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Master Thesis

Contiki applications for Z1 motes for 6LowPAN

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1 Introduction

From the start of the computer networks, to the mobile applications nowadays, the amount of information shared has been constantly increasing. We have all kind of devices, from the big servers in datacenters, the TVs at home, mobile phones, car sensors, ...

The Internet Of Things (IOT) refers to the idea of connecting all the “things” to the Internet. By “things”, it refers to any ordinary object that can be useful getting information.

These “things” should be connected by an embedded device, capable to connect to the Internet in one side, and get information from the “thing” on the other.

1.1 Motivation and Problem Statement

There has been an increased research and development for the Smart Cities. The smart cities objective is to gather information from the city, to enhance quality and performance of urban services, to reduce costs and resource consumption, and to engage more effectively and actively with its citizens.

This project is intended to approach two goals, to be used as a starting point for anyone who wants to use the Contiki OS with the Z1 motes, and to build a simple application for the Smart Cities, to collect data from sensors, and sending it to an information center.

1.2 Thesis Objectives

The first objective of this thesis is to document the capabilities of the Z1 motes and the Contiki OS for the IOT, by building applications to gather data from sensors and the network capabilities both from the motes and the OS.

Secondly, to build an application using the Z1 motes, and the Contiki OS, using COAP(Constrained Application Protocol) and 6LoWPan(IPv6 over Low power Wireless Personal Area Networks) to retrieve information from the motes, and connect them to Sentilo, an open source sensor and actuator platform.

1.3 Thesis Structure

This document is divided in two parts.

First, the description of the main tools used to create the experimental environments. A description of the Contiki OS, the Z1 motes, and the protocols used to communicate, IEEE 802.14.5, 6LowPAN and CoAP. The a brief description of the sensor data collector Sentilo

Secondly, a description of the environment setup, and an explanation of how it works.

Finally, conclusions and future work is presented.

2 Wireless Sensors Networks

Wireless sensor networks combines 3 concepts together:

$$\textit{sensor} + \textit{CPU} + \textit{radio}.$$

However, combining sensors, radio and CPU's together requires an extensive understanding of the hardware components as well as modern networking technologies to connect the devices. Each node needs to have the necessary tools to send data over the radio channel, while meeting the requirements of size, cost and power consumption.

The research and development of this kind of devices, has been increased over the last years. There are a number of operating systems focused on providing communications stacks and at the same time focused on saving power. On the other hand, the devices integrating a CPU and a radio transceiver have become more available and efficient.

2.1 Composition

There are four main types of nodes in a WSN structure.

Sensor nodes: These nodes are in charge of collecting data, and sending it to the network. These nodes have 2 parts, the *sensors board* and the *mote*. The sensor board, contains the sensor to acquire data (light, temperature, humidity,...) The mote integrates the CPU and the radio transceiver.

Route nodes: Nodes with the only purpose of making possible the link between the sensor nodes and the rest of the network. They work as a repeater of the radio signal, and implement routing tasks.

Server station: It is the concentrator of the data sent over the network. It is a node itself, or a node attached to a more powerful machine, able to manage lots of data.

Gateway: Connects the WSN to an external network, if needed.

