Computer Networks II

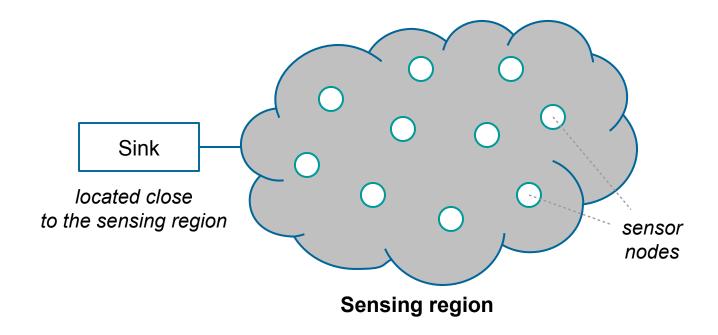
Ch.5
Wireless Sensor Networks
and the
Internet of Things

(bruno.quoitin@umons.ac.be)

- 4. 1 Motivations
- 4.2 Sensor Node
- 4.3 Network Architecture
- 4.4 MAC Layer
- 4.5 Network Layer
- 4.6 Transport and Application Layers
- 4.7 IP for WSN ?
- 4.8 Programming Model / RTOS

Tentative Definition

- * Large number of low-cost, low-power, multifunctional sensor nodes deployed in a region of interest [Zheng & Jamalipour, 2009]
- Nodes have processing and communication capabilities
- Nodes collaborate to accomplish a common task



Typical Applications

LV-45 Linear sensor railroad bridge Alliance Sensors (2015)

Honeywell (30/11/10)



Monitoring, Tracking

- Civil engineering infrastructures
- * Agriculture, forests, rivers, oceans
- Logistics: real-time tracking and status
- Power grid ("smart grid")

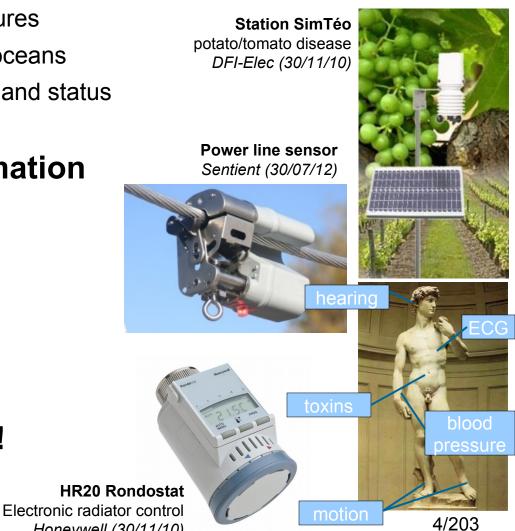
Home & building automation

Lighting, HVAC, security, ...

Body area networks

- * e-Health
- Wearable computing (watches, glasses, ...)

No single WSN device!



Internet of Things (IoT)

Federate as a single network...

- ... physical objects embedding computing and communication resources (traditional computers, smartphones, WSN, ...)
- diverse communication speeds, access to energy, processing resources
- avoid protocol specific gateways

Predictions

- **5.10**¹⁰ **IoT nodes in 2020** [Ericsson, 2009]
- ★ IoT 1000 times the size of the Internet [Cisco, 2009]

One protocol to rule them all: IPv6

- open standard, interoperable
- IP well tested, well known, widely adopted
- ★ 2¹²⁸ addresses available: each node globally addressable!

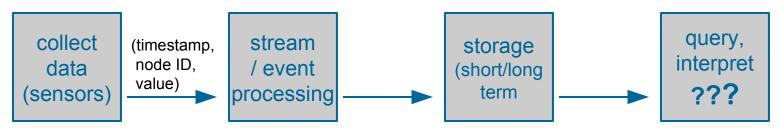
Internet of Things (IoT)

Why should computer scientists care ?

- ★ 50 billions of devices in 2020...
 → what's the probability you will be developing an application for one of them?
- or take their constraints into account in your research?
- * still many technical challenges to overcome

Not only computer networking

process / mine / interpret large amounts of data ("big data")



- algorithmic challenges (path computation, scheduling, ...)
- * security !!!

• How do WSNs differ from Wireless LANs ?

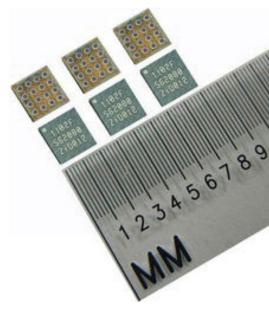
- Higher node density (more nodes /m² or /m³)
- More constrained nodes
 - Limited energy resources → not always ON
 - Limited computation / storage capabilities
- Low power communication
 - Short range, lossy wireless link
 - Fast changing topology
- Application specific design
 - not your *general purpose* computer
- Self-configuration
 - many nodes; nodes deployed in hard to reach areas
- Many-to-one traffic pattern (sources to sink)

Key enablers

- low-power micro-controllers (MCU)
- higher scale of integration
- energy harvesting techniques
- cheap, low-power radio transceivers

Computer science challenges

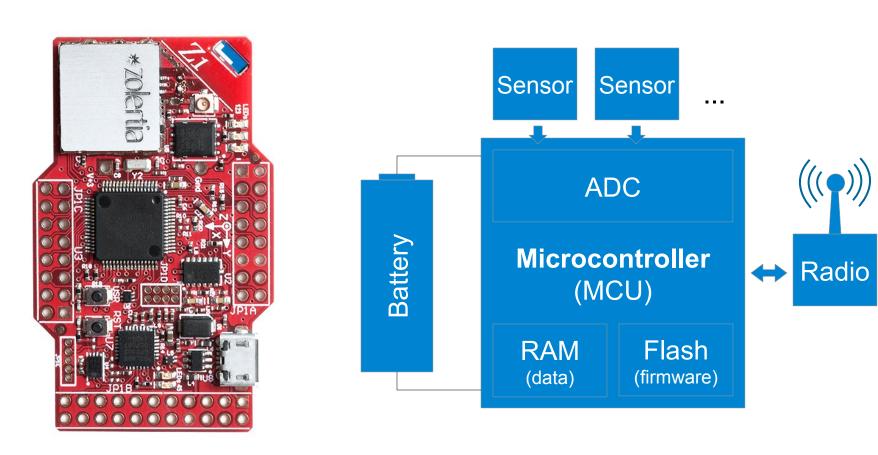
- * energy aware task scheduling
- * energy aware communication protocols
 - asynchronous communications, routing algorithms, in-network processing/data aggregation, ...
- * new programming paradigms
 - real-time, event-driven, limited resources, deeply embedded computing, fault-tolerant, adaptative behavior



LPC1102 ARM Cortex-M0 Source: NXP (April 20th, 2010)

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What's in a Sensor Node?



Zolertia Z1

Typical Sensor Node Hardware

Limited MCU/CPU

★ low frequency clock : ~ 10 MHz

- 200 times slower
- typically 8/16-bits MCU (trend towards 32-bits)
- no hardware floating point operations (FPU)
- no cache, no MMU, no MPU, basic instruction pipeline

Limited memory

★ RAM ~ 10 KB

10⁵ times smaller

★ Flash (program + data) ~ 100 KB

10⁷ times smaller

Low-power radio

- * Range ~ 10-100 m
- ★ Data rate ~ 100 Kbps

10⁴ times slower

Power supply constrained

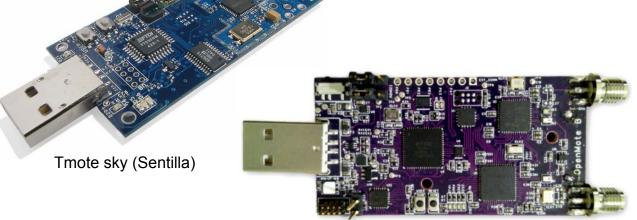
battery, solar, harvesting (vibrations), ...

Example platforms Motes...

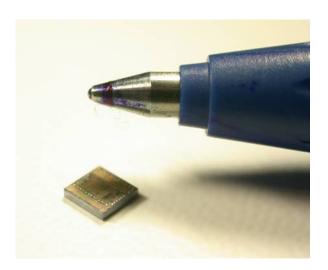




micaZ (Crossbow Technology)



OpenMote



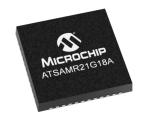
Spec (Berkeley)



Z1 (Zolertia)

Example microcontrollers (MCUs)

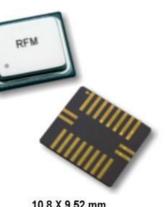




Name or family	Manufacturer	Datapath width (bits)	RAM (kB)	ROM (kB)	Max. Freq. (MHz)	Current consumption active/sleep (mA)
ATmega128	Atmel	8	4	128	8	8 / 0.02
8051	Intel	8	0.5	4	12	30 / 0.05
MSP430F168	Texas Instr.	16	10	48	8	2 / 0.001
PIC18	Microchip	8	4	128	? (1)	2.2 / 0.001
CC2538	Texas Instr.	32	32	512	32	? / 0.0004
SAMR21	Atmel/ Microchip	32	32	256	48	4-7 / 0.00035

Example radio transceivers

- RFM TR1000 family (RF Monolithics)
 - * 868MHz and 916 MHz ranges, up to 115.2 kbps, ON-OFF keying or ASK



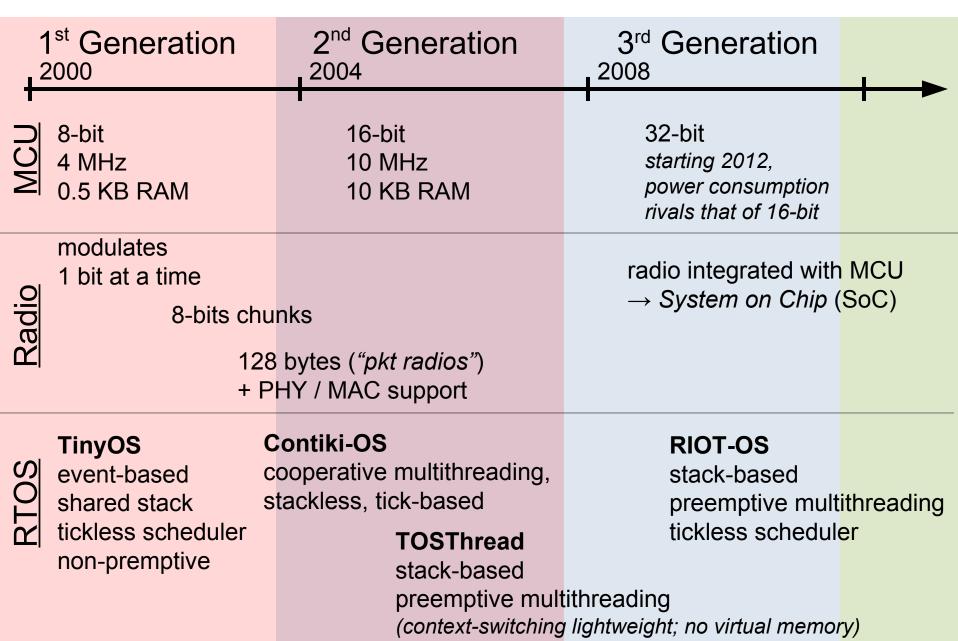
10.8 X 9.52 mm

- CC1000 and CC2420 families (Texas Instruments)
 - ★ CC1000: 300-1000MHz, FSK
 - * CC2420: 2.4GHz, IEEE 802.15.4
- MRF24J40 (Microchip)
 - * 2.4GHz, IEEE 802.15.4, 250 kbps
- AT86RF23x (Atmel)
 - * 2.4 GHz, IEEE 802.15.4, 250kbps
- AT86RF215 (Microchip/Atmel)
 - dual-band IEEE 802.15.4 radio, up to 800 kbps
 - * 2.4 GHz and sub-GHz



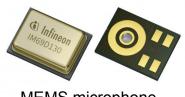


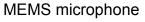
Evolution of Motes



Sensors









- Light, sound
- Humidity, pressure, temperature
- Angular/linear velocity
- Vibration, mechanical stress, tension in material
- Chemical sensor sensitive to specific substance
- * Smoke detector
- * Camera, ...

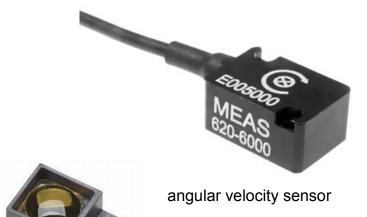
Active

sonar/radar, seismic, ToF, ...

Also actuators...

LED, relay, motor, ...





Power sources

Storing energy: batteries

- Traditional batteries: rechargeable/non-rechargeable
- Ex.: 2100 mAh NiMh AA battery
 - Stored energy⁽¹⁾: 9072 Joules
 - Energy per volume (density): ~1000 J/cm³





Energy harvesting

- Photovoltaics (solar cells)
 - Energy density (outdoor): up to 15 mW/cm²
- Vibrations (e.g. piezoelectric principle)
 - Energy density: 0.01-0.1 mW/cm³
- Temperature gradients⁽²⁾
- Pressure variations
- ★ Flow of air/liquid





Talking about battery energy density

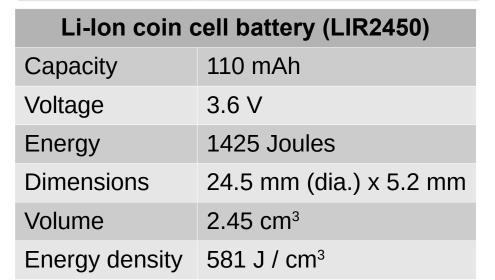
Examples

NiMH AA battery				
Capacity	2100 mAh			
Voltage	1.2 V			
Energy	9072 Joules			
Dimensions	50 mm x 14.5 mm (dia.)			
Volume	8.3 cm ³			
Energy density	1093 J / cm ³			



(2100 mAh) * (1.2 V) * 3600/1000

9072 J / 8.3 cm³





(110 mAh) * (3.6 V) * 3600/1000

581 J / 2.45 cm³

18/203

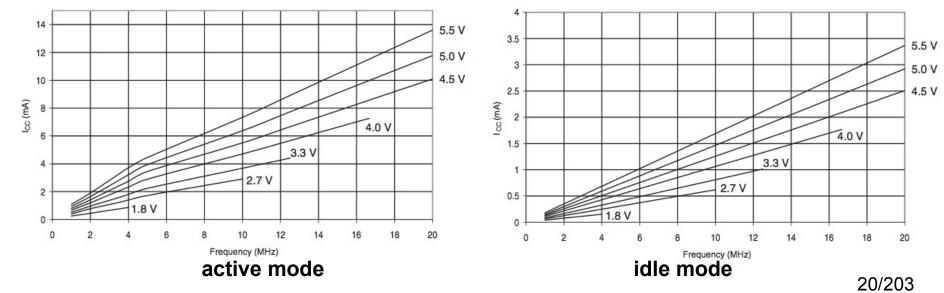
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MCU Energy Consumption

Operation states with different power consumption

- Core technique for energy-efficient wireless sensor node
- Example: 3 states

```
"deeper" sleep
"idle" = lower frequency, some peripherals power off
"sleep" = no operation but low-freq. timer to wakeup node
```



Source: ATmega328P user manual, Atmel Corporation, Rev. 8271C-AVR-08/10

MCU Energy Consumption

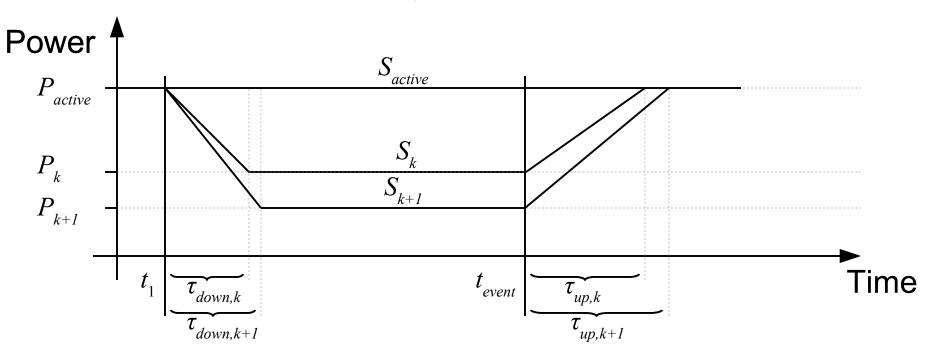
Operation states with different power consumption

- Core technique for energy-efficient wireless sensor node
- Example: 3 states

- "active" = normal operation mode, maximum power cons.
- "deeper" sleep
 "idle" = lower frequency, some peripherals power off
 "sleep" = no operation but low-freq. timer to wakeup node
 - BUT transitions between states are not free: require time, hence energy.
 - Causes: wait for clock to stabilize, wait for PLL to settle, ...
 - Usually, the deeper the sleep state, the more time and energy it takes to recover (can be in the order of several thousand clock cycles!)
 - Question: when is it worth switching state?

Sleep-state transition policy

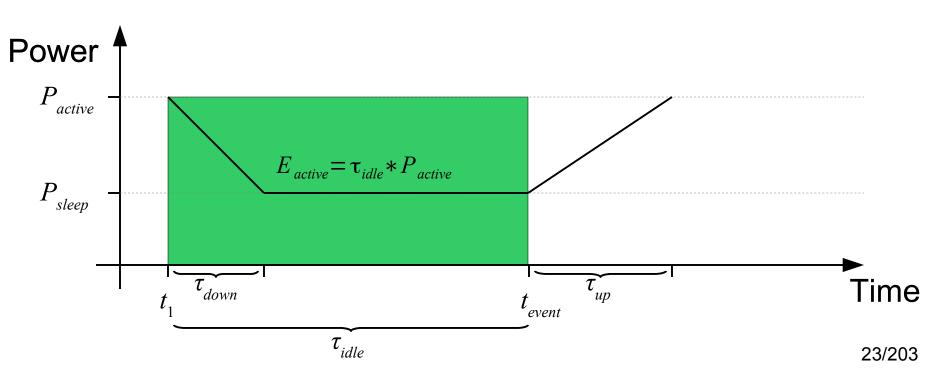
- \star Next event likely to occur at t_{event} (can somewhat be predicted)
- Decision
 - go to sleep or not ?
 - to which sleep state S_k?



