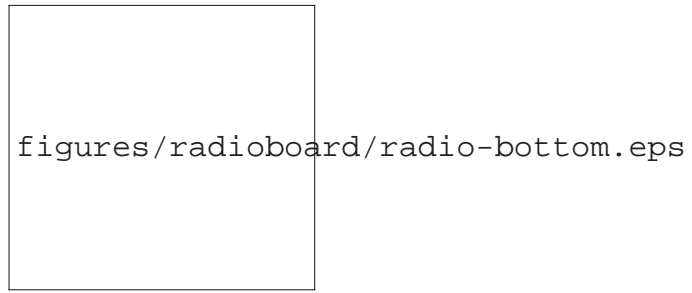


Figure D.1: *Radio Board Bottom Layout*

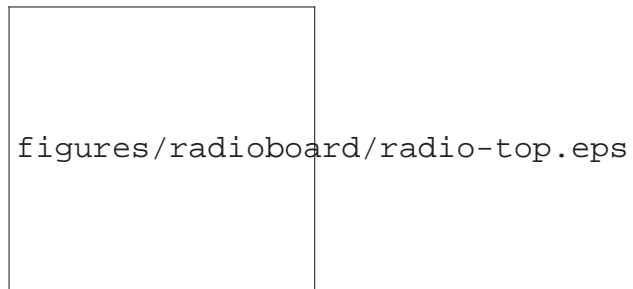


Figure D.2: *Radio Board Top Layout*

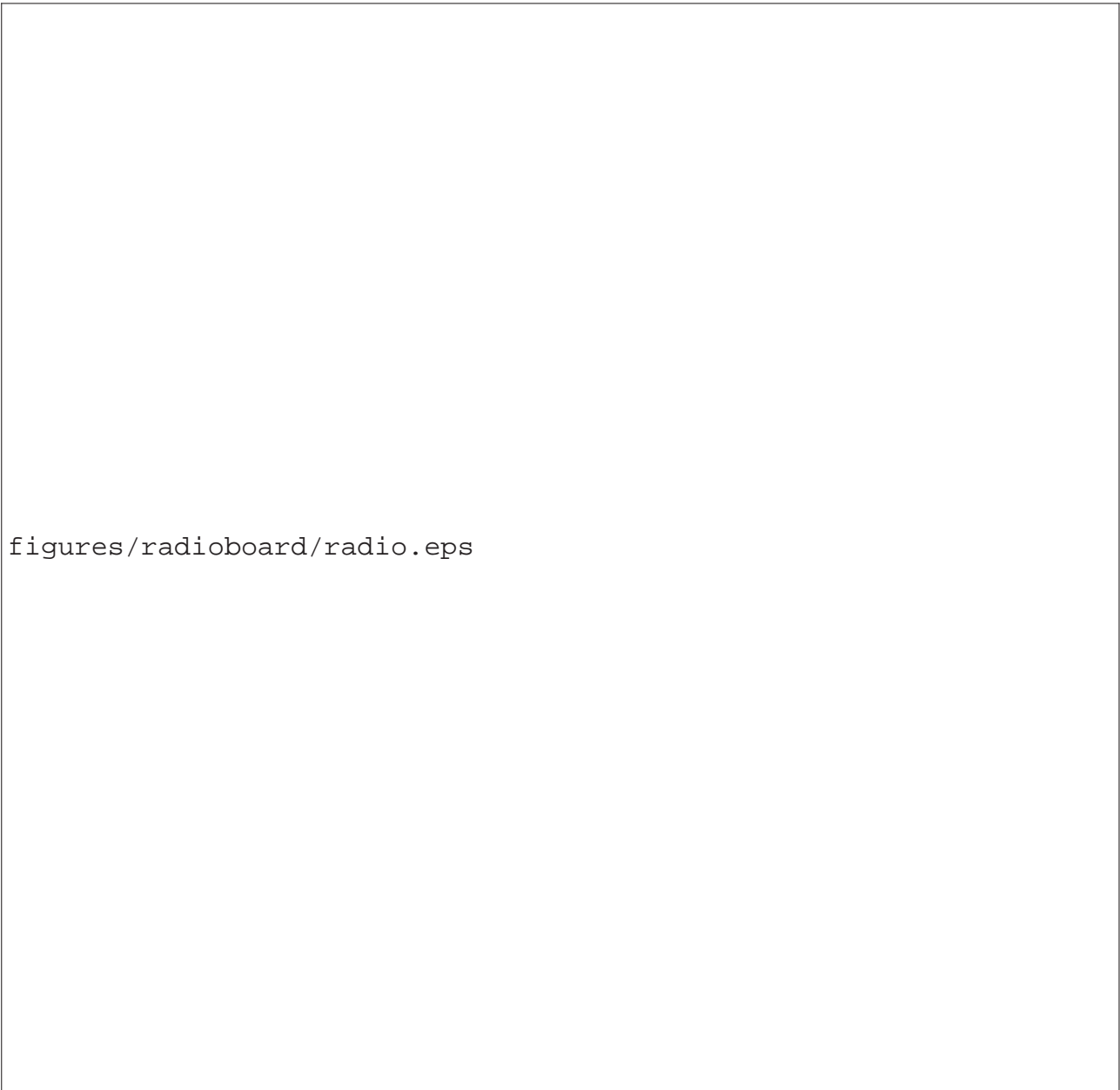


Figure D.3: *Radio Board Schematic Layout*

Appendix E

Bill of Materials

Radio Board		
DigiKey number	Description	Price Unit
Inductor		\$ (March 25,2004)
TKS2362CT-ND	INDUCTOR 2.7NH LL TYPE SMD	0,9
TKS2365CT-ND	INDUCTOR 4.7NH LL TYPE SMD	0,75
TKS2366CT-ND	INDUCTOR 5.6NH LL TYPE SMD	0,75
PCD1173CT-ND	INDUCTOR .12UH 5% FIXED SMD	0,93
490-1015-1-ND	FERRITE CHIP 1000 OHM 100MA 0603	0,0375
Resitors		
311-27.0KHCT-ND	RES 27.0K OHM 1/10W 1% 0603 SMD	0,414
RR08P82.0KDCT-ND	RES 82.0K OHM 1/16W .5% 0603 SMD	0,151
Crystal		
300-6131-1-ND	CRYSTAL 14.7456 MHZ SMT 18PF	0,975
Capacitors		
399-3100-1-ND	CAPACITOR TANT 3.3UF 35V 20% SMD	0,49
PCC100CVCT-ND	CAP 10PF 50V CERAMIC 0603 SMD	0,067
PCC120ACVCT-ND	CAP CERAMIC 12PF 50V 0603 SMD	0,067
PCC180ACVCT-ND	CAP CERAMIC 18PF 50V 0603 SMD	0,067
PCC102BVCT-ND	CAP 1000PF 50V CERAMIC 0603 SMD	0,087
PCC220ACVCT-ND	CAP CERAMIC 22PF 50V 0603 SMD	0,048
PCC331ACVCT-ND	CAP CERAMIC 330PF 50V 0603 SMD	0,108
PCC2284CT-ND	CAP .033UF 50V CERAMIC X7R 0603	0,089
478-1159-1-ND	CAP CERM 4.7PF 50V NP0 0603	0,209
478-1161-1-ND	CAP CERM 6.8PF 50V NP0 0603	0,209
478-1162-1-ND	CAP CERM 8.2PF 50V NP0 0603	0,209
Transceiver		
	Single Chip transceiver CC1000	5
Connector		
a26714-nd	Radio - CONNECTOR HEADER VERT .100 10POS 30AU	1,65
Total		13,208

Table E.1: Radio Board Components

BEAN board Component	Digikey-number	Description	Price unit \$ (March 25,2004)
Radio receptacle connector	a26486-nd	CONN RECEPT 10POS .100 VERT DUAL	1,170