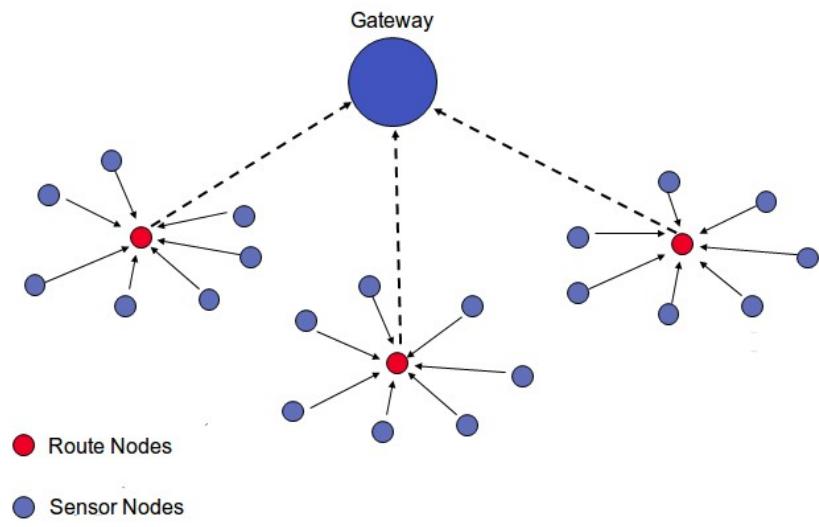


Fig. 1: WSN composition

The transmission of sensor's data is done by all the nodes of the network. Each data packet, is sent to the server station hop by hop. Reducing the transmission power in the nodes, may reduce the power consumption on it, but it may require a larger number of hops to arrive to the server station.

3 Technology Standards

3.1 Physical and MAC Layer (IEEE 802.15.4)

At present days, there are several technology standards. Each one is designed for a specific need in the market.

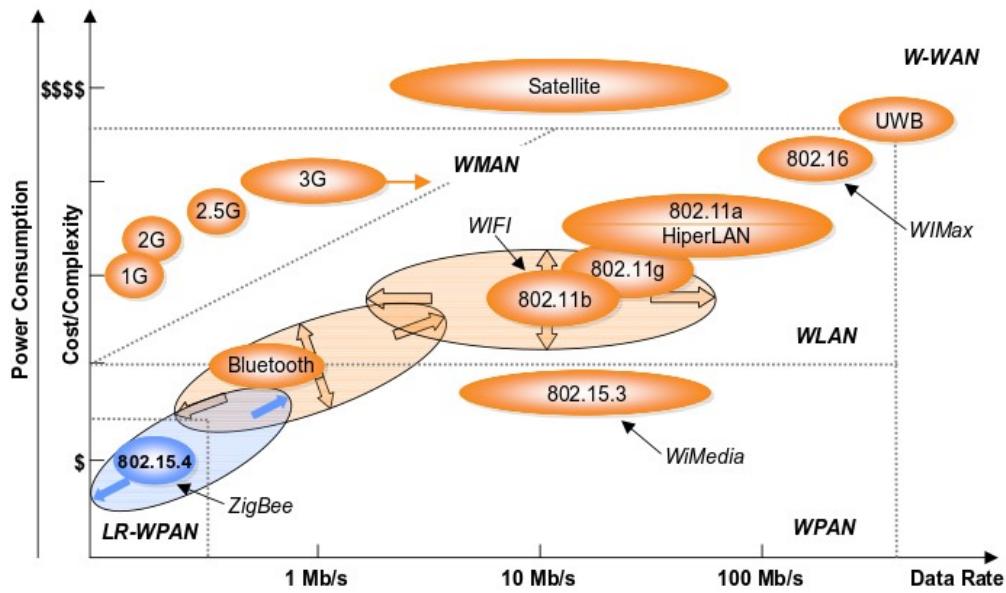


Fig. 2: Standard Technology Map 2015

For the Wireless Sensor Networks, the aim is to transmit little information, in a small range, with a small power consumption and low cost.