Example model

- \star Going to sleep takes time τ_{down} while leaving sleep takes τ_{up} .
- \star Power consumption : P_{active} in active state, P_{sleep} in sleep state
- If node does not go to sleep

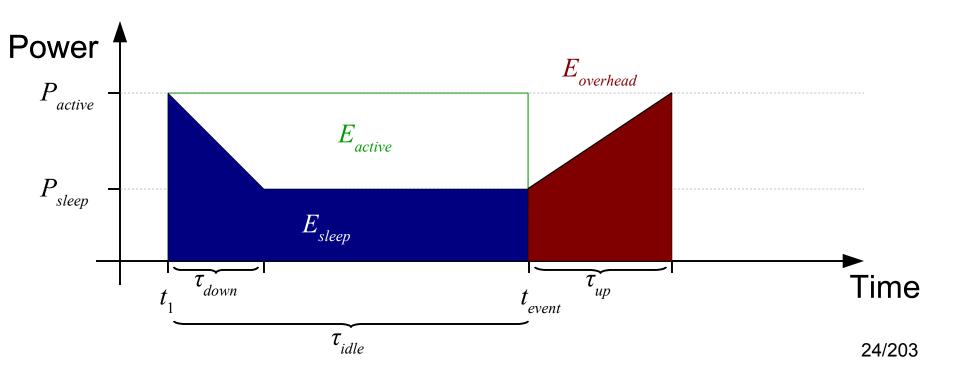
$$E_{active} = \tau_{idle} * P_{active}$$



Example model

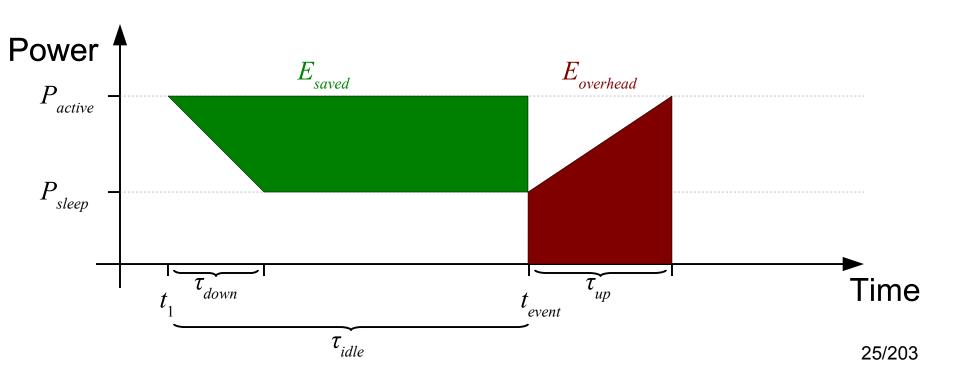
If node goes to sleep

$$\begin{split} & E_{\textit{sleep}} \! = \! \tau_{\textit{down}} \! \cdot \! \frac{\left(P_{\textit{active}} \! + \! P_{\textit{sleep}}\right)}{2} \! + \! \left(\tau_{\textit{idle}} \! - \! \tau_{\textit{down}}\right) \! \cdot \! P_{\textit{sleep}} \\ & E_{\textit{overhead}} \! = \! \tau_{\textit{up}} \! \cdot \! \frac{\left(P_{\textit{active}} \! + \! P_{\textit{sleep}}\right)}{2} \end{split}$$



Example model

$$\begin{split} E_{\textit{saved}} &= E_{\textit{active}} - E_{\textit{sleep}} \\ &= \tau_{\textit{idle}} \cdot P_{\textit{active}} - \left(\tau_{\textit{down}} \cdot \frac{\left(P_{\textit{active}} + P_{\textit{sleep}}\right)}{2} + \left(\tau_{\textit{idle}} - \tau_{\textit{down}}\right) \cdot P_{\textit{sleep}}\right) \\ &= \tau_{\textit{idle}} \cdot \left(P_{\textit{active}} - P_{\textit{sleep}}\right) - \tau_{\textit{down}} \cdot \frac{\left(P_{\textit{ative}} - P_{\textit{sleep}}\right)}{2} \end{split}$$

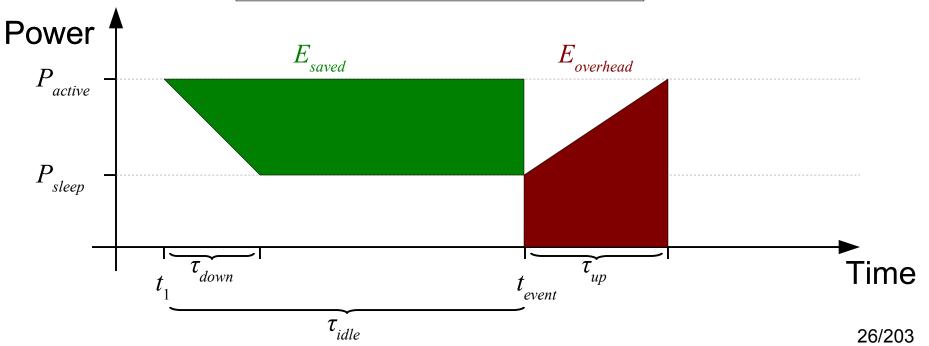


Example model

 \star Going to sleep is interesting iff $E_{overhead} < E_{saved}$

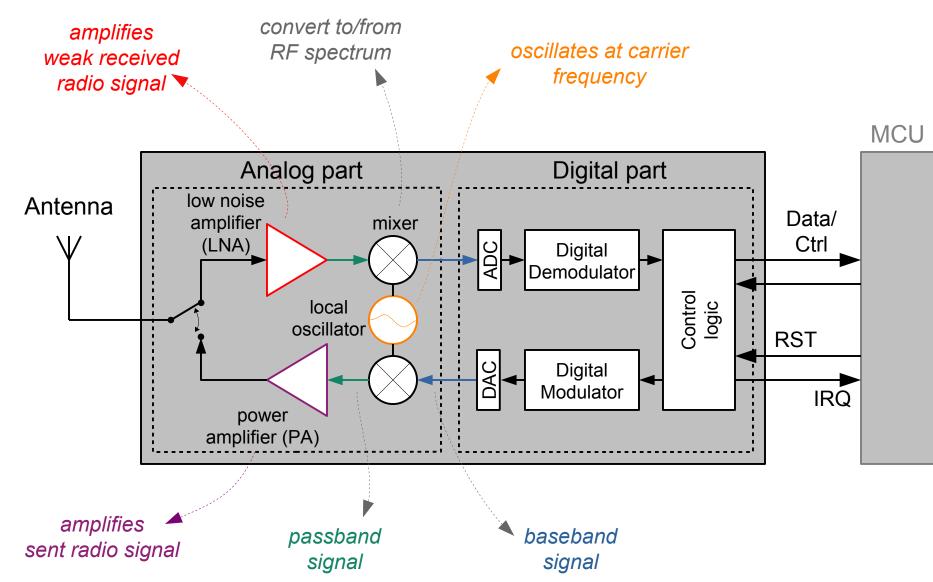
$$\tau_{up} \cdot \frac{\left(P_{active} + P_{sleep}\right)}{2} < \tau_{idle} \cdot \left(P_{active} - P_{sleep}\right) - \tau_{down} \cdot \frac{\left(P_{ative} - P_{sleep}\right)}{2}$$

$$t_{event} - t_1 > \frac{1}{2} \left(\tau_{down} + \frac{P_{active} + P_{sleep}}{P_{active} - P_{sleep}} \cdot \tau_{up}\right)$$



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What's inside a Radio Transceiver?



Radio Transceiver States

Transmit

transceiver active (analog/digital Tx), antenna radiates energy

Receive

- * transceiver active (analog/digital Rx), receive part
- power consumption mainly due to LNA

Idle

- ready to receive, but not currently receiving
- analog Rx is active (LNA as well)
- power consumption similar to Receive state

Sleep

- most parts of the transceiver are switched OFF
- usually, it takes some time to recover
- hard to only wakeup for frames addressed to the local node (needs complex filtering circuitry, hence power)

Power consumption example

CC2420 transceiver

- ★ Power supply: 3.3 V
- Transmit current: 22.7 mA (~74.91 mW)
 - for a radiated power of ~ 0.9 mW!
 - TX efficiency: 0.9 mW / 74.91 mW ≈ 1.2 % (welcome to the wireless world!)
- Receive current: 25.2 mA (~ 83.2 mW)
- * Sleep current: 12 μA



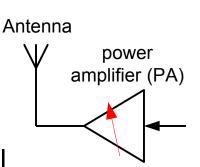
Achieved autonomy with 2500 mAh battery

- sinking 25 mA current, device would get power during approximately 100 hours (~ 4 days)
- * when sleeping most of the time, almost 23 years (ignoring battery self-discharge + MCU current)



Transmit side

- Adapt Tx power (PA⁽¹⁾ control knob)
- ★ BUT Tx power consumption not directly proportional to energy radiated by antenna → reducing the Tx power might not reduce power consumption a lot!



Receive side

can't change sensitivity threshold

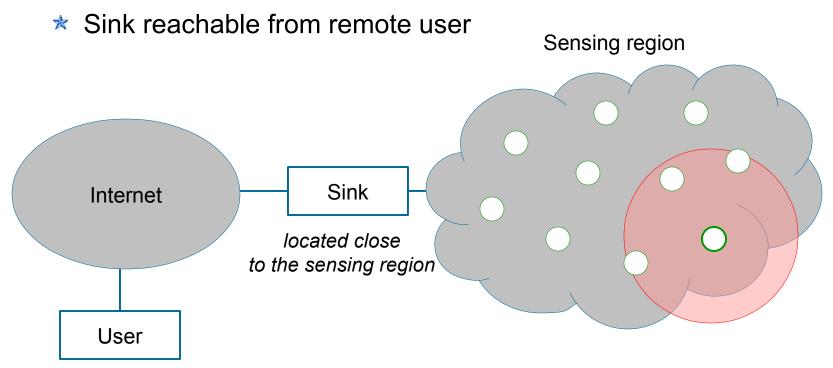
Radio duty cycle

- only solution is to go to sleep as much as possible
- * ACTIVE period: node can listen to others
- SLEEP period: node does nothing.
- Fundamental to WSNs...

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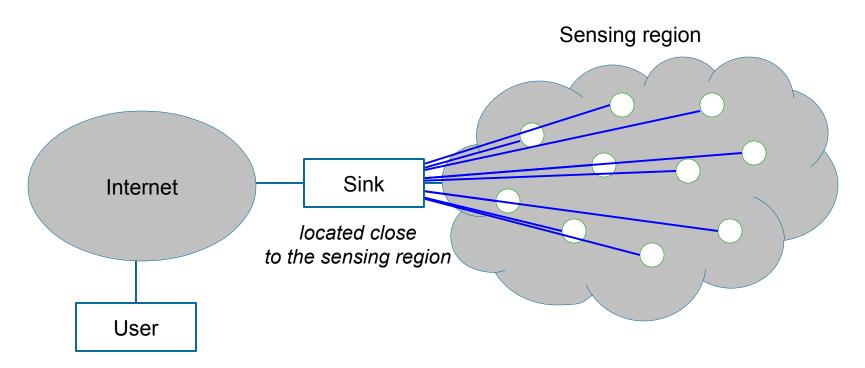
Sensor network architecture

- Sensors perform measurements
- Measures collected by special "sink" node



Single-hop

★ long distance → high transmission cost⁽¹⁾
 (recall that power increases exponentially with distance)



Recall path-loss equation

★ Friis free-space equation

$$P_{rx}(d) = P_{tx} G_t G_r \frac{\lambda^2}{(4\pi)^2 d^2 L}$$

$$= P_{tx} G_t G_r \frac{\lambda^2}{(4\pi)^2 d_0^2 L} \cdot \left(\frac{d_0}{d}\right)^2 = P_{rcvd}(d_0) \left(\frac{d_0}{d}\right)^2$$

* where

- P_{tx} is the transmission power
- G_t and G_r are antenna gains at transmitter and receiver
- d₀ is the reference, far-field, distance
- d is the distance between receiver and transmitter
- λ is the wavelength
- L summarizes tx/rx circuit losses.

Recall path-loss equation

Generalization to non-free-space environments

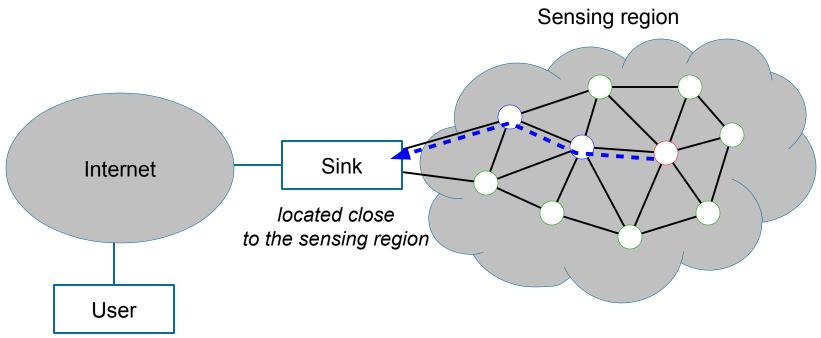
$$P_{rcvd}(d) = P_{rcvd}(d_0) \cdot \left(\frac{d_0}{d}\right)^{\gamma}$$

- where γ is the path-loss exponent and depends on the environment
- ★ Consequence: if distance doubles, P_{tx} must be multiplied by 2^{γ} to keep the same received power!
 - → Objective: minimize Tx distance
- ★ Two approaches
 - multi-hop (mesh) networks
 - clustering

Sensor Network Architecture

Multi-hop

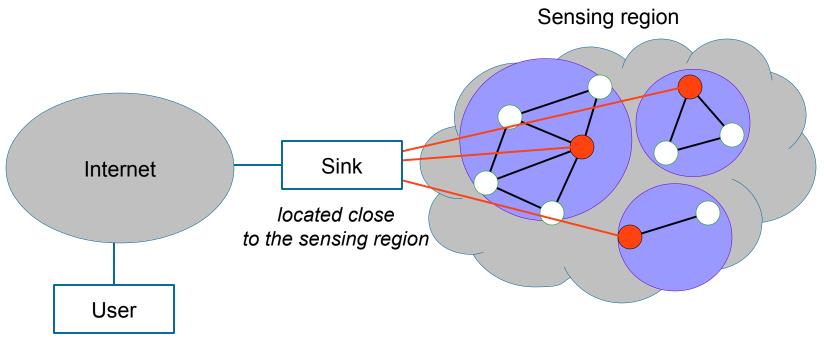
- ★ In addition to sending own measurements, each node can act as a relay for other nodes' messages → mesh networks
- Decreases transmission distance.



Sensor Network Architecture

Multi-hop clustering

- Multiple sinks aggregate traffic from a cluster of nodes.
- Cluster head nodes expected to be more powerful, less energy constrained.



Wireless Sensor Networks

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 - centralized
 - synchronous
 - asynchronous
 - IEEE 802.15.4
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MAC layer

Lessons learned from traditional Wireless MAC protocols

- CSMA/CD cannot be used: emitter not able to sense collision at the receiver
 - → CSMA/CA
- Hidden-terminal, exposed-terminal issues
 - → RTS/CTS
 - but RTS/CTS introduce significant overhead (latency before transmission + bandwidth for control messages)

• Why not use existing wireless protocols?

- Bluetooth: requires a permanent master to do polling, limited number of active slaves in a "piconet"
- Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE): only single-hop⁽¹⁾
- Wi-fi (802.11): requires all nodes to be constantly listening

Requirements

- Need to conserve energy
 - very different from traditional WLANs
- Scalability and robustness against frequent topology changes
 - nodes powering down temporarily (save energy)
 - mobility
 - deployment of new nodes
 - death of existing nodes (failure, battery power exhausted)

Energy problems

- **★ Collisions**
 - Energy wasted at transmitter and receiver
 - → avoid collisions as much as possible!

* Overhearing

- Wireless = broadcasting → messages received by several nodes not interested → listen, then drop
 - → avoid listening for useless messages!

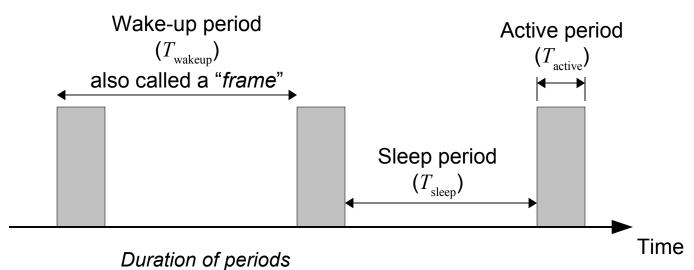
* Protocol overhead

- MAC-related control frames (e.g. RTS, CTS), packet headers
 - → keep protocol simple, avoir unnecessary messages!

* Idle listening

- Energy wasted when nothing to send/receive
 - → go to sleep as frequently as possible!

- Periodic wakeup scheme radio duty-cycling (RDC)
 - Principles
 - Nodes alternate between active and sleep periods according to their own schedule
 - Active period used to receive and transmit
 - Duty-cycle ratio $\frac{T_{active}}{T_{wakeup}} = \frac{T_{active}}{T_{active} + T_{sleep}}$



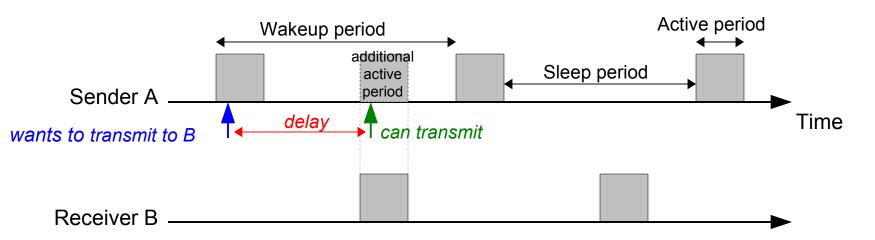
- active (fixed): depends on PHY- and MAC-layers.

- sleep: depends on APP-layer requirements.

Periodic wakeup scheme

Requirement

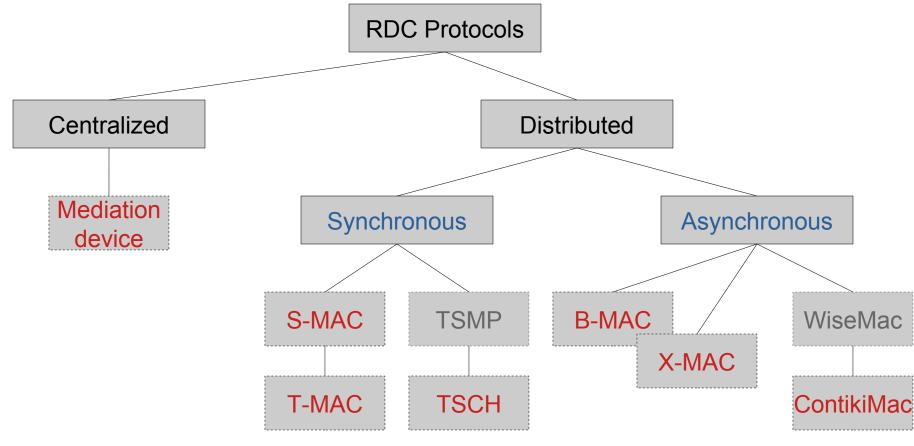
 need to coordinate the schedules of neighboring nodes such that their active periods start at the same time.



Consequence

- The sleep period introduces additional latency.
- For multi-hop communications (between non-adjacent nodes), this latency is introduced at each hop!

Radio Duty-Cycling Protocols



Pre-determined periodic wake-up schedule ($T_{\text{sleep}} + T_{\text{active}}$).

Explicit sharing of schedule with neighboring nodes. Synchronization maintained at local scale.

No a priori wake-up schedule shared.

Frequent channel sampling (low-power sampling – LPL).

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MAC layer - Mediation Device Protocol

Principles

- No global time reference
- Each node has its own sleep schedule
- * Assumption : mediation device has no energy constraint

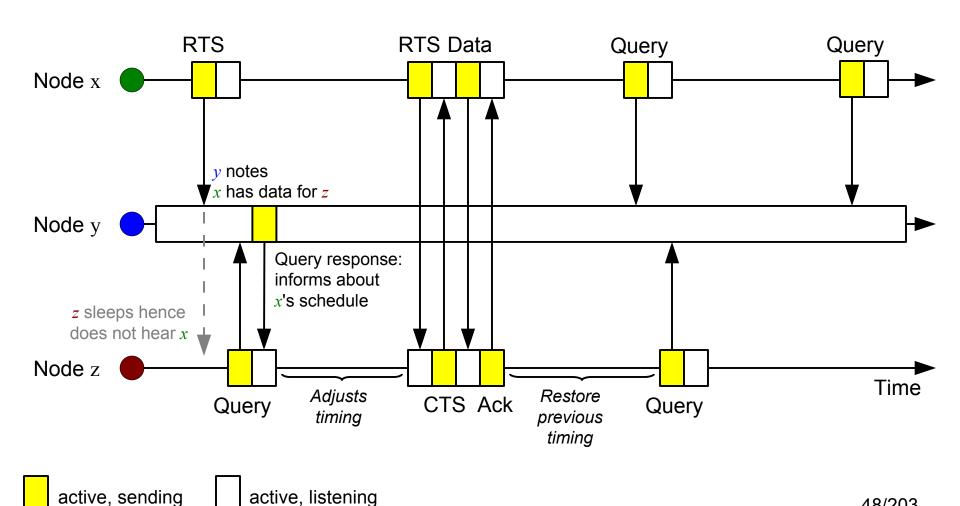
Operations

- When a node wakes up it transmits a short query beacon

 → indicates it is willing to receive others' packets
- Then, it stays awake for a short time. If no packet is received it goes back to sleep.
- If a node wants to transmit a packet to a neighbor, it must synchronize with it.
- The mediation device allows nodes to synchronize without having to stay awake for a long time!

MAC layer - Mediation Device Protocol

Example



48/203

MAC layer - Mediation Device Protocol

Summary

- * Advantage
 - No need for global synchronization
 - Most of the energy burden is shifted to the mediation device

Drawbacks

- Requires an energy unconstrained mediation device
- If multiple nodes pick the same schedule, they might send their query beacon at the same time → collisions⁽¹⁾.