Sensor-hirose connector	h2161-nd	CONN RECEPT 31POS 1MM SMD TIN	1,790
Sensor-hirose connector	h2173-nd	CONN HEADER 31POS 1MM SMD TIN	2,260
JTAG Connector 14pins	A26720-ND	CONN HEADER VERT .100 14POS 30AU	2,160
Crystal 32KHz	300-2066-1-ND	CRYSTAL 32.768 KHZ 6PF SMD	0,690
Crystal 8Mhz	300-6117-1-nd	CRYSTAL 8.000 MHZ SMT 18PF	1,130
Memory M25P40-VMN6T	497-1624-1-ND	IC SRL FLASH 4MBIT 3.6V 8-SOIC	3,510
RTC	DS2417P-ND	IC TIMECHIP W/INTRPT 1WIRE 6TSOC	2,700
MSP430F169	296-16842-ND	IC MCU 16BIT 60K FLASH 64-LQFP	13,000
Molex 22-23-2021	WM4200-ND	CONN HEADER 2POS .100 VERT TIN	0,270
	wm2200-nd	CONN TERM FEMALE 22-30AWG TIN	0,067
	wm2601-nd	CONN HOUSING 2POS .100 HI PRESS	0,190
	A26242-ND	SHUNT LP W/HANDLE 2 POS 30AU	0,116
Capacitors			
3u3	pct1335ct-nd	CAPACITOR 3.3UF/6.3V TEH SER SMD	0,470
100n	pcc2277ct-nd	CAP .1UF 25V CERAMIC X7R 0603	0,046
10u	pct2106ct-nd	CAPACITOR 10UF/10V TEH SER SMD	1,100
Resistors			
100	311-100GCT-ND	RES 100 OHM 1/10W 5% 0603 SMD	0,038
10k	311-10KGCT-ND	RES 10K OHM 1/10W 5% 0603 SMD	0,038
470	311-470GCT-ND	RES 470 OHM 1/10W 5% 0603 SMD	0,038
100k	311-100GCT-ND	RES 100 OHM 1/10W 5% 0603 SMD	0,038
Resistor shunt	RR08Q10DCT-nd	RES 10 OHM 1/16W .5% 0603 SMD	0,081
Inductor			
Ferrite	240-1035-1-ND	FERRITE 1.5A 40 OHM 0805 SMD	0,215
Discretes			
Diodo Schotky	bat54fsct-nd	DIODE SCHOTTKY 30V 200MA SOT-23	0,151
power conector	cp-102b-nd	CONN POWER JACK 2.5MM PCB CIRC	0,330
reset button	SW400-ND	SWITCH TACT 6MM MOM 100GF	0,200
Led			
Led Orange	404-1019-1-ND	LED ORANGE 0805 SMD	0,177
Led Red	404-1017-1-ND	LED RED 0805 SMD	0,189
Led Green	404-1021-1-ND	LED GREEN 0805 SMD	0,165
Led Yellow	404-1019-1-ND	LED YELLOW 0805 SMD	0,170
Total			32,498