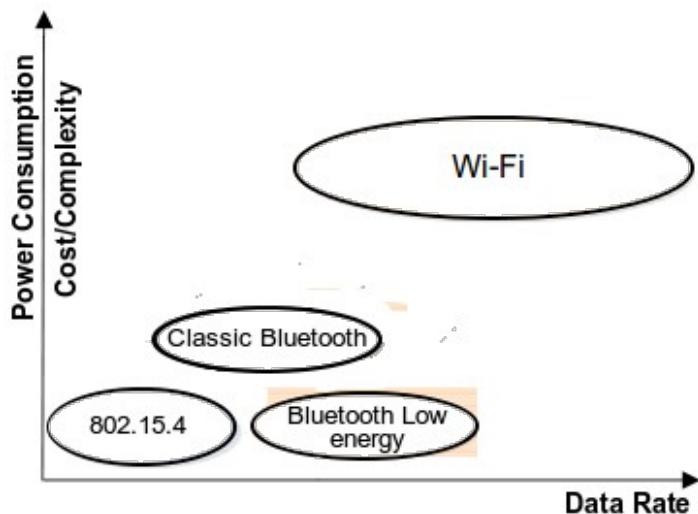


Fig. 3: Standard Technology Options

	ZIGBEE	Bluetooth Low Energy	Bluetooth Classic	Wi-Fi
IEEE Standard	802.15.4	802.15.1	802.15.1	802.11(a,b,g,n)
Range	10-30m	50m	~10-100 m	~100 m
Data throughput	<0.25 Mbps	1Mbps	1 to 3 Mbps	~2-11Mbps
Power Consumption	Very Low	Very Low	Medium	High

Tab. 1: Technologies Comparison

The IEEE 802.15.4 standard offers physical and media access control layers for low-cost, low-speed, low-power Wireless Personal Area Networks (WPANs)

3.1.1 Physical Layer

The standard operates in 3 different frequency bands:

- 16 channels in the 2.4GHz ISM band
- 10 channels in the 915MHz ISM band
- 1 channel in the European 868MHz band

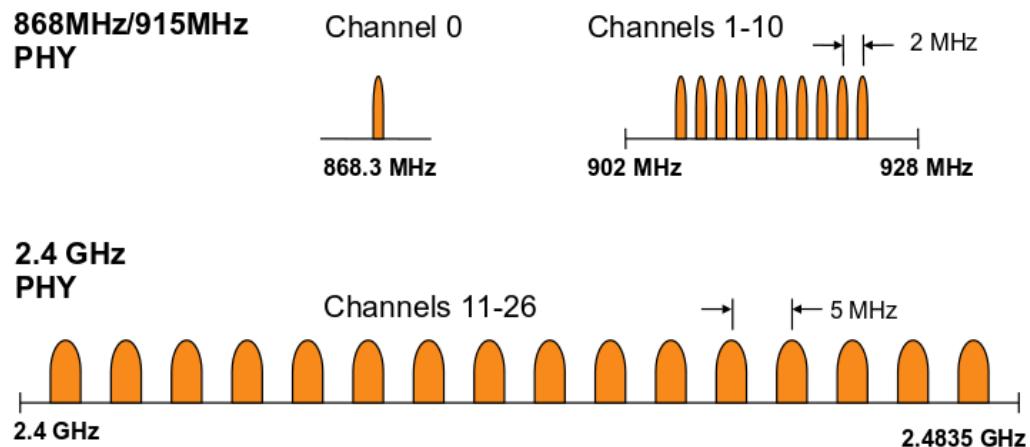


Fig. 4: Operating Frequency Bands

3.1.2 Definitions

- Coordinator: A device that provides synchronization services through the transmission of beacons
- PAN Coordinator: The central coordinator of the PAN. This device identifies its own network as well as its configurations. There is only one PAN Coordinator for each network.

- Full Function Device (FFD): A device that implements the complete protocol set, PAN coordinator capable , talks to any other device. This type of device is suitable for any topology.
- Reduced Function Device (RFD): A device with a reduced implementation of the protocol, cannot become a PAN Coordinator. This device is limited to leafs in some topologies.

3.1.3 Topologies

- Star topology: All nodes communicate via the central PAN coordinator , the leafs may be any combination of FFD and RFD devices. The PAN coordinator usually uses main power.