★ Further work

- reschedule message in case of repeated collisions
- increased coverage : distributed mediation device protocol

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MAC layer – Sensor MAC (S-MAC)

Principles

- Minimize idle-listening: low duty cycle
- Minimize contention (and collision)
 - Broadcast → CSMA/CA
 - Unicast → CSMA/CA with RTS/CTS

Overhearing

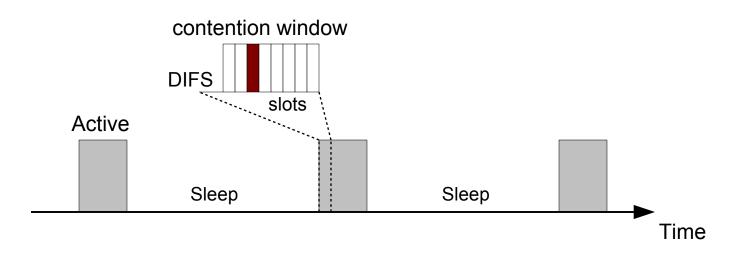
- RTS frames contain destination field + duration (NAV)
- Other nodes can go to sleep and know for how long

* Synchronous

- Explicit sharing of schedules (SYNC frames)
- Local synchronization of schedules (virtual clusters)

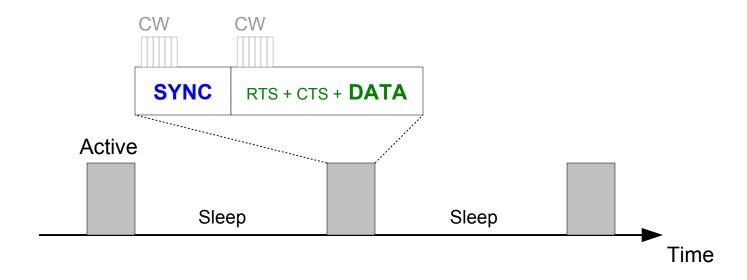
Collision avoidance

- ★ CSMA/CA with random back-off⁽¹⁾
 - Limits the likelihood of collision
 - A node that wants to transmit picks a slot randomly in contention window, checks if the channel remains free until its slot. If the channel is free, transmission starts. Otherwise the node backs off until the next wake-up period.



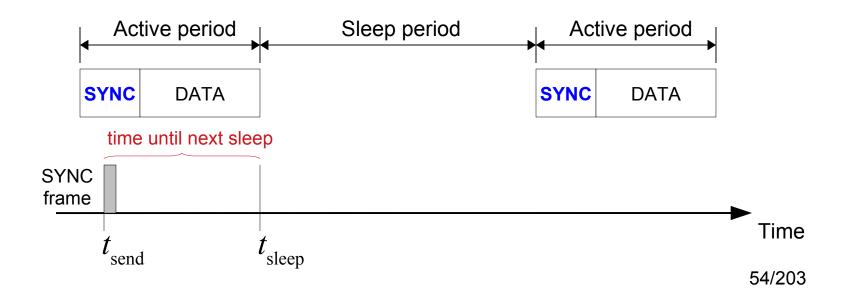
Active period

- Divided in two phases
 - SYNC: used for nodes to transmit their own wake-up schedule.
 - DATA: used to send frames. Unicast frames come after an RTS/CTS exchange (similar to IEEE 802.11). Broadcast frames are sent without RTS/CTS.



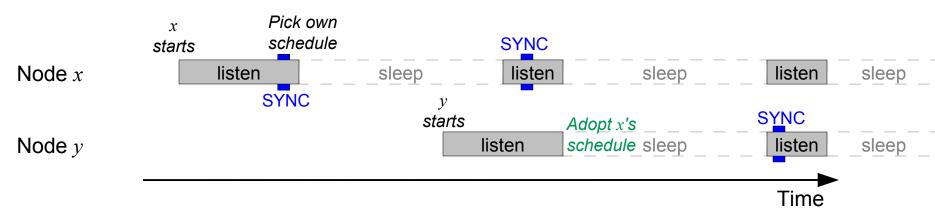
Sharing schedules - SYNC period

- Nodes accept or broadcast SYNC frames from/to neighbors.
- * SYNC frame includes the <u>sender ID</u> and the <u>amount of time</u> <u>until next sleep</u>. This time is relative to when the SYNC frame is sent (t_{send}) .



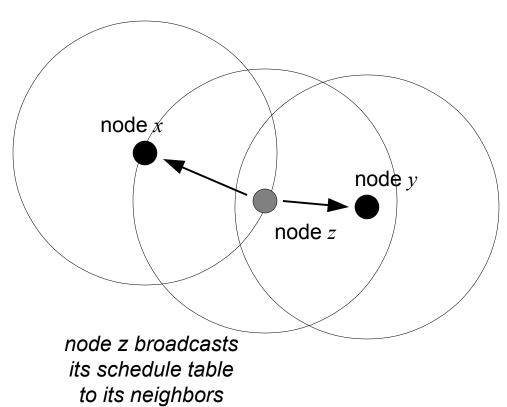
Picking a wake-up schedule

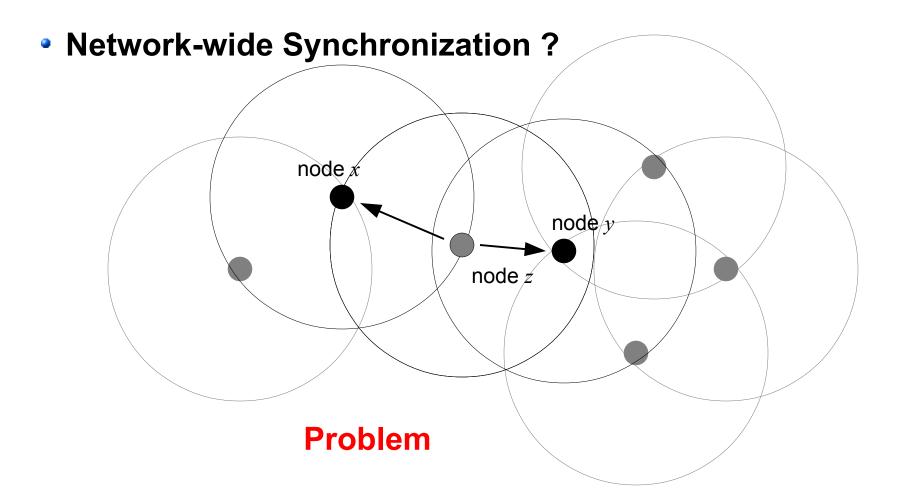
- When a node boots up: it must determine its wake-up schedule. It first listens for SYNC frames during a fixed amount of time⁽¹⁾
 - 1. no SYNC frame heard → pick its own schedule and advertise it with a SYNC frame.
 - 2. SYNC frame heard → follow the received schedule



- when a node first listens for neighbors it should listen for at least a full wakeup period.
- (1) The initial listen period should obviously be at least as long as a full cycle. Since SYNC frames are not sent at every cycle, the initial listen period is usually longer than multiple cycles.

Example



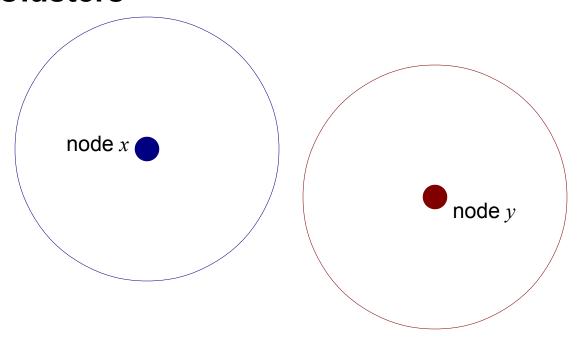


Network-wide synchronization of schedules is not desirable: would increase contention, as all nodes wake up together and contend for the limited time slots

Virtual clusters - Local synchronization

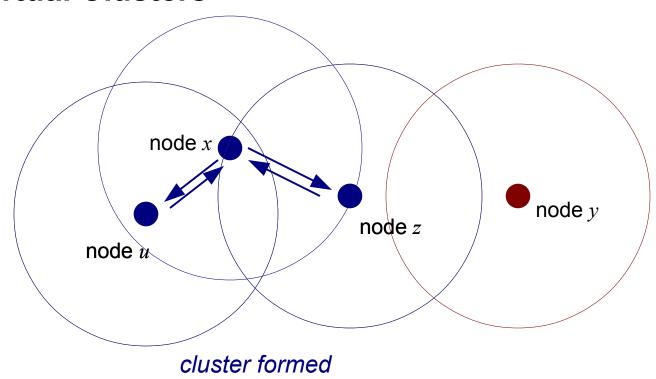
- ★ If a node receives a schedule different from its own schedule, 2 cases to consider
 - Node currently has no neighbor → discard its own schedule and adopt received one. Nodes that have the same schedule belong to the same cluster.
 - Node already has neighbors → keep its own schedule and adopt additional received schedule. This will occur for nodes at the border of two clusters.
- Corner case: failure to discover schedule of neighbor
 - Occurs if node has adopted a schedule that does not overlap with that of neighbors.
 - Solution: S-MAC uses a periodic neighbor discovery where nodes listen for a full wakeup period. This must not be done too frequently → consumes energy.

Virtual Clusters



Nodes x and y can't hear each other and pick their own schedule.

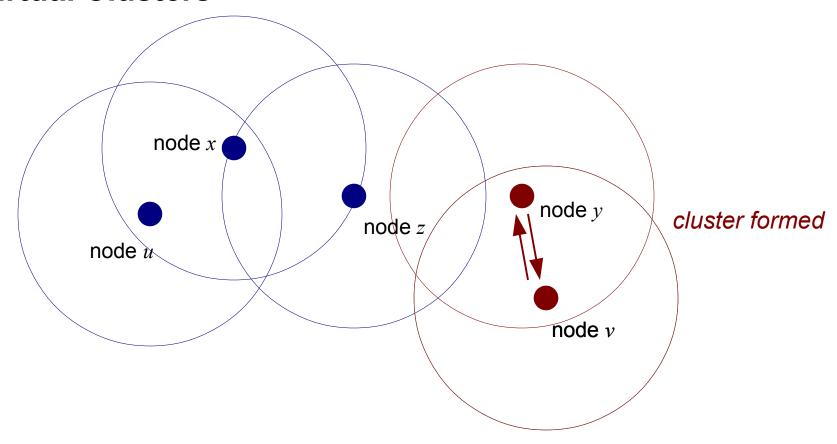
Virtual Clusters



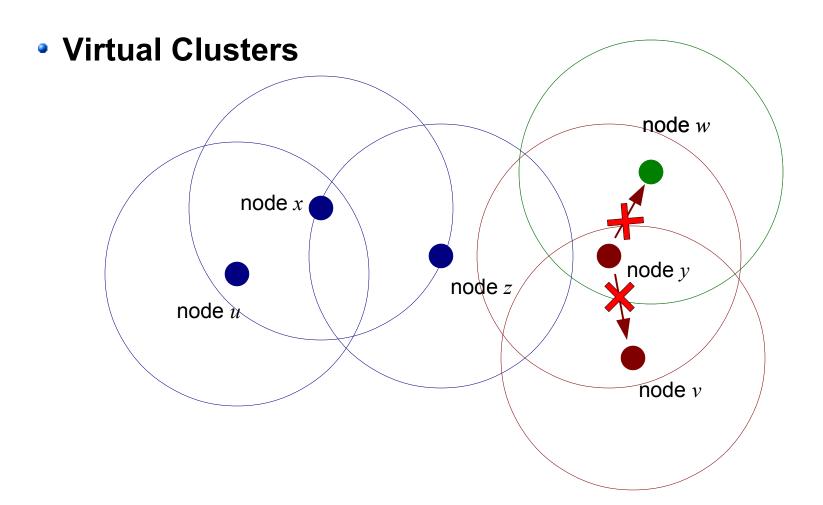
Node *u* and *z* first hear and adopt *x*'s schedule after they are switched ON. Later, they will advertise *x*'s schedule. Node *x* learns that someone else uses its schedule.

60/203

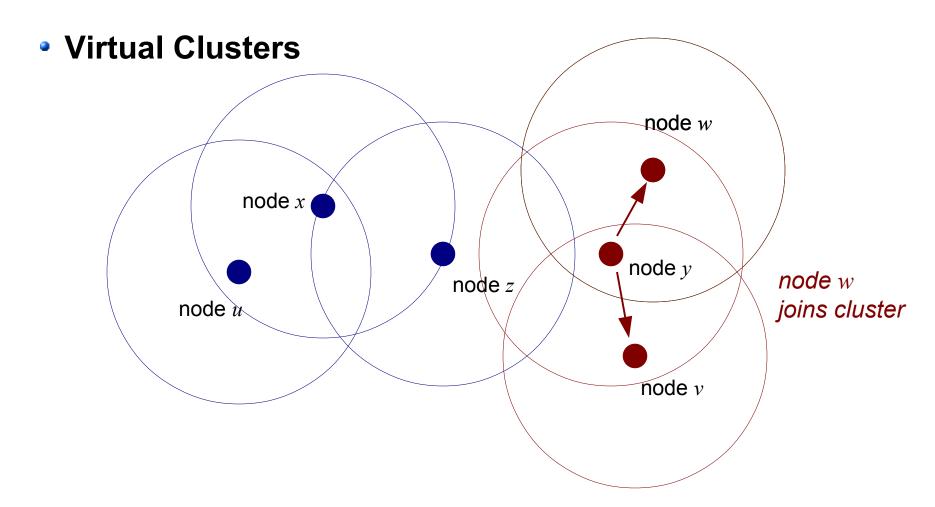
Virtual Clusters



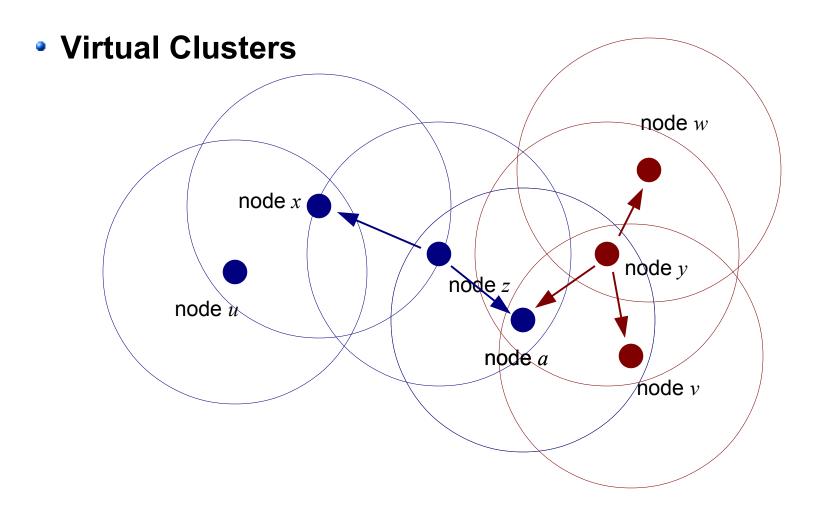
Node v first hears and adopts y's schedule after it is switched ON. Later, it will advertise y's schedule. Node y learns that someone else uses its schedule.



Node w is switched ON. The schedule from y arrives with incorrect checksum and is discarded. Node w picks its own schedule.



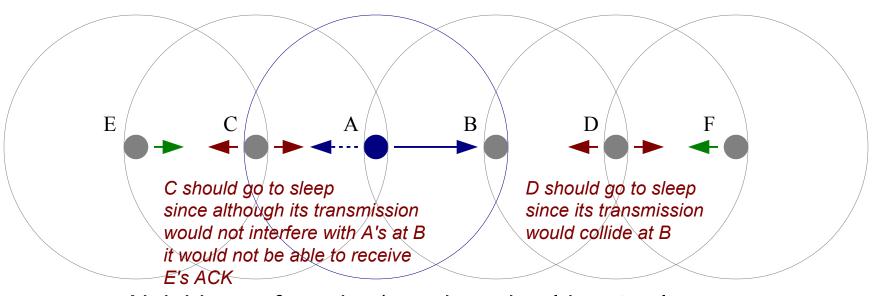
★ Later, node w receives a different schedule from node y. As node w has not heard that another node shares its schedule, it switches to y's schedule.
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Node a is switched ON. It first hears node z's schedule. Later it receives a different schedule from node y. It adopts both schedules. Node a is a border node.
64/203

Limiting Overhearing

- Principle: nodes can go to sleep as soon as they hear an RTS for another node or a CTS.
- ★ Example: A, B, C, D, E and F can only hear their immediate neighbors. A wants to send to B. C, D receive A's RTS or B's CTS. Which nodes should go to sleep?



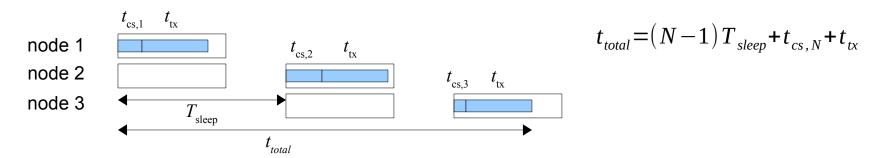
→ Neighbors of sender / receiver should go to sleep

Summary

- Benefits
 - Nodes can spend much time in sleep mode (limits idle listening).
 - Avoids overhearing as much as possible (RTS/CTS).

Drawbacks

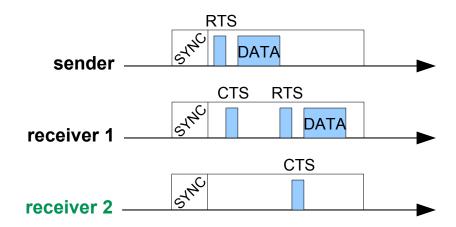
• Increased latency. Exacerbated with multi-hop transmissions. Worst incurred latency is on the order of $N * T_{\text{sleep}}$ where N is the number of hops and T_{sleep} the length of the sleep period.



• Fixed listen period; and allows a single transmission (see adaptive listening).

Adaptive listening

- Principle
 - A node that overhears an RTS or CTS transmission can schedule an "extra" listen period later in its frame (it goes to sleep meanwhile).
 - This allows e.g. a next-hop node to stay awake and receive the forwarded frame in the same wake-up cycle.



Principle

Observation

- S-MAC uses a fixed listen (active) period. Not practical for networks where the traffic load varies.
- Example: sensor networks subject to bursts of frames after an event is sensed.

Solution

- Variable active period
- T-MAC's active period ends when there is nothing to hear during a time TA.
 - \rightarrow minimal duty cycling = TA / frame length⁽¹⁾

(1) Recall that in this context, the frame length denotes the duration of a wakeup cycle.

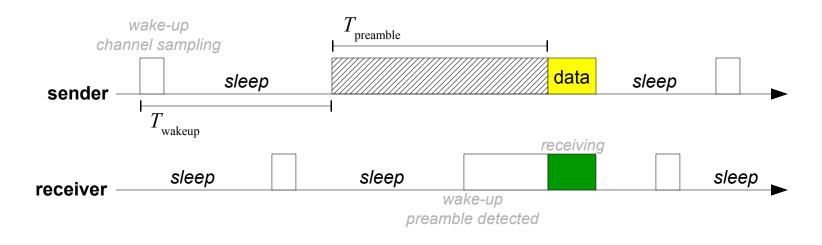
Wireless Sensor Networks

- 4. 1 Motivations
- 4.2 Sensor Node
- 4.3 Network Architecture
- 4.4 MAC Layer
 - centralized
 - synchronous
 - asynchronous
 - IEEE 802.15.4
- 4.5 Network Layer
- 4.6 Transport and Application Layers
- 4.7 IP for WSN ?
- 4.8 Programming Model / RTOS

MAC layer – Berkeley MAC (B-MAC)

Principles

- Asynchronous : no wake-up schedule shared
- * Receivers sample the channel at regular interval
- Long preamble to signal data transmission
- \star Preamble length $T_{\rm preamble}$ > wake-up cycle length $T_{\rm wakeup}$



MAC layer – Berkeley MAC (B-MAC)

Discussion

Benefits

- Receivers go to sleep immediately when channel sampling detects no preamble → limit idle listening
- Simpler than synchronous protocols such as S-MAC

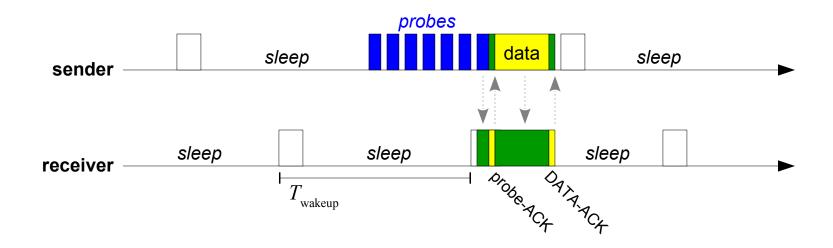
Drawbacks

- Decreasing the duty-cycling (increasing $T_{\rm wakeup}$) implies increasing the preamble time ($T_{\rm preamble}$)
- Complete preamble transmitted even if receiver already awaken (no way to know)
- Not possible with every radio transceiver (need control on PHY layer)
- No limitation to overhearing → impossible to know the frame destination before the frame is completely received.