Table E.2: Bean Components

Appendix F

Glossary

ACLK	Auxiliary clock
ADC	Analog to Digital Converter
AGC	Automatic Gain Control
AM	Active Mode
API	Application Programming Interface
ASK	Amplitude Shift Key
BEAN	Brazilian Energy-Efficient Architectural Node
CCR	Corner-Cube-Reflectors
CMOS	Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor
COTS	Component Off-The-Shelf
CPLD	Complex Programmable Logic Device
CRC	Cyclic Redundancy Check
DAC	Digital to Analog Converter
DCLK	Data Clock
DCO	Digitally Controlled Oscillator
DCT	Digital Cordless Telephone
DIO	Data Input/Output
DP	Deep Power-down
DPM	Dynamic Power Management
DVS	Dynamic Voltage Scheduling
EPROM	Erasable and Programmable ROM

EEPROM	Electrically Erasable Programmable ROM
ESB	Embedded Sensor Board
EW	Embedded Workbench
FET	Flash Emulation Tool
FOB	Free On Board
FPGA	Field-Programmable Gate Array
FSK	Frequency Shift Key
GFSK	Gaussian Frequency Shift Key
GND	Ground
GNOMES	Generalized Network Of Miniature Environmental Sensor
GPS	Global Positioning System
I2C	Inter-Integrated Circuit
IC	Integrated Circuit
IDE	Integrated Development Environment
I/O	Input / Output
ISM	Industrial Scientific and Medical
JPL	Jet Propulsion Laboratory
JTAG	Joint Test Action Group IEEE1149.1
LED	Light Emitting Diode
LNA	Low-Noise Amplifier
LOS	Line of Sight
LPM	Low-Power Mode
MAC	Medium Access Control
μ AMPS	Micro-Adaptive Multi-Domain Power-Aware Sensors
MANTIS	Multimodal Networks of In-situ Sensors
MCLK	Main clock
MCU	Microcontroller Control Unit
MEMS	Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems
MIPS	Million Instruction Per Second
MISO	Master In Slave Out
MOSI	Master Out Slave In

NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NiMH	Nickel Metal Hydride
NRZ	Non-Return to Zero
OOK	On/Off key
O-QPSK	Offset-Quadrature Phase Shift Keying
PA	Power Amplifier
PAL	Programmable Array Logic
PALE	Programming Address Latch Enabled
PCB	Printed Circuit Board
PCLK	Programming Clock
PDATA	Programming Data
PHY	Physical Layer
PLL	Phase Locked Loop
PP	Page Program
PWM	Pulse-Width Modulation
RAM	Random Access Memory
RDSR	Read Status Register
RES	Read Electronic Signature
RF	Radio Frequency
RFID	Radio Frequency Identification
ROM	Read Only Memory
RTC	Real Time Clock
RSSI	Receive Signal Strength Indicator
RX	Receive
SCK	Serial Clock
SE	Sector Erase
SIMO	Slave In Master Out
SMCLK	Sub-Main Clock
SMS	Short Messages Service
SOF	Start-Of-Frame
SOI	Silicon-on-insulator

SOMI	Slave Out Master In
SPI	Serial Peripheral Interface
SS	Slave select
TDMA	Time Division Multiple Access
TPU	Time Processing Unit
TX	Transmit
UART	Universal Asynchronous Receiver/Transmitter
USART	Universal Synchronous/Asynchronous Receiver/Transmitter
VCO	Voltage Controlled Oscillator
WRDI	Write Disable
WREN	Write Enable
WRSR	Write Status Register
WSN	Wireless sensor network
YATOS	Yet Another Tiny Operating System