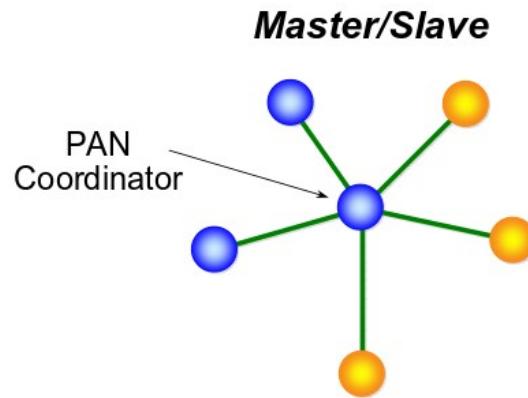


Fig. 5: Star Topology

- Peer to peer topology: Nodes can communicate via the central PAN coordinator and via additional point-to-point links . All devices are FFD to be able to communicate with each other.

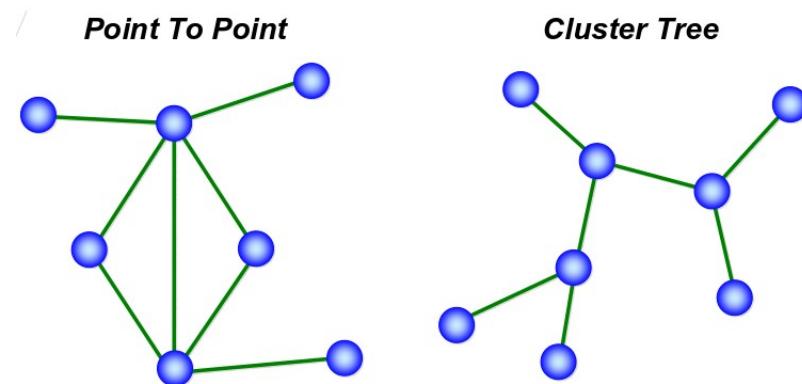


Fig. 6: Peer to peer topologies

- Combined Topology: Star topology combined with peer-to-peer topology. Leafs connect to a network via coordinators (FFDs) . One of the coordinators serves as the PAN coordinator .

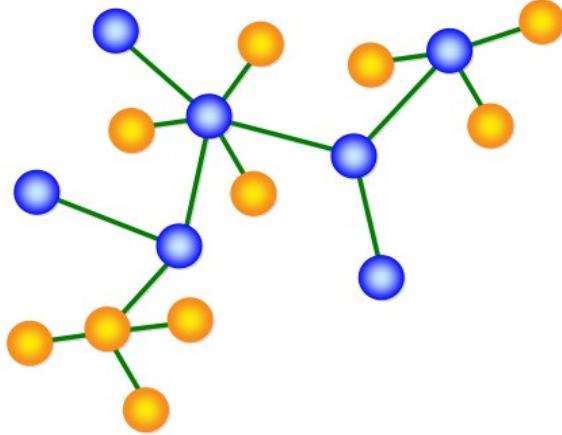


Fig. 7: Clustered Star

3.2 RIME

RIME is a communication stack designed for Contiki. It provides a hierarchical set of wireless network protocols.

This protocol stack can send data over the standard IEEE 802.14.5 with very few transmissions and less overhead than an IP based protocol, saving energy in the devices involved in the connection.

Implementing a complex protocol (say the multi-hop mesh routing) is split into several parts, where the more complex modules make use of the simpler ones.