MAC layer – X-MAC

Principles

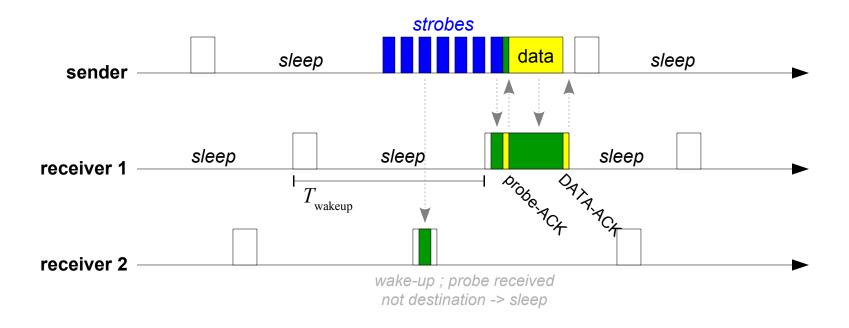
- Objective : limit overhearing
- Preamble replaced with short "strobe" frames that contain the destination address: non-interested receivers can go to sleep earlier
- Preamble stopped when receiver awakened (ACK frame)



MAC layer – X-MAC

Principles

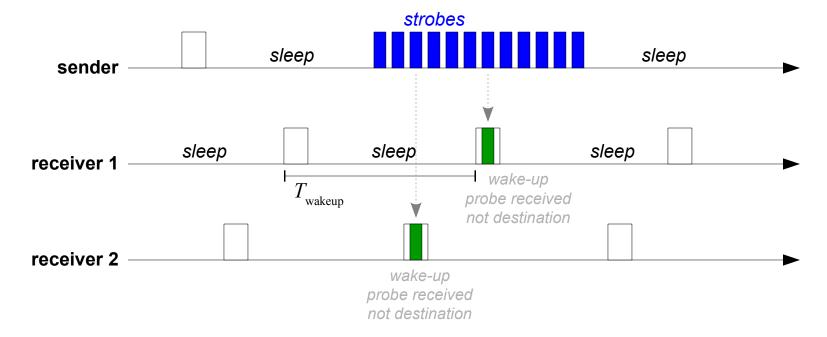
- Limited overhearing: a non interested receiver can go to sleep immediately after a probe has been received.
- no need to listen to whole DATA frame.



MAC layer – X-MAC

Principles

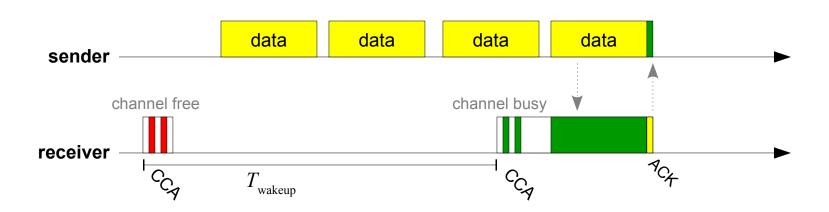
- Special case : receiver missing
 - Number of strobes limited to a full wake-up cycle ~ $T_{
 m wakeup}$



- Special case : broadcast
 - No probe-ACK is sent; DATA frame sent after strobes

Principles

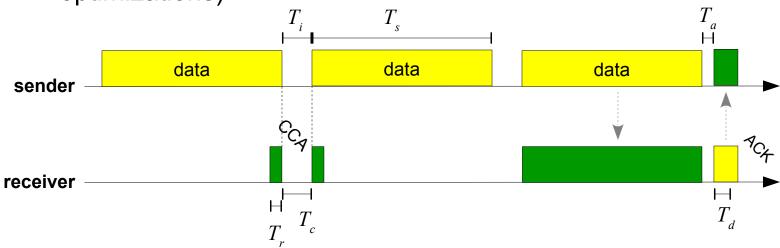
- ★ Similar to X-MAC... but full DATA frame sent as strobe.
- Overhearing can be limited thanks to the DATA frame destination field (whole frame must be received⁽¹⁾).
- Receiver detects incoming frame by checking channel activity (Clear Channel Assessment - CCA)



(1) the destination field cannot be used before the CRC (in frame trailer) has been checked.

Timing constraints

Required for the correct operation of the protocol (and optimizations)



$$T_s > T_c + 2T_r$$
 Frame cannot fall between CCAs

$$T_i < T_c$$
 2 CCAs enough to detect frame

$$T_i > T_a + T_d$$
 Allow space for ACKs

$$T_a + T_d < T_i < T_c < T_c + 2T_r < T_s$$

Case of 802.15.4 PHY

$$T_{r} = 192 \ us$$

$$T_{d} = 160 \ us$$

$$T_a = 192 \ us$$

Contiki implementation

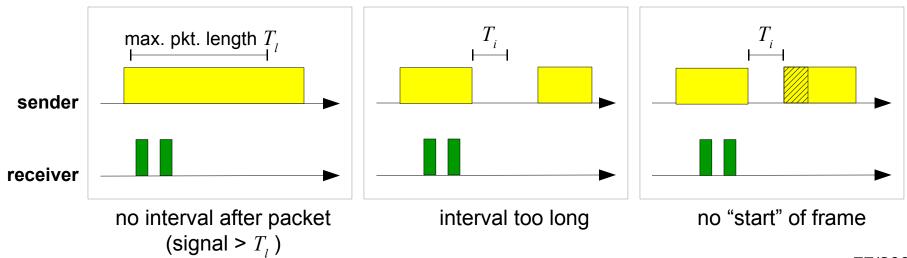
$$T_i = 0.4 \ ms$$

$$T_c = 0.5 \ ms$$

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Fast-sleep optimization

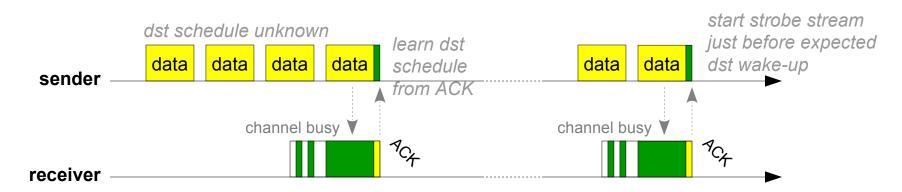
- Overhearing is limited by looking at the received frame's destination field.
- ★ The CCA only detects if there is energy transmitted on the channel⁽¹⁾.
- ★ Detected energy might be noise. This would force a node to remain awaken, but no frame would be received. How to detect this case?



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Phase lock

- \star Stream of strobe can last up to a full cycle ($T_{\rm wakeup}$) in the worst case.
- Phase lock objective: reduce number of strobes sent by learning the destination's wake-up schedule
- How ? Deduce neighbor's wake-up time from ACK arrival time. Remember neighbor schedule for future frames.

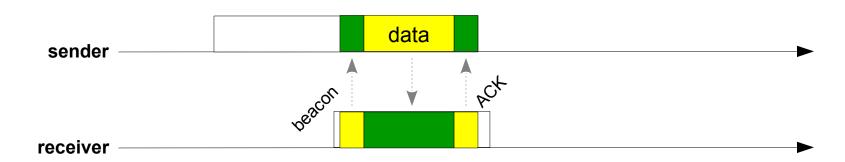


Issues: clock drifts (nodes have slightly different clock frequencies) + small error in wake-up time estimation

MAC layer – Receiver-initiated protocols

That's not the end of the story...

- Protocols studied so far are sender-initiated (the sender sends the preamble/strobes)
- * Asynchronous protocols also contain a *receiver-initiated* subfamily. In this family, receivers initiate the transmission by sending a beacon frame when they are ready to receive.



- Several proposals : LPP, RI-MAC, A-MAC, ...
- Many nodes = high risk of collisions (beacon frames) even with moderate traffic intensity

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Introduction

- ★ PHY and MAC layers
- Low-Rate Wireless Personal Area Network (LR-WPAN)
- * Features
 - low-to-medium bitrates
 - Industrial/Scientific/Medical (ISM) bands (unlicensed)
 - allows for contention-based and scheduled-based schemes

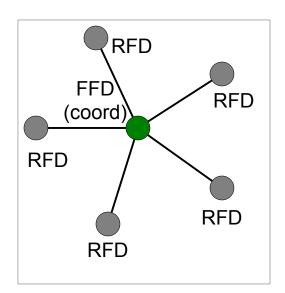
Frequency band (MHz)	Bitrate (kbps)	Number of channels	Channel numbers	Modulation
868-868.6	20	1	0	BPSK + DSSS
902-928	40	10	1-10	BPSK + DSSS
2400-2483.5	250	16	11-26	O-QPSK + DSSS

★ Often confused with "ZigBee" (works on top of 802.15.4)

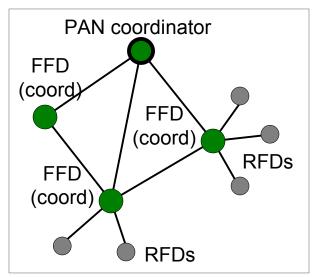
Network Architecture

- Two different node types
 - Full Function Device (FFD): can work as PAN coordinator, simple coordinator or device
 - Reduced Function Device (RFD): only as device

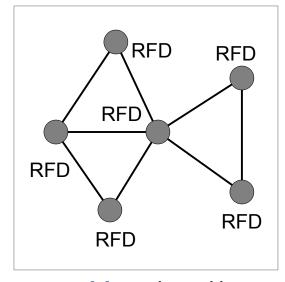
Network topologies



Star network to connect devices to coordinator



Peer-to-peer network among coordinators



Ad-hoc (mesh) topology

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Addresses

- ★ Each node has a unique 64-bit address
 - First 24 bits = Organizational Unique Identifier (OUI) allocated to manufacturer by IEEE
 - 40 remaining bits assigned by manufacturer
 - used mainly before joining a PAN
 - Example: 00:12:75:00:11:6e:cd:fb

 OUI (costs \$1650)
- Nodes can also use short, 16-bit, addresses
 - Allow to reduce addressing overhead (limited frame size)
 - Short addresses have a limited scope; can only be used within a PAN
 - Device outside PAN can be reached with their short address + destination PAN ID (32-bit total)
 - **Example**: 061a

Frame format

preamble,

len,										
		Frame control	Sequence number	Dest. PAN ID	Dest. Address	Source PAN ID	Source Address	Auxiliary Security header	Payload	FCS
	bytes	2	1	0/2	0/2/8	0/2	0/2/8	0//21	variable	2

	Frame type	Security enabled	Frame pending	Ack. request	Intra PAN	Reserved	Dest. address. mode	Reserved	Source address. mode
bits	3	1	1	1	1	3	2	2	2

- Beacon (0)
- Data (1)
- Acknowledgment (2)
- MAC command (3)
- Reserved (4-7)

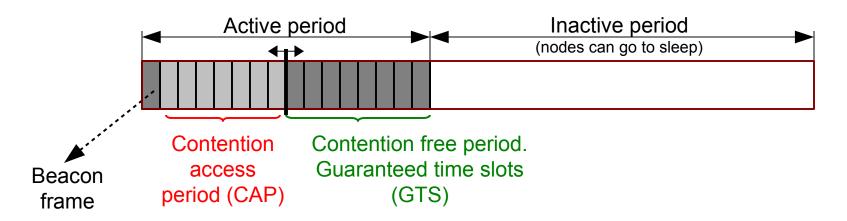
- No PAN ID / addr. Data (0)
 - → only for Ack
- Reserved (1)
- Short address (2)
- Long address (3)

Coordinator Role

- Manages list of associated devices
 - Association request / response MAC command frames
 - uses 64-bits addresses only
- Allocates short addresses to devices
 - through association request/response
- Manages the transmission of beacon frames
- Allocates guaranteed time slot (GTS) in beaconed mode

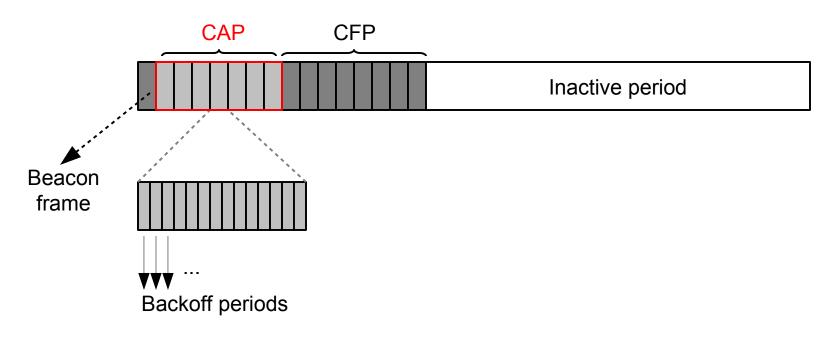
Beacon-mode, Superframe

- In beacon-mode channel access is organized by a coordinator
- Beacon frame sent on a regular basis marks start of superframe



- Active period : 16 slots. First slot = beacon.
 Other slots for CAP and GTS (separation configurable).
- Coordinator active during whole active period.

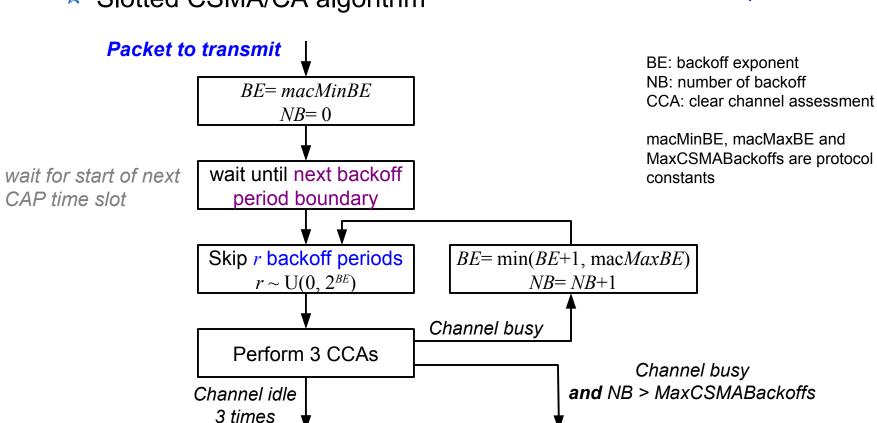
- Media access during CAP (contention access period)
 - Slotted CSMA/CA protocol (synchronization with beacon)
 - Each CAP time slot is divided into backoff periods



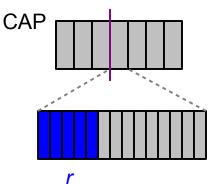
1 backoff period=20 symbols (i.e. 320μs @ 2.4GHz)

Transmit

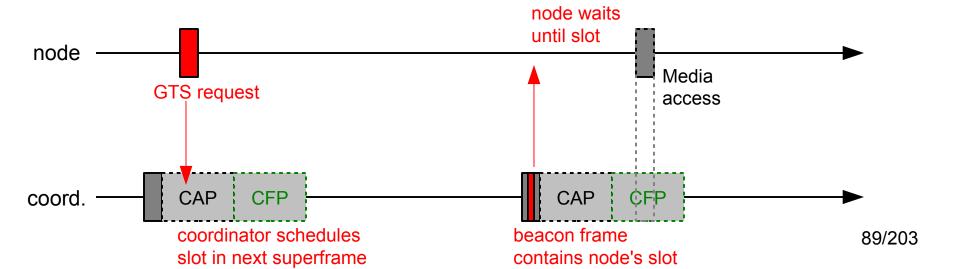
- Media access during CAP
 - Slotted CSMA/CA algorithm



Failure



- Media access during CFP (contention free period)
 - This is TDMA! Beacon used for synchronization.
 - Before accessing the media during the CFP period, a node must request a time slot from the coordinator.
 - GTS request contains number of slots requested, direction (transmit or receive), and indicates whether it is an allocation or deallocation request
 - Beacon frame contains the list of short addresses that are allowed to use their GTS during the CFP period of the superframe.



Media access - non-beaconed mode

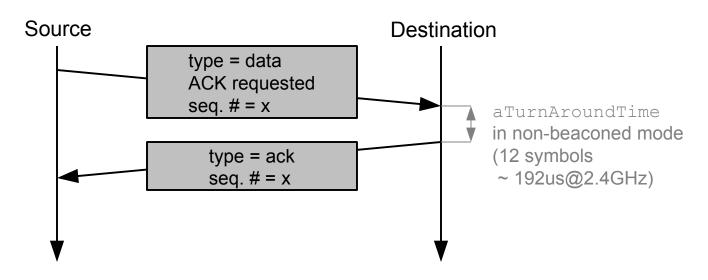
- ★ Used when no beacon used no synchronization
- Unslotted CSMA/CA algorithm

NB: number of backoff CCA: clear channel assessment Packet to transmit macMinBE, macMaxBE and MaxCSMABackoffs are protocol BE = macMinBEconstants NB=0Skip *r* backoff periods $BE = \min(BE + 1, \max(BE))$ $r \sim U(0, 2^{BE})$ NB = NB + 1Channel busy Perform CCA Channel busy and NB > MaxCSMABackoffs Channel idle **Transmit Failure**

BE: backoff exponent

Automatic ACK and retransmissions

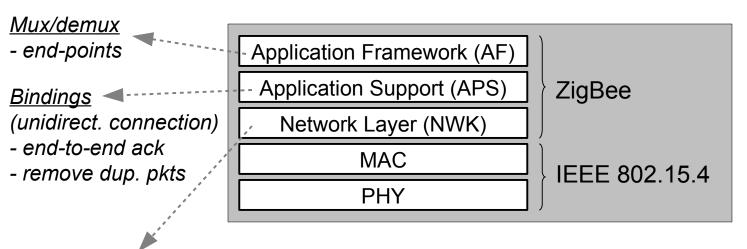
- A sender can request the receiver to send an ACK frame upon reception
 - tight timing requirements → need help of hardware
 - ACK frame has same seq. # than received frame
 - ACK frames and broadcast must not request ACK



Relation with ZigBee

Proprietary specification for wireless communication based on top of IEEE 802.15.4 (membership of ZigBee Alliance required).

ZigBee Stack

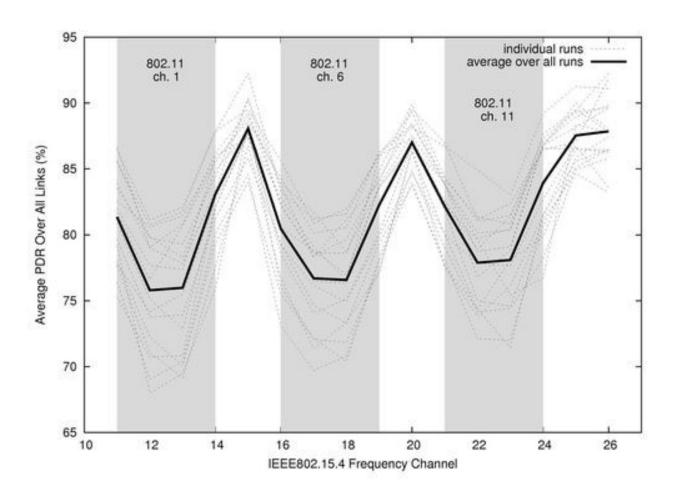


Addressing and routing

- broadcast (flooding) and unicast
- mesh routing similar to AODV

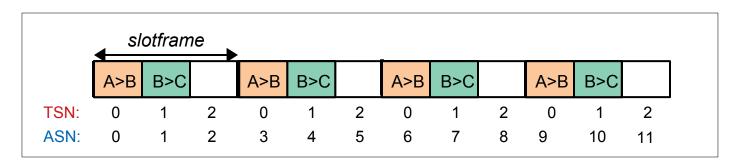
Evolution

- * 802.15.4a (2007) new PHYs (e.g. UWB)
- ★ 802.15.4e (2012) amendment for industrial applications: channel hopping MAC (TSCH – Time Slotted/Synchronized Channel Hopping)
- * 802.15.4g (2012) amendment for smart utility networks (SUN)
 - new PHY: other modulation techniques (e.g. OFDM)



<u>Time Slotted</u> Channel Hopping (TSCH)

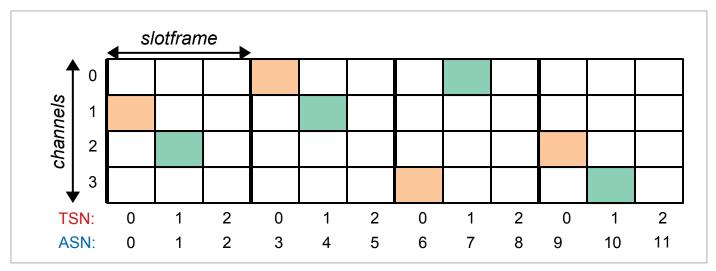
- * Absolute Slot Number (ASN): identifier of slot, counted from start of network (or marked by coordinator)
- ★ Time Slot Number (TSN): identifier of slot within slotframe
- Time-Division Multiplexing



Time Slotted <u>Channel Hopping</u> (TSCH)

- * Absolute Slot Number (ASN): identifier of slot, counted from start of network (or marked by coordinator)
- * Time Slot Number (TSN): identifier of slot within slotframe
- Channel Hopping

ch = (ASN + offset) **mod** numChannels



Example: offset = 1, numChannels = 4

Time Slotted Channel Hopping (TSCH)

* Shuffle channels : pseudo-randomly shuffled set of all channels

ch = hoppingSequence [(ASN + offset) mod ||hoppingSequence||]

★ Details

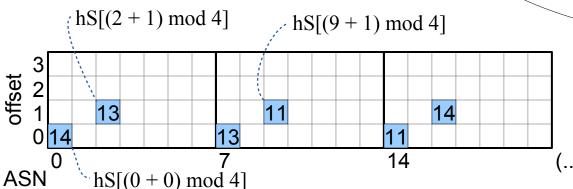
- Default hopping sequence obtained by shuffling set of channels with sequence obtained from a *Linear Feedback Shift Register* (LFSR) with generator polynomial $(x^9 + x^5 + 1)$ and starting seed 255.
- ★ <u>Example</u> at 2.4GHz, channels = [11..26]
 - shuffling sequence = [15, 14, 12, 8, 0, 0, 1, 3, 7, 15, 14, 13, 11, 7, 15, 15]
 - shuffled sequence = [16, 17, 23, 18, 26, 15, 25, 22, 19, 11, 12, 13, 24, 14, 20, 21]

Time Slotted Channel Hopping (TSCH)

* Assume LFSR $x^4 + x + 1$ (period = 15)



- * Assume 4 channels : [11, 12, 13, 14]
- ★ Shuffling sequence = [3, 2, 1, 2]
- ★ Shuffled channels = [14, 12, 11, 13] hoppingSequence
- $0: 3 \rightarrow 14, 12, 13, 11$ $1: 2 \rightarrow 14, 13, 12, 11$ $2: 1 \rightarrow 14, 12, 13, 11$ $3: 2 \rightarrow 14, 12, 11, 13$



1110

1010 1101 0110

0011

1001

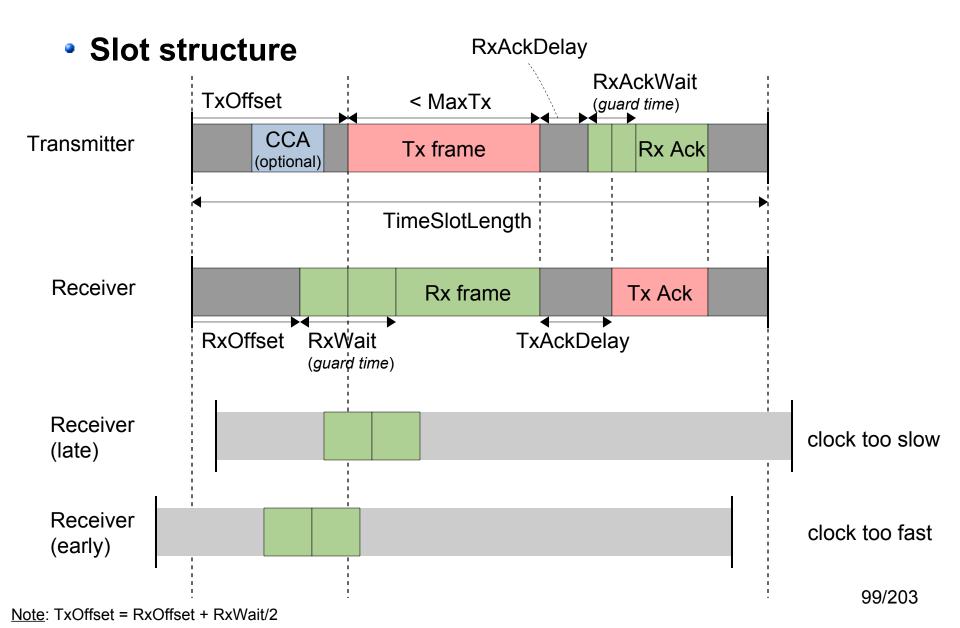
0010

0001

1000

1100

98/203



• How to maintain time synchronization ?

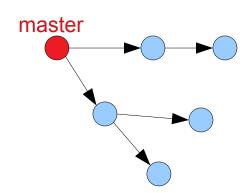
- Nodes' clocks drift from each other
 - due to manufacturing tolerance, changes in T°C and voltage

★ Global synchronization

- Single clock source/master
- Each node has a clock parent/source
- Spanning tree to determine clock parent (based on e.g. routing)

Local synchronization

- Estimate deviation from parent's clock
- Based on message exchanges
- Use of new Enh-ACK frames





Clock drift

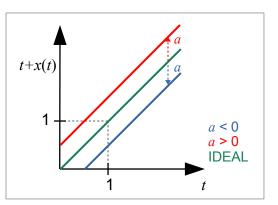
The clock of a system can differ/drift from the (real) time for different reasons. In the equation below, x(t) denotes the value of a clock at (real) time t.

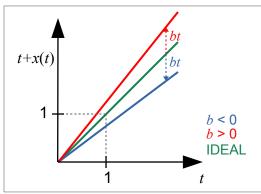
$$x(t) = a + bt + \frac{1}{2}Dt^2 + \varepsilon_x(t)$$

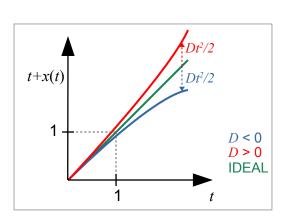
- * where
 - a is the initial clock offset
 - **b** is the initial normalized frequency offset
 - *D* is the *frequency drift*
 - $\varepsilon_{r}(t)$ is random noise



We ignore 2nd order and random effects and focus on the frequency offset.









Clock drift

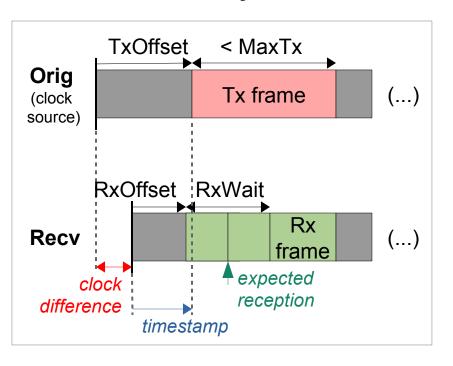
- * Let f be the nominal frequency of a clock (e.g. f = 10 MHz)
- * Let Δf be the frequency offset of the clock (e.g. $\Delta f = 400 \text{ Hz}$)
- * The real clock frequency is $f + \Delta f$
- * The relative/normalized frequency offset is $\varepsilon_f = \Delta f / f$ (e.g. $\varepsilon_f = 400/10^6 = 0.00004 = 0.004 \% = 40 \text{ ppm}$)

Example

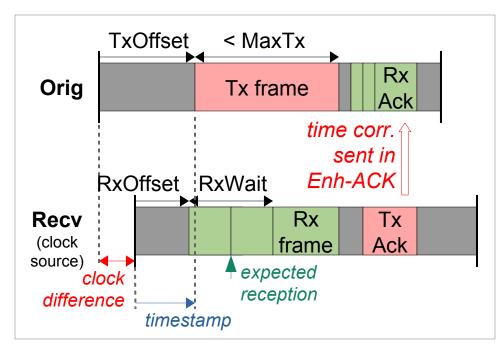
- * We might obtain a crystal of frequency f = 32768 Hz that is guaranteed +/- 20 ppm, meaning ($|\varepsilon_f| \le 20$ ppm)
- After how much time will our clock drift by 5 seconds?
- * We look for t such that x(t) = 5 s = $\varepsilon_f t$
- **★** Hence, $t = 5 \text{ s} / 2.10^{-5} \approx 2,89 \text{ days}$

• How to measure and fix clock drift?

Frame-based synchronization



ACK-based synchronization



• How frequently should node re-synchronize ?

- \star Depends on guard time (T_{guard}) and relative frequency offset (ε_{f})
- \star Let T_{resync} be the maximum interval between synchronization so as to not exceed the guard time

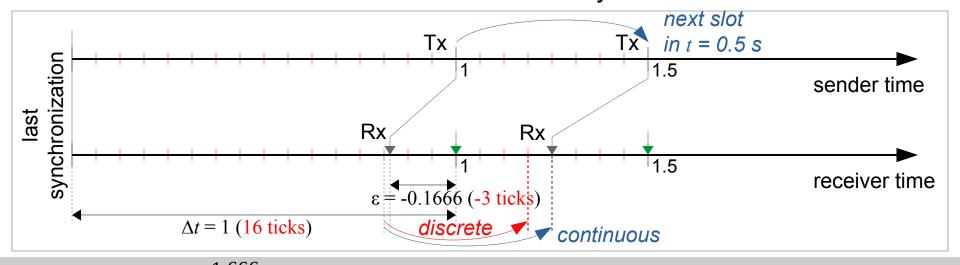
$$T_{resync} \cdot \varepsilon_f \leq T_{guard} \quad \Rightarrow \quad T_{resync} \leq \frac{T_{guard}}{\varepsilon_f}$$

Example

- * Assume the relative frequency offset ε_f is +/- 40 ppm
- \star Assume $T_{\text{guard}} = 1100 \, \mu \text{s}$ (i.e. macTsRxWait/2 at 2.4 GHz)
- ★ The worst case happens when one neighbor deviates by -40 ppm and the other by 40 ppm. This leads to a differential relative frequency offset of 80 ppm.
- ★ Hence, $T_{\text{resync}} \le 1100 \, \mu\text{s} / 80 \, \text{ppm} = 13.75 \, \text{s}$

Adaptive re-synchronization

- Frequent re-synchronization detrimental to energy consumption
- * Assume f = 16 Hz; 1 clock tick = $1/f \approx 62.5 \text{ ms}$ time since last synchronization $\Delta t = 1 \text{ s}$ receiver drifts from sender by 20 %



continuous
$$r_{\text{exp}} = \frac{\varepsilon}{\Delta t} = \frac{-1.666}{1} \Rightarrow next = t(1 + r_{\text{exp}}) = 0.5 * 0.8333 = 0.4166$$

discrete time
$$r_{\text{exp}} = \frac{\varepsilon}{\Delta t} = \frac{-3 \, ticks}{16 \, ticks} = -0.1875 \Rightarrow next = t \, (1 + r_{\text{exp}}) = 8 \, ticks * 0.8125 = 6.5 \, ticks \Rightarrow 1.8125 = 6.5 \, t$$

error on ε bounded by 1 tick error on $r_{\rm exp}$ depends on Δt

(possible to carry ← error to next computation)

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6 ticks

(0.375 s)

Wireless Sensor Networks

- 4. 1 Motivations
- 4.2 Sensor Node
- 4.3 Network Architecture
- 4.4 MAC Layer
- 4.5 Network Layer
- 4.6 Transport and Application Layers
- 4.7 IP for WSN ?
- 4.8 Programming Model / RTOS

Network Layer

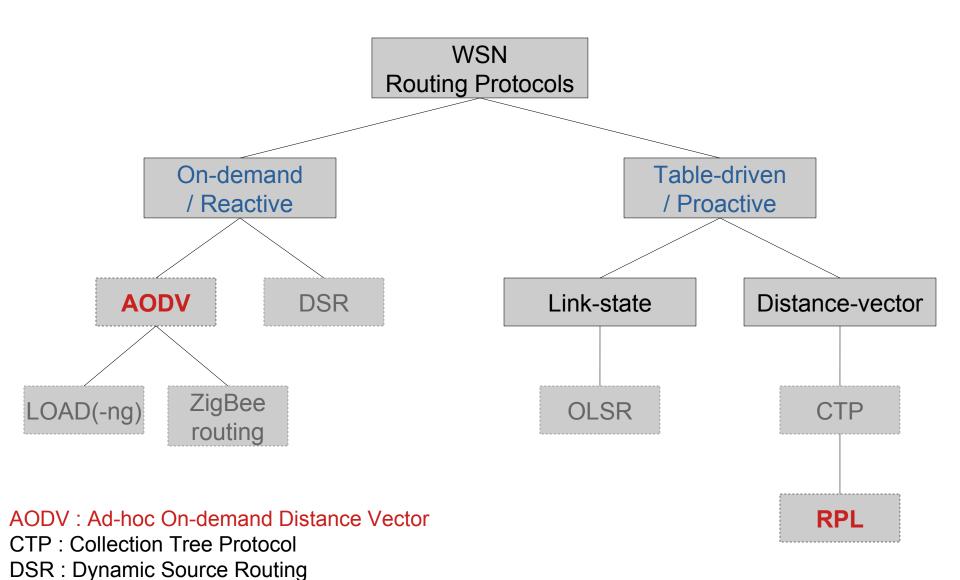
Objective: provide multi-hop paths

Many different approaches proposed in the literature. Only some of them covered in this course.

Challenges

- coverage: limited
- * scalability / density: 100s, 1000s, ... nodes
- energy consumption: network lifetime versus node lifetime (relay energy consumption is higher)
- * transmission media: high error-rate wireless link, not always ON
- node deployment: deterministic (pre-determined paths) or randomized
- data reporting model : time-driven (predictable), event-driven, query-driven, hybrid
- network dynamics: stationary vs mobile nodes
- constrained resources: full routing tables?

Network Layer



OLSR: Optimized Link-State Routing
RPL: Routing Protocol for Low-Power and Lossy Networks

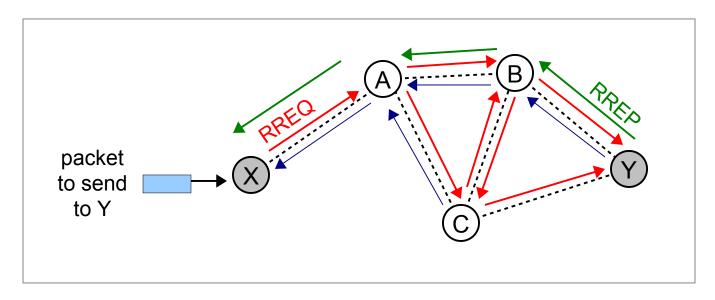
Wireless Sensor Networks

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 - RPL
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AODV Routing

- * Ad-hoc On-demand Distance Vector, RFC3561 (July 2003)
- Mesh networks routing protocol
- Works above IP, using UDP port 654
- Can be used on wired and wireless networks
- ★ 4 types of messages
 - Route Request (RREQ)
 - Route Reply (RREP)
 - Route Error (RERR)
 - Route-Reply Acknowledgment (RREP-ACK)
- Not specific to WSNs!
- Implementations available in RTOS such as TinyOS and Contiki

Intuition



- ★ X has no route to Y → on-demand route to Y
- X floods RREQ towards Y
- Reverse routes towards X maintained by nodes
- ★ Y <u>unicasts</u> RREP towards X (thanks to reverse routes)
- Distance Vector approach: lowest hop-count

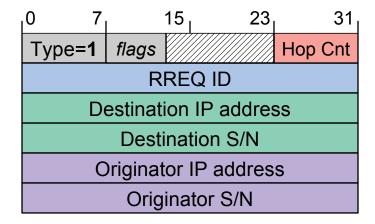
Message formats

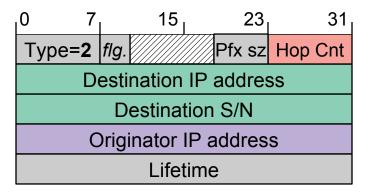
★ Route Request (RREQ)

- flags JRGDU
- D flag : destination only
- U flag: unknown dst. S/N

Route Reply (RREP)

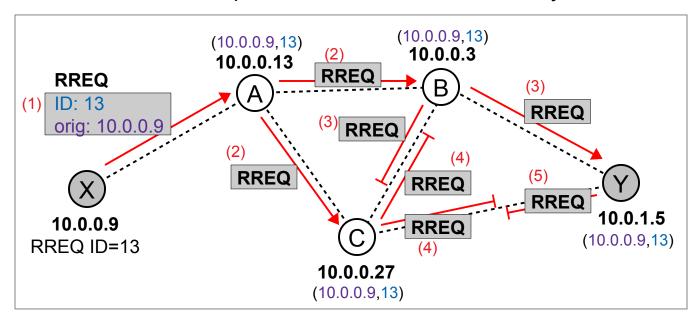
- flags RA
- A flag : RREP-ACK required
- prefix size in case of route aggregation ()





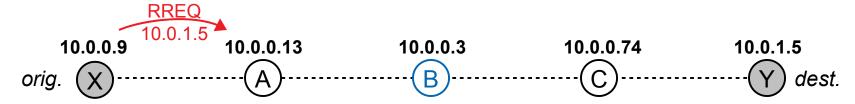
On-Demand Flooding of Route Request

- **RREQ sent in broadcast (dst. IP address =** 255.255.255.255)
- Increment RREQ ID before each new request
- Couple (RREQ ID, Orig. address) used as identifier during RREQ flooding
 - Each node buffers previous RREQ; filters already received RREQ



Routing Table

- Usual fields: dest. IP prefix, output interface, next-hop
- * Additional fields: sequence number (S/N), lifetime, hop count, flags, precursors



Routing	able of B						
Dest.	Output interface	Next-hop	Dst S/N	Hop Count	Expiration time	Flags	Precursors
10.0.0.9	en0	10.0.0.13	173	2	500	valid	10.0.74
10.0.0.13	en0	10.0.0.13	unknown	1	600	valid	
10.0.1.5	en0	10.0.1.74	47	3	900	valid	10.0.0.9
▼ Typ. a single interface		▼ Used for route freshness		current time upon insertice + lifetime	on u	▼ odes likely se local no ext-hop alo	de as

route (based on

replies sent)

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• Where do routes come from ?

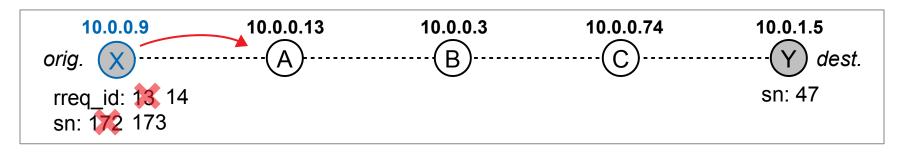
- * Forward routes towards destination, learned through RREP
 - valid dest, S/N taken from RREP
- Reverse routes towards the <u>originator</u>, learned via RREQ
 - valid orig. S/N taken from RREQ
- Routes to previous hops, learned through RREQ and RREP
 - these routes do not have a valid S/N

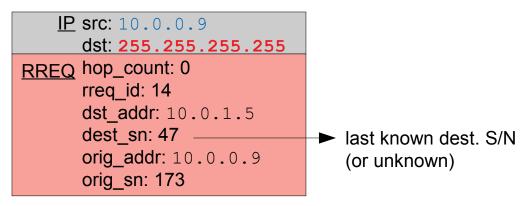
Updating routes

- ★ Let R the existing route, Q the new route
- * Route R is updated if
 (R.SN < Q.SN)
 or if
 (R.SN = Q.SN)
 and (R.hop count > Q.hop count)

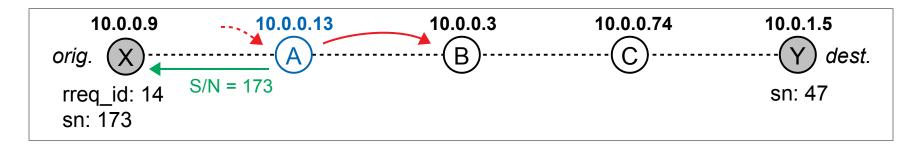
RREQ Generation - Originator

- increments RREQ ID
- increments local S/N
- send RREQ, broadcast





- RREQ Propagation Intermediate node
 - update / create route to originator (reverse route)
 - increase hop count; propagate

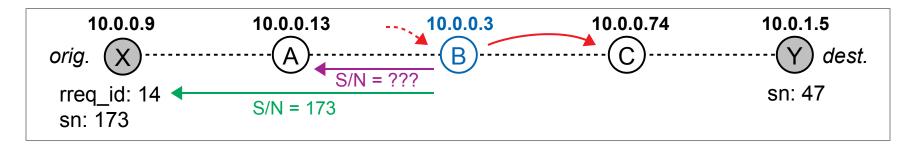


```
IP src: 10.0.0.13
    dst: 255.255.255.255

RREQ hop_count: 1
    rreq_id: 14
    dst_addr: 10.0.1.5
    dest_sn: 47
    orig_addr: 10.0.0.9
    orig_sn: 173
```

RREQ Propagation - Intermediate node

- update / create route to previous hop (reverse route)
- update / create route to originator (reverse route)
- increase hop count; propagate

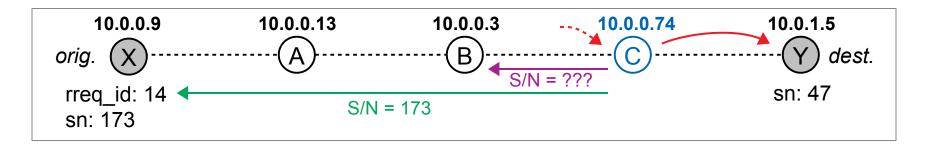


```
IP src: 10.0.0.3
dst: 255.255.255.255

RREQ hop_count: 2
rreq_id: 14
dst_addr: 10.0.1.5
dest_sn: 47
orig_addr: 10.0.0.9
orig_sn: 173
```

RREQ Propagation - Intermediate node

- update / create route to previous hop (reverse route)
- update / create route to originator (reverse route)
- increase hop count; propagate

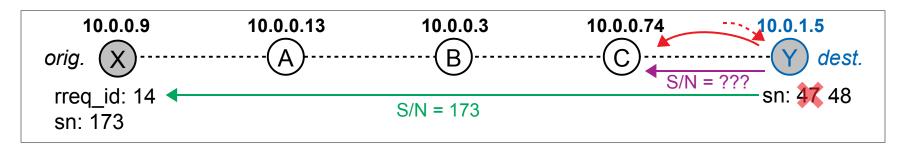


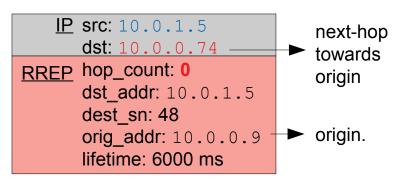
```
IP src: 10.0.0.74
dst: 255.255.255.255

RREQ hop_count: 3
rreq_id: 14
dst_addr: 10.0.1.5
dest_sn: 47
orig_addr: 10.0.0.9
orig_sn: 173
```

RREP Generation - Destination node

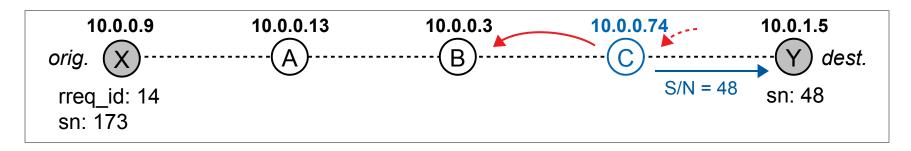
- update / create route to previous hop (reverse route)
- update / create route to originator (reverse route)
- increment S/N (if received RREQ has same dest. S/N)
- send RREP, unicast (lookup route towards originator)





RREP Propagation - Intermediate node

- update / create route to destination (forward route)
- increase hop count
- propagate to originator, unicast

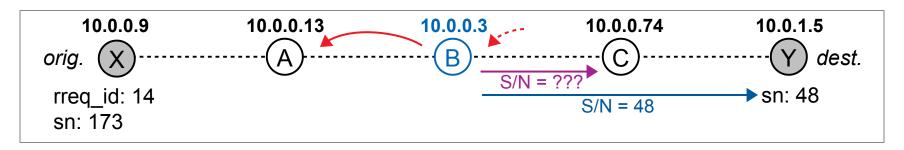


```
IP src: 10.0.0.74
dst: 10.0.0.3

RREP hop_count: 1
dst_addr: 10.0.1.5
dest_sn: 48
orig_addr: 10.0.0.9
lifetime: 6000 ms
```

RREP Propagation - Intermediate node

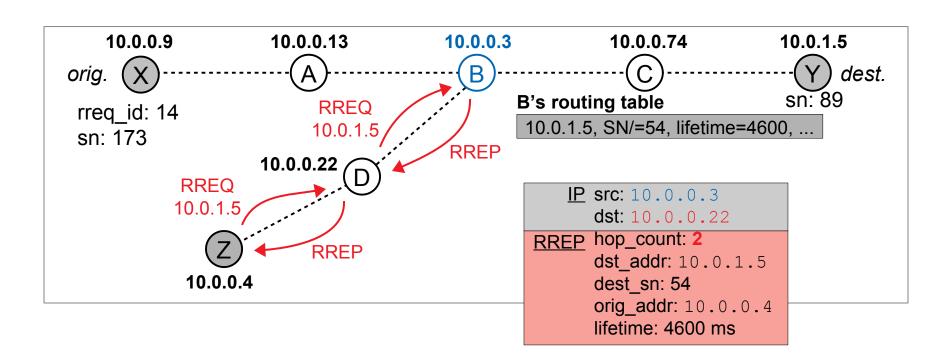
- update / create route to prev. hop (reverse route)
- update / create route to destination (forward route)
- increase hop count
- propagate to originator, unicast



```
IP src: 10.0.0.3
dst: 10.0.0.13

RREP hop_count: 2
dst_addr: 10.0.1.5
dest_sn: 48
orig_addr: 10.0.0.9
lifetime: 6000 ms
```

- RREP Generation Intermediate node
 - update / create reverse routes as usual
 - can send an RREP if active route towards destination and route S/N >= destination S/N in RREQ



Additional details

- Expanding ring search
 - RREQ scope limited by IP TTL
 - Initial TTL = TTL_START (e.g. 1)
 - If no RREP received, increase TTL by TTL_INCREMENT (e.g. 2) and send new RREQ until some TTL_THRESHOLD is reached

Link failures

- Hello messages (RREP) are sent regularly by a node on an active route towards its predecessor hop
- If no Hello is received within a specific time, the route is considered as invalid and a recovery procedure must start

Gratuitous RREP

Wireless Sensor Networks

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IPv6 Routing Protocol for Low-Power and Lossy Networks

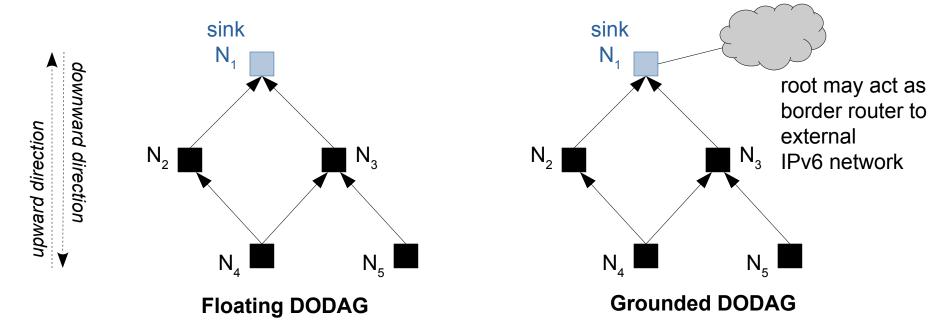
Introduction

- ★ IETF RFC6550 (March 2012)
- Lossy networks: packet drops extremely frequent, link can become unusable for quite some time
 - wireless links, but also power line (PLC)
- Mainly for collect application : traffic from nodes to sink
- Proactive: routes established before they are needed
- Distance-vector
- ★ Versatile: can adapt to various applications/environments ⇒ different link/node/path metrics (hop count, energy, link quality and constraints)
 - ⇒ different *objective functions* : how to combine metrics
- * Some principles inspired from Collection Tree Protocol (CTP): adaptive beaconing (trickle) and path validation



DODAG

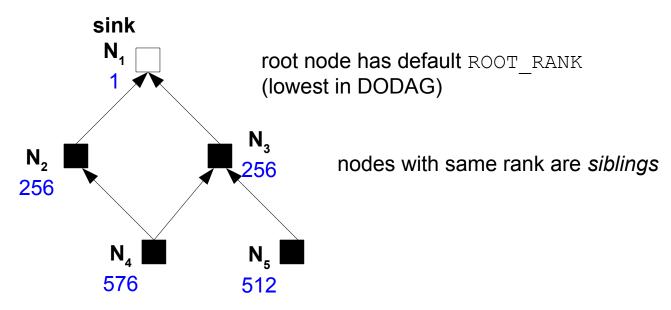
- Destination Oriented Directed Acyclic Graph
- Compared to a tree, allows multiple paths to root



- ★ DODAG may change accross time → version number
- ★ DODAG has unique identifier (DODAGID), typically one IPv6 address of the root
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Rank and parents

- Rank: scalar value assigned to each node
- Role of rank: determine routing position in DODAG based on objective function (OF)
- ***** Increasing monotonically : rank(x) > rank(parent(x))



Rank computed by node when it selects parent(s)

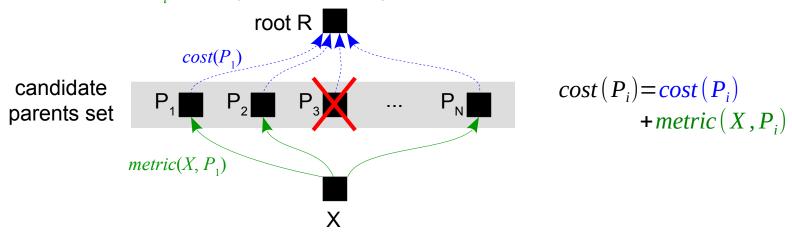
Objective function (OF)

- * Role
 - orders, selects candidate parents
 - computes node rank
- Routing protocols requirements
 - Traditional routing protocols : simple, implicit OF, e.g. minimize path cost
 - WSNs: more versatile, e.g. min. # of transmissions AND avoid energy constrained nodes
- OF standardized so far
 - OF0 Objective Function Zero (RFC6552, 3/2012)
 - MRHOF Minimum Rank with Hysteresis Objective Function (RFC6719, 9/2012)

<u>RPL</u>

Objective function "MRHOF"

- Simplified : assumes additive metric
- Compute cost to root through each candidate parent
 - cost(P_i) sent by P_i to X in RPL message
 - filter parents: too high cost / link metric; constraint mismatch
 - metric(X, P_i) locally computed by X



- pick parent with smallest cost
- <u>hysteresis</u>: change parent only if | cost old cost | > threshold

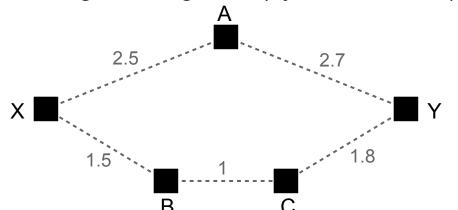
Metrics and attributes

- Metrics
 - Hop-Count
 - Link throughput
 - Link latency
 - Expected Transmission Count (ETX)
 - Link Quality Level (LQL): unknown / high / medium / low
- Attributes (used in constraints)
 - Link Color Attribute: define link classes
 - Node State and Attribute : e.g. node with limited CPU/memory resources
 - Node Energy (NE): mains / battery / harvesting



Expected Transmission Count (ETX)

- Average number of transmissions required to transmit successfully (including retransmissions)
- path ETX = sum of link ETX (additive metric)
- ★ ETX changes along time (dynamic metric)



ETX(X-A-Y) = 5.2ETX(X-B-C-Y) = 4.3

HopCount(X-A-Y) = 2HopCount(X-B-C-Y) = 3

- ETX computation = responsibility of link layer
 - could be computed at each transmission attempt
 - could rely on probes sent in both directions



ETX computation

Successful transmission implies success of DATA frame and of ACK frame



- Probes sent in both directions at regular interval
 - Success probability of forward and reverse probes can be computed (respectively $p_{\rm f}$ and $p_{\rm r}$)
 - A sends probes to B ; B counts received probes ; B computes $p_{\rm f} = {\rm count} / {\rm sent}$
- Note: in RPL, approach is different (to avoid sending probes)



ETX computation

- ★ What is the probability that k transmissions are required?
 - Single frame transmission = event of a Bernoulli trial (either success or failure)
 - Probability of single event

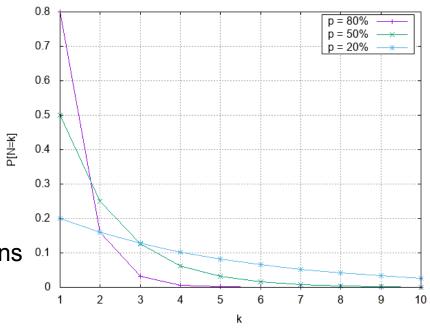
$$p = p_f \cdot p_r$$

 Probability that k transmissions required to obtain a success (geometric distribution)

$$P[N=k]=(1-p)^{k-1}p$$

Expected number of transmissions

$$E[N] = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} k \cdot P[N = k]$$
$$= \dots = \frac{1}{p} = ETX$$



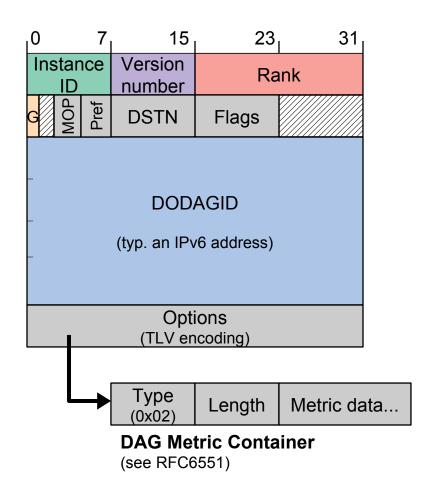
Messages

- ★ ICMPv6 messages
- ★ DIO DODAG Information Object
 - sent by nodes already in DODAG; initially only the root
 - destination address = FF02::1A (all-RPL-nodes multicast)
 - announce DODAG version, parameters, Instance ID, rank of sender, metrics and constraints
- ★ DIS DODAG Information Solicitation
- DAO DODAG Advertisement Object
 - used to build downward routes (from root to nodes)
 - always sent upwards (towards the root)
 - different modes, e.g. storing / non-storing
- ★ DAO-ACK



DIO Format

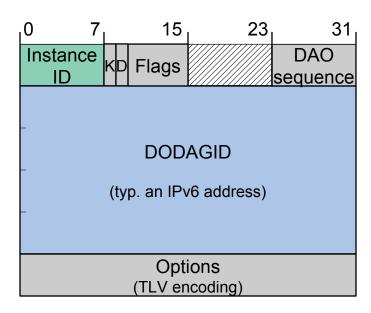
- Instance ID: identifies the DODAG instance
- Version number
- Rank: fixed-point representation⁽¹⁾
- ★ <u>G</u>: grounded DODAG
- DODAGID: identifies the DODAG
- Options

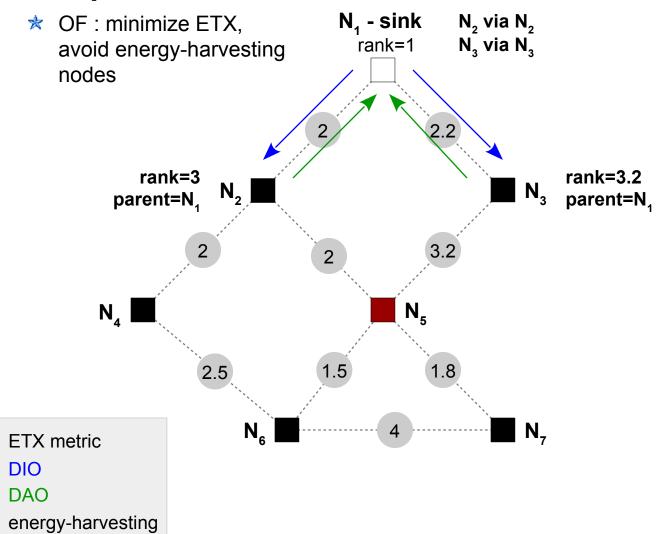


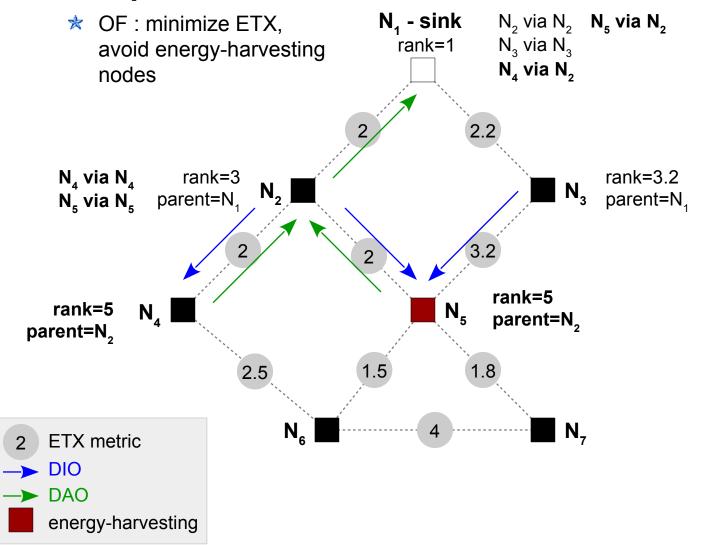


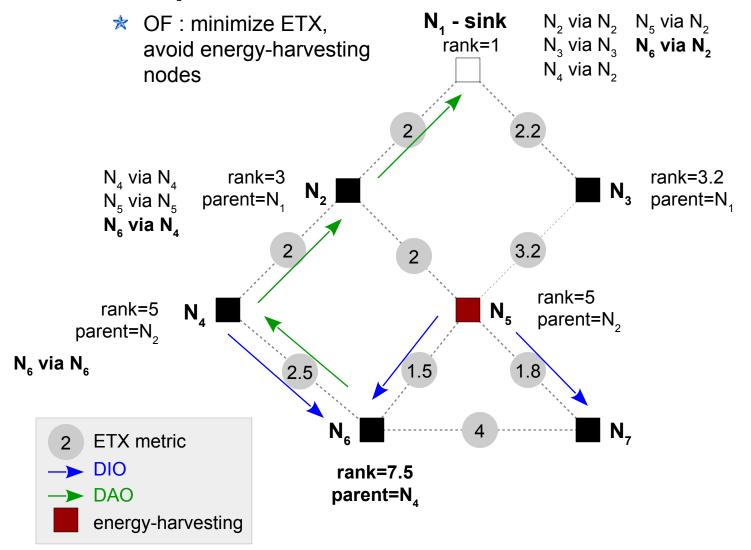
DAO Format

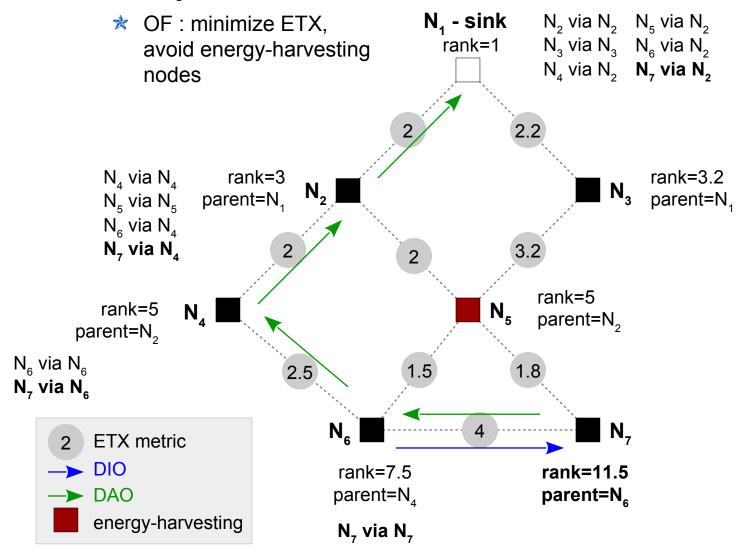
Instance ID: identifies the DODAG instance











RPL – Adaptive beaconing

Trickle Algorithm

★ Idea

 when nodes need to share information, avoid sending too many times the same information

Principle

- when node detects inconsistency: send more frequently
- while no inconsistency: send less and less frequently
- notion of inconsistency is context dependent. Here, let's say it is a version number

IETF RFC6206 (March 2011)

- based on a paper by Levis et al (NSDI 2004)
- "To trickle" → "couler goutte-à-goutte"
- used in RPL for sending DIO

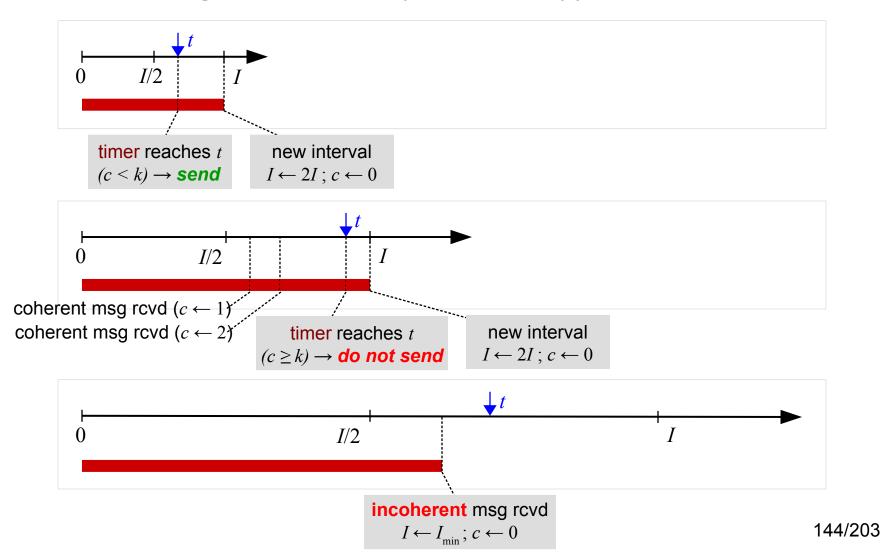
RPL – Adaptive beaconing

Trickle Algorithm

- Parameters
 - $[I_{\min}, I_{\max}]$ Range of possible transmit intervals (in seconds)
 - *k* amount of redundancy required (an integer value)
- ★ Variables
 - counter *c* (for coherent messages received)
 - timer expiration t
 - current transmit interval I (s.t. $I_{\min} \le I \le I_{\max}$)
- * Rules
 - new interval : $c \leftarrow 0$; select t in [I/2, I]
 - when consistent message received : $c \leftarrow c + 1$
 - when <u>timer expires</u>; if (c < k) send message
 - when interval expires (t = I); $I \leftarrow min(2I, I_{max})$; new interval
 - when inconsistent message received : $I \leftarrow I_{\min}$; new interval

RPL – Adaptive beaconing

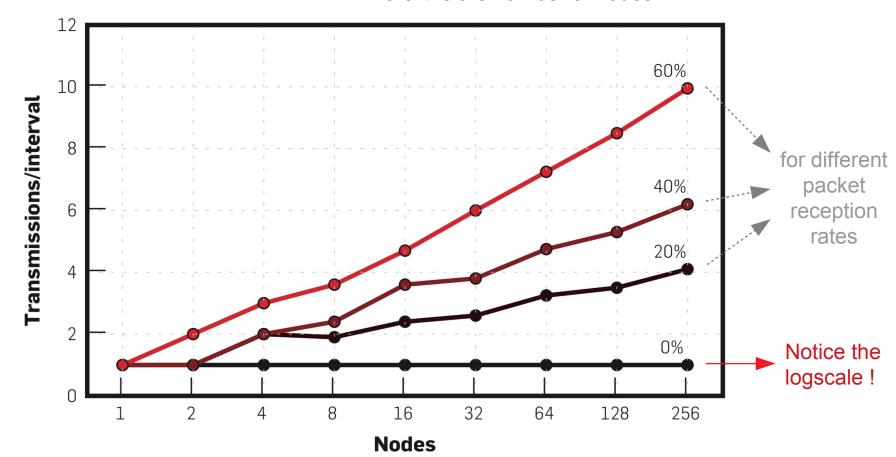
• Trickle Algorithm k = 2 (redundancy)



RPL – Adaptive beaconing

Trickle Algorithm

Number of transmissions per interval grows in $O(\log(n))$ where n is the number of nodes



Wireless Sensor Networks

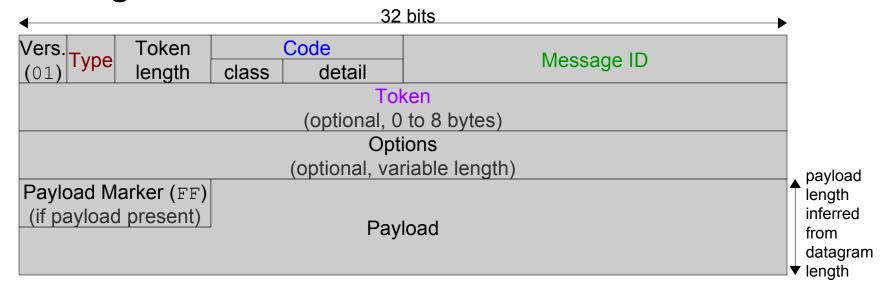
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Application Layer

Constrained Application Protocol (CoAP)

- * RFC7252 (June 2014)
- Replacement for HTTP
- Uses UDP instead of TCP
- ★ Default port 5683
- Compact messages: binary headers instead of ASCII headers
- * Asynchronous communications possible
- ★ Supports same methods as HTTP (GET, POST, PUT, DELETE) → can be used for RESTful applications
- ★ New URI scheme: coap://...

Message format



Type: CONfirmable (0), NON-confirmable (1), ACKnowledgment (2), ReSeT (3)

Code: noted c.dd (where c=class, dd=detail)

class: request (0), successful response (2), client error response (4),

server error response (5)

requests: GET (0.01), POS (0.02), PUT (0.03), DELETE (0.04)

<u>Message ID</u>: used to detect duplicates and to match acknowledgments
<u>Token</u>: used to correlate requests and responses
(token generated by client, echoed by server)

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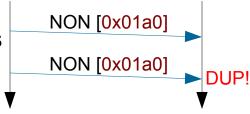
Simple reliable message transmission

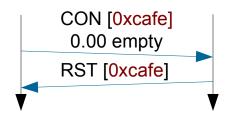
- * Retransmissions
 - for CONfirmable messages only
 - acknowledgments (stop-and-wait)
 - use of Message ID to match message/ACK
 - retransmissions with exponential back-off
- Duplicate detection
 - for CONfirmable and NON-confirmable messages
 - use of Message ID as sequence number
- ★ ReSeT messages
 - sent when received CON / NON message cannot be processed
 - testing liveness of remote endpoint: send empty CON message, remote endpoint should reply with ReSeT



CON [0x7d34]

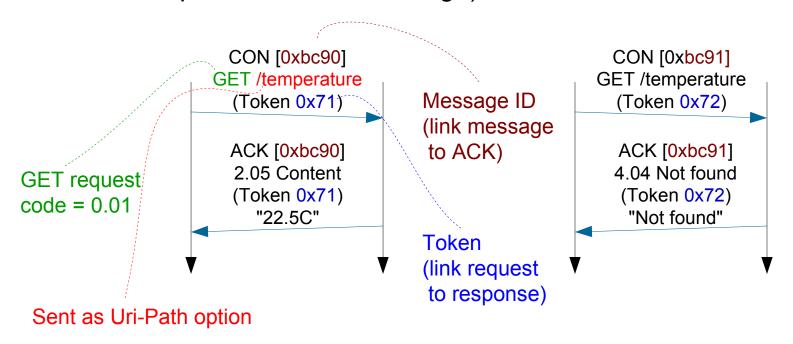
ACK [0x7d34]





Example exchanges

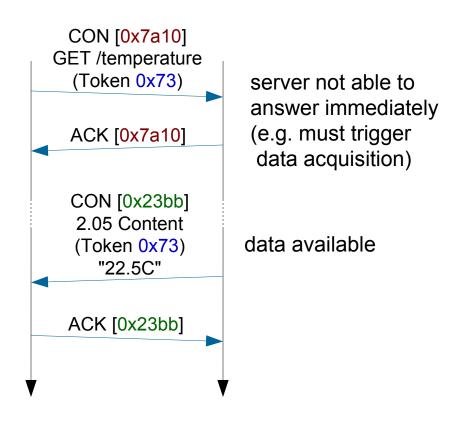
CONfirmable requests with piggybacked responses (ACK and response in same message)



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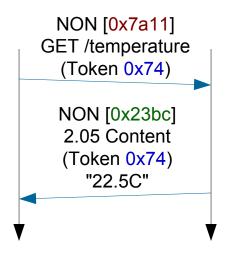
Example exchanges

CONfirmable request with separate response



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- Example exchanges
 - NON-confirmable request

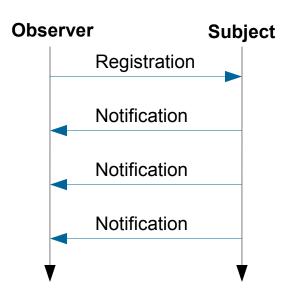


<u>source</u>: RFC7252

CoAP – Observing resources

Observer design pattern

- * RFC7641, September 2015
- Asynchronous mechanism to notify registered observers of a change in resource



Subject (server) might support complex conditions for notifications such as

coap://server/temperature/critical?above=42

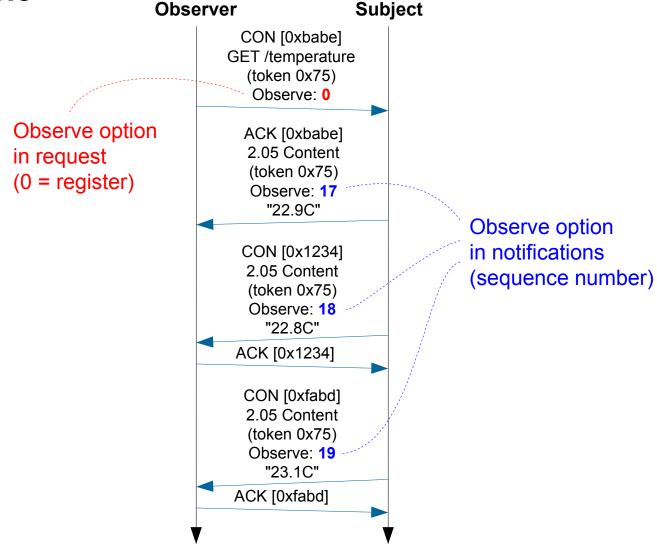
CoAP – Observing resources

Observe option

- ★ Number = 6
- Name = Observe
- ★ Format = uint
- ★ Length = 0-3 bytes
- Possible values for requests
 - Register (0): adds the requestor to the list of observers
 - Deregister (1): removes the requestor from the list of observers
- Values for responses
 - Sequence number used to detect reordering
 - based on 24-bit "serial number arithmetic" (RFC1982)

CoAP – Observing resources

Example



CoAP - Implementations

- Copper (Cu : CoAP user-agent)
 - CoAP protocol handler for Firefox
 - http://people.inf.ethz.ch/mkovatsc/copper.php
- Californium (Cf : CoAP framework)
 - Java implementation (client and server)
 - https://github.com/eclipse/californium
- libcoap
 - C implementation for constrained devices
 - http://libcoap.sourceforge.net

Wireless Sensor Networks

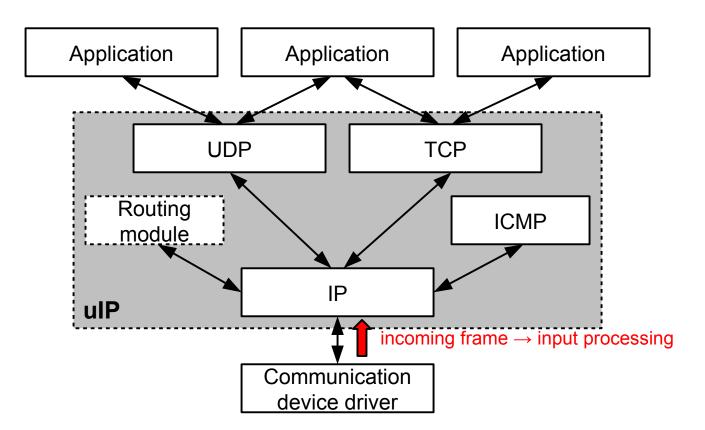
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 - ★ uIP
 - ★ 6LoWPAN
- 4.8 Programming Model / RTOS

Introduction

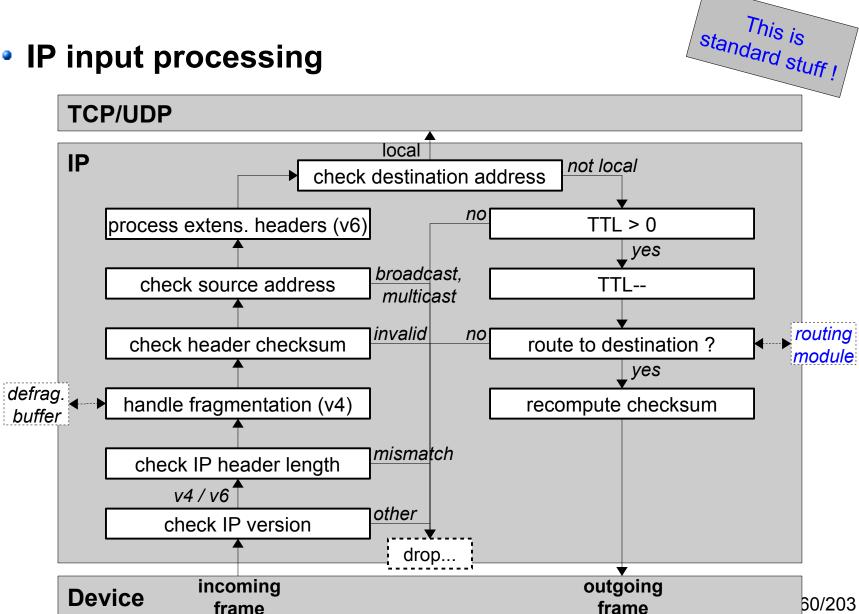
- Long belief: IP too complex and heavyweight to be used in small networked embedded systems
 - MCU has limited memory/processing resources
- Most control networks use proprietary protocols
 - CAN, Profibus, Modbus, X10, LonTalk, ...
 - Specific gateway required for Internet connectivity
- ★ Belief changed in 2001 with 1st version of a working prototype of a complete IP stack for an 8-bit MCU
 - memory footprint⁽¹⁾ as low as 10 KB flash / 1 KB RAM
 - includes IP, ICMP, UDP and TCP

Principles of operation

- Processes frames from comm. device driver
- Processes packets from application(s)
- Does periodic processing (e.g. timers for retransmissions)



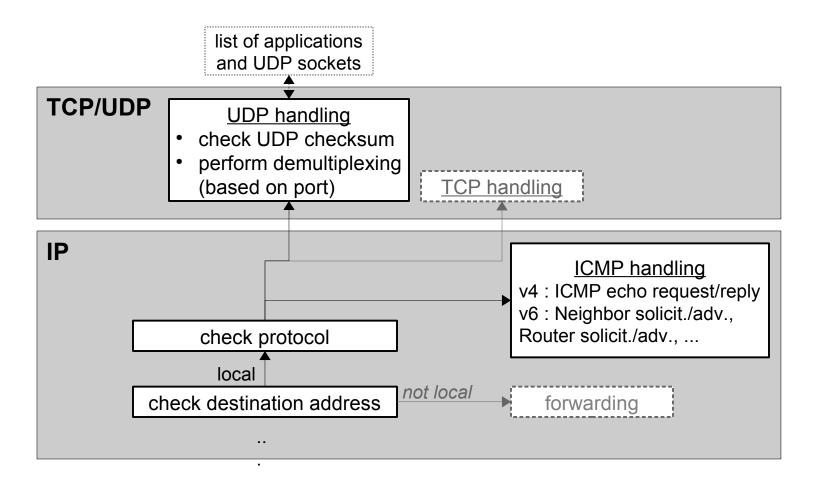
IP input processing



Routing module

- uIP does not mandate a particular routing mechanism
- for every IP datagram to be forwarded, route lookup is delegated to routing module
- vIP can therefore be associated with any possible routing mechanism (specified at compile time)
- forwarding table can be destination table, prefix table/tree, hash table, cache with recent results of on-demand routing, ...

Above layer protocols



Differs from BSD UNIX stack!

TCP input processing

- check TCP checksum
- check (src/dst IP, src/dst port) against list of <u>active</u> connections
 - check seq. # against expected seq. #. If they differ, drop segment (not enough memory to buffer un-ordered segments + sender will retransmit later).
 - update RTT estimate
 - act according to state of TCP FSM
- if no corresponding active connection and segment has SYN flag (alone), check against <u>list of listening ports</u>
 - remember sender's initial sequence number
 - remember sender's MSS option (if present)
 - send a TCP segment with SYN and ACK flags

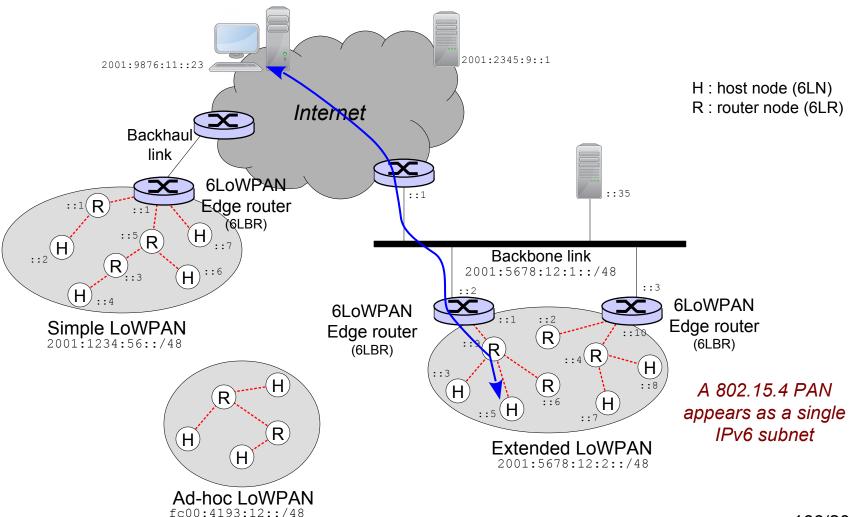
TCP processing

- ★ Recall : TCP's sliding window mechanism allows to pipeline multiple packets at a time and improve efficiency
 - Throughput ≈ W/RTT
- Drawback : a sliding window requires a lot of memory !
- uIP does not use a sliding window
 - will send a single unack'd segment at a time (stop and wait)
 - does not affect interoperability or standards compliance
 - affects efficiency (max. achievable throughput ~1MSS/RTT)

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 - * uIP
 - ★ 6LoWPAN
- 4.8 Programming Model / RTOS

Architecture



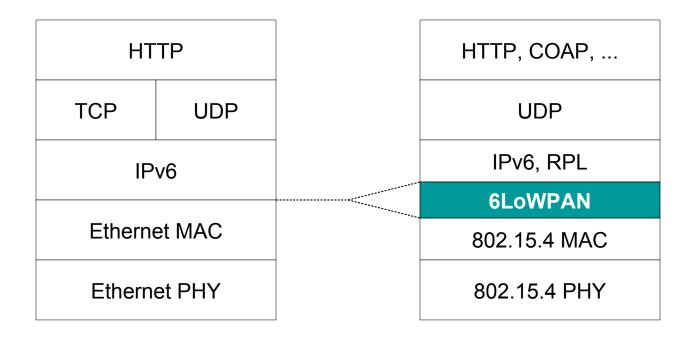
166/203

• How to efficiently support IPv6 on WSNs ?

- ★ More generally on Low-Power Lossy Networks⁽¹⁾
- ★ Saving power → duty-cycle
 - IP assumes always ON links
- ★ Limited data rate ~ 100kbps⁽²⁾
- ★ Limited frame size ~ 100 bytes⁽²⁾
 - IPv4 assumes MTU ≥ 576 bytes
 - IPv6 assumes MTU ≥ 1280 bytes
- Low reliability
 - wireless links, node failures, duty-cycling
- Multi-hop network
 - IPv6 neighbor discovery assumes link = single broadcast domain

Adaptation layer

- ★ IETF standard
- * RFC4944, Sept. 2007; RFC6282, Sept. 2011
- focuses on IPv6 only



Services of adaptation layer

- Header compression
 - omit from IP/UDP headers fields that can be inferred from the MAC header, are common values, or can be derived from a shared context
- * Fragmentation
 - IEEE 802.15.4 frame length = 127 bytes
 - perform fragmentation and reassembly below IP layer
- Stateless auto-configuration
 - Helps IPv6 Neighbor Discovery to operate on a non broadcast domain

Header format

- ★ Approach = stacked sub-headers
- Different sub-headers
 - Mesh addressing
 - Fragmentation
 - Header compression

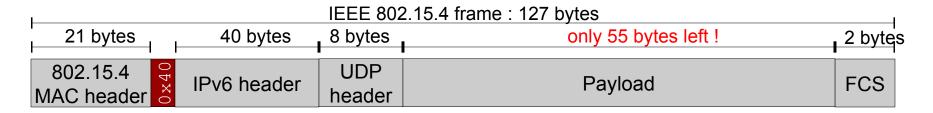
11100000-11100111

802.15.4 KMAC header	6LoWPAN neader compr.	IPv6 payload		
802.15.4 SMAC header	6LoWPAN		FCS	
	Value	Description		
dispatch bytes	00000000-0011111	Not a LoWPAN frame		
	01000000	Uncompressed IPv6 datagram		
	01000010	HC1 Compressed IPv6		
	10000000-10111111	Mesh header		
	11000000-11000111	First fragmentation header		

Subsequent fragmentation header

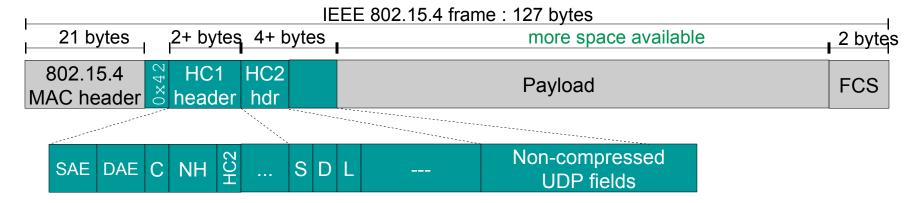
170/203

- Header compression (HC1, HC2)
 - ★ IPv6 and transport (UDP/TCP/ICMP) headers take too much spacein 802.15.4 frame



- Principle: Optimize for the most common cases
- * Header fields that can be derived from context are omitted
- Other fields are sent unmodified
- Stateless compression: nodes do not have to maintain compression staten

Header compression (HC1, HC2)



★ HC1 : IPv6 header compression

SAE/DAE: Source/Destination Address Encoding
C (Traffic Class) = 1: traffic class and flow label are zero
NH (Next Header) = 01 (UDP); 10 (ICMP); 11 (TCP); 00 (sent uncompressed)
HC2=1: HC2 header (UDP)
hop-limit not compressed

hop-limit not compressed

length derived from 802.15.4 frame length

HC2 : UDP header compression

S/D/L : source/destination port, length of UDP datagram = 1 : compressed checksum not compressed 172/203

Header compression (HC1, HC2)

Common cases for address compression

Prefix	Interface ID
--------	--------------

- link-local addresses → prefix = FE80::/64
- IPv6 addresses derived from MAC (EUI-64) → Interface ID already known from MAC header

SAE / DAE	Prefix	Interface ID	Size req.
00	uncompressed	uncompressed	16
01	uncompressed	derived from MAC	8
10	link-local	uncompressed	8
11	link-local	derived from MAC	0

Other compression schemes than HC1 exist to compress the prefix part (shared context)

Fragmentation

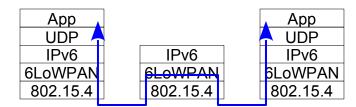
- Used to send larger IPv6 datagrams over multiple 802.15.4 frames
- Fragmentation header contains data required to allow reassembly

Routing in a 6LoWPAN

- ★ Route-over
 - routing at the IP layer, using RPL
 - fragmentation and reassembly at each hop

★ Mesh-under

 routing at the data-link layer (actually in the 6LoWPAN adaption layer)



6LoWPAN

802.15.4

App

UDP

IPv6

6LoWPAN

802.15.4

- requires use of mesh header
- fragmentation and reassembly only at end hosts

App UDP

IPv6

6LoWPAN

802.15.4

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- 4.8 Programming Model / RTOS
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 - Contiki

Objectives

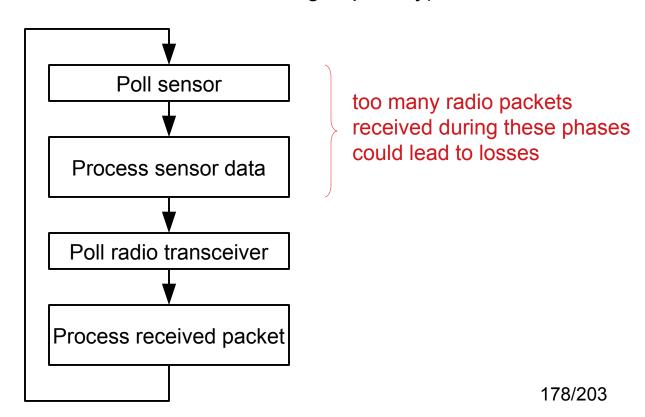
- Understand how networked embedded systems programming differ from regular "application programming"
 - not much OS support
 - sequential vs event-driven
- ★ Get a touch of recent WSN-oriented RTOS
 - TinyOS, ContikiOS, OpenWSN, RIOT-OS, ...
- For a recent survey, see e.g.
 - Operating Systems for Wireless Sensor Networks: A Survey, Muhammad Omer Farooq and Thomas Kunz, MDPI Sensors 11(6), 2011

Operating System support

- ★ Traditional application programming heavily relies on services provided by an Operating System (OS)
 - control/protection of access to resources
 - management of resources allocation to different users/processes
 - support for concurrent execution of multiple processes
 - communication between processes
- ★ This is different for WSN nodes
 - Microcontrollers usually do not have resources for a full-blown OS (no MMU, limited memory, ...)
 - Concurrency requirements are different: single user, limited number of tasks
 - Scarce memory often requires static allocation or ad-hoc dynamic allocation schemes

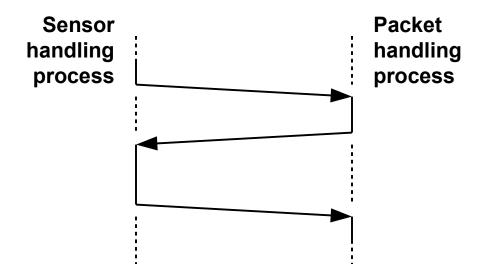
Sequential Programming

- Traditional applications are often designed around a sequential programming model
 - This model could lead to either sensor data or radio packet losses (the radio transceiver has limited buffering capability)



Process-based Concurrency

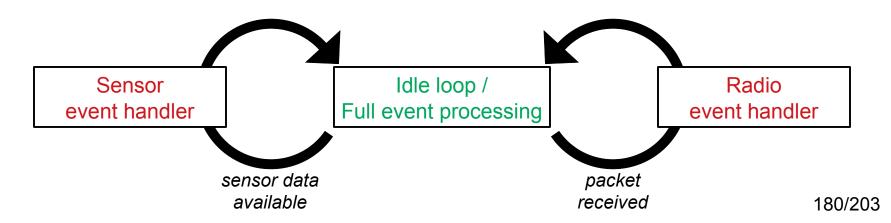
OS takes care of CPU sharing and provides a "parallel" execution environment



- ★ Issues
 - each process has its own stack
 - → not appropriate for memory constrained devices
 - context-switching induces significant overhead
 - → CPU/energy consumption + risk of missing sensor data / radio packet

Event-based Programming

- Introduce reactive nature of WSN node into the programming model
- Operations Principles
 - Idle loop
 - do nothing / low priority processing
 - go to sleep when adequate
 - Event handlers
 - quickly process incoming events
 - e.g. sensor data available, packet has arrived, ...
 - store required information to later fully process the event



Event-based Programming

- Operations Principles
 - An event handler can interrupt any normal code
 - An event handler cannot interrupt another event handler
 - would require costly context-switch (saving stack + registers)
 - Event handler run to completion
 - these are short pieces of code
- ★ There are thus only 2 execution contexts
 - one for time-critical event handlers (no interrupt)
 - one for "normal code" (can be interrupted)

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Case Study : TinyOS

- Features
 - Framework for event-based programming (event-based paradigm with only 2 contexts)
 - Hide complexity of managing multiple communicating statemachines
 - Allow modular design (e.g. replace one state machine with another)
 - Extension to C language : nesC dialect
- http://www.tinyos.net/

TinyOS: The central concept of <u>Component</u>

Interface

- Can handle commands
- Can issue commands
- Can handle events
- Can fire events
- Command/event handlers must run to conclusion

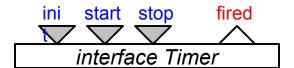
TimerComponent setRate fired fired fired fired

★ Tasks

- must run to conclusion, can be interrupted by handlers
- tasks are atomic to each other
- tasks are triggered by event handlers
- scheduling of tasks done with a power-aware FIFO scheduler
 - (shuts down the node when there is no task to execute)

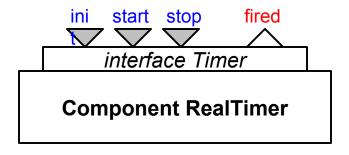
TinyOS : Component interfaces

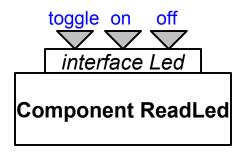
Events/commands can be grouped into interfaces.



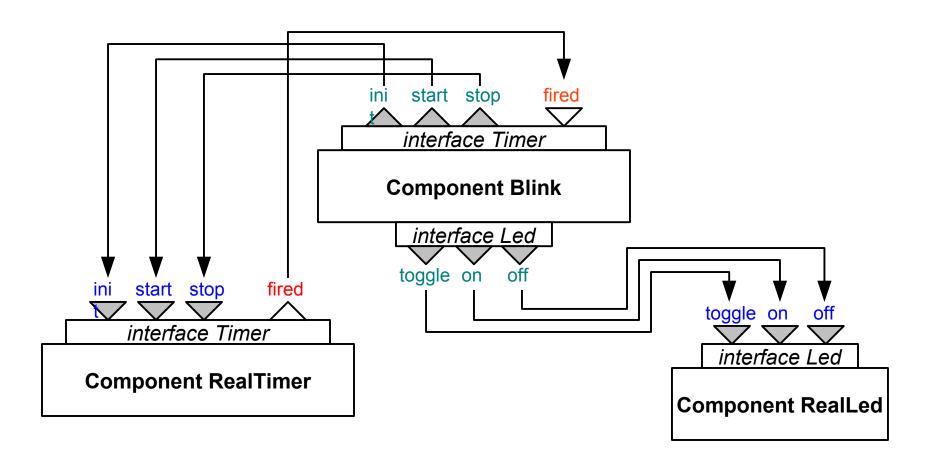


- Components provide and/or use interfaces
 - a single component can use/provide multiple interfaces
 - components can have their interfaces wired together





TinyOS: Wiring Components



TinyOS : nesC language

- ★ C language extension that allows to define components, interfaces, ... and wire them together
- Compiled to C

```
configuration BlinkAppC {
}
implementation {
  components BlinkC, RealLedC;
  components RealTimerC;

BlinkC.Timer → RealTimerC.Timer;
  BlinkC.Led → RealLed.Led;
}
```

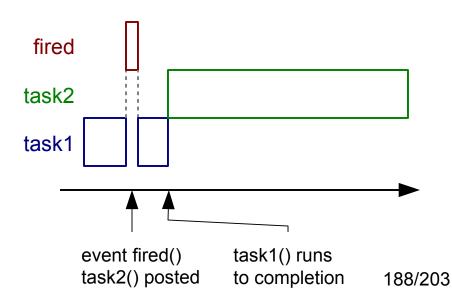
```
interface Led {
  async command void on();
  async command void off();
  async command void toggle();
}
```

```
interface Timer {
  command void init();
  command void start(uint32_t p);
  command void stop();
  event void fired();
}
```

TinyOS : Execution Model

- Concept of task
 - code that runs to completion (can be interrupted by events)
 - tasks are posted by events/commands (put them in the scheduler's queue)
 - tasks handle computation that can be deferred to later (similar to interrupt bottom halves / deferred procedure calls)

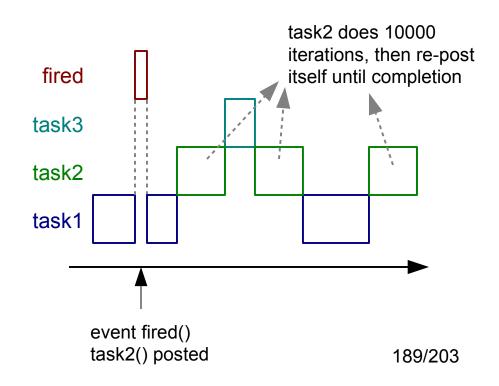
```
task void task2 {
  for (int i= 0; i < 10000000; i++) {
    /* ... heavy computation ... */
  }
}
event void fired() {
  post task2();
}</pre>
```



TinyOS : Execution Model

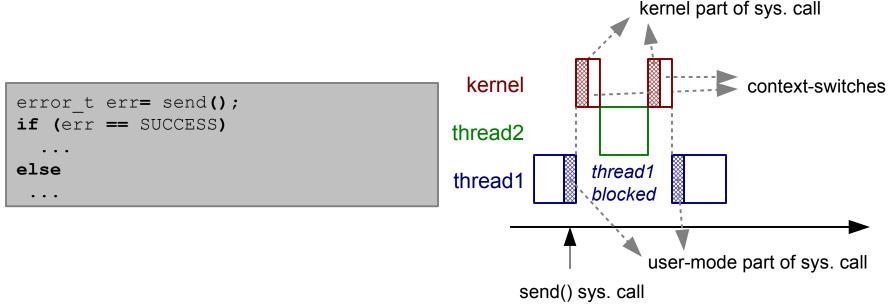
★ If a task does really heavy computation, it might be interesting to split it in smaller parts to give opportunity to other tasks to be executed → responsibility of task itself

```
task void task2 {
  static int i= 0;
  int start= i;
  for (; (i < start+10000) &&
      (i < 1000000); i++) {
    /* ... heavy computation ... */
  if (i >= 1000000)
    i = 0;
  } else {
    post task2();
event void fired() {
 post task2();
```



TinyOS : Split-Phase Programming

- Most operating systems support long operations through blocking system calls
 - calling process / thread put to sleep until operation done
 - context-switch required → requires CPU resources :(
 - each process / thread keeps its own stack → requires memory resources :(

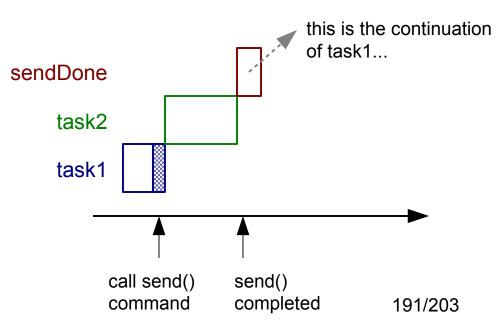


TinyOS : Split-Phase Programming

- TinyOS does not provide blocking system calls (to avoid complex and costly context switches).
 - Long operations have to be implemented in multiple phases
 - Similar to the use of callback functions BUT much more efficient as wiring is static (known at compile time)

```
/* first phase */
send();

/* second phase */
event void sendDone(error_t err) {
  if (err == SUCCESS)
    ...
  else
   ...
}
```



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Contiki

- Another open-source operating system for networked embedded systems
- Shares similarities with TinyOS in term of features
- Uses a different approach to deal with the event-driven programming paradigm: protothreads
- http://www.sics.se/contiki

Event-driven versus Multi-threading

	<u>Event-driven</u>	<u>Multi-threading</u>
Blocking	Not possible	Possible
Preemption	Not possible	Possible
Code complexity	State machine (logic harder to grasp)	Sequential code (easier to understand)
Code compactness	Compact	Larger code overhead (thread management)
Memory efficiency	efficient (e.g. FSM's state)	Less efficient (each thread has its own stack)
Locking	usually not a problem	Problematic (dead-locks)

Contiki : Protothreads

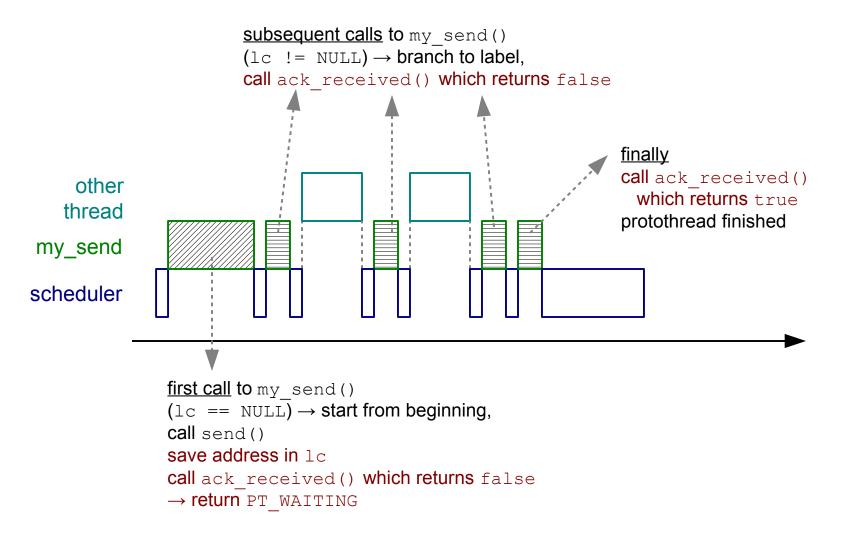
- A simple mechanism to write event-driven programs as if they were based on OS multi-threading support (similar to stackless coroutines)
- Rely on simple primitives
 - PT INIT(pt): initialize protothread
 - PT BEGIN (pt) : delimit start of protothread
 - PT END(pt): delimit end of protothread
 - PT_WAIT_UNTIL (pt, cond): wait until condition is true (implements pseudo-blocking condition)
 - PT_YIELD(pt): immediately returns control to scheduler (implements unconditional blocking)
 - ...

Contiki : Protothreads

- Details: primitives implemented as C macros
 - using labels as values, a gcc feature, (http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/Labels-as-Values.html)
 - or using a switch statement



Contiki : Protothreads



Wireless Sensor Networks

Conclusion

- WSN requirements / environments challenge many assumptions of classical IP networks
 - Stringent resource constraints (energy, CPU, memory)
 - → duty-cycling, special MAC protocols
 - Lossy links, frequent topology changes
 - → scalable MAC and routing protocols
 - → adaptations to transport protocol (e.g. TCP)
 - No OS support, Event-driven environment (data, radio)
 - → new programming paradigms
 - → IP still feasible (uIP, and 6LOWPAN)

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