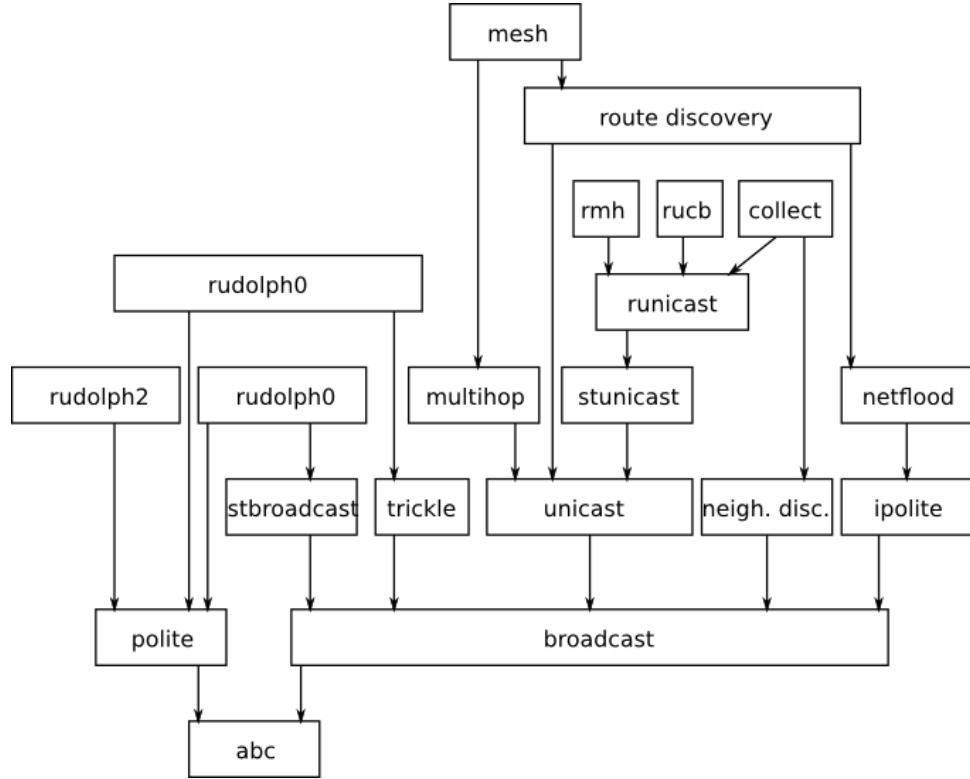


Fig. 8: RIME Stack

These are some of the different modules of Rime:

- **abc:** the anonymous broadcast, it just sends a packet via the radio driver, receives all packets from the radio driver and passes them to the upper layer;
- **broadcast:** the identified broadcast, it adds the sender address to the outgoing packet and passes it to the abc module;
- **unicast:** this module adds a destination address to the passed packets to the broadcast block. On the receiver side, if the packet's destination address doesn't match the node's address, the packet is discarded;
- **stunicast:** the stubborn unicast, when asked to send a packet to a node, it sends it repeatedly with a given time period until asked to stop. This module is usually not used as is, but is used by the next one.
- **runicast:** the reliable unicast, it sends a packet using the stunicast module waiting for an acknowledgement packet. When it is received it stops the continuous transmission of the packet. A maximum retransmission number must be specified, in order to avoid infinite sending.
- **polite** and **ipolite:** these two modules are almost identical, when a packet has to be sent in a given time frame, the module waits for half of the time, checking if it has received the same packet it is about to send. If it has, the

packet is not sent, otherwise it sends the packet. This is useful for flooding techniques to avoid unnecessary retransmissions.

- **multipath:** this module requires a route table function, and when it is about to send a packet it asks the route table for the next hop and sends the packet to it using unicast. When it receives a packet, if the node is the destination then the packet is passed to the upper layer, otherwise it asks again the route table for the next hop and relays the packet to it.

3.3 6LoWPAN

6LoWPAN is a networking technology or adaptation layer that allows IPv6 packets to be carried efficiently within a small link layer frame, over IEEE 802.15.4 based networks.

As the full name implies, “IPv6 over Low-Power Wireless Personal Area Networks”, it is a protocol for connecting wireless low power networks using IPv6.

3.3.1 Characteristics

- Compression of IPv6 and UDP/ICMP headers
- Fragmentation / reassembly of IPv6 packets
- Mesh addressing
- Stateless auto configuration

3.3.2 Encapsulation Header format

All LoWPAN encapsulated datagrams are prefixed by an encapsulation header stack. Each header in the stack starts with a header type field followed by zero or more header fields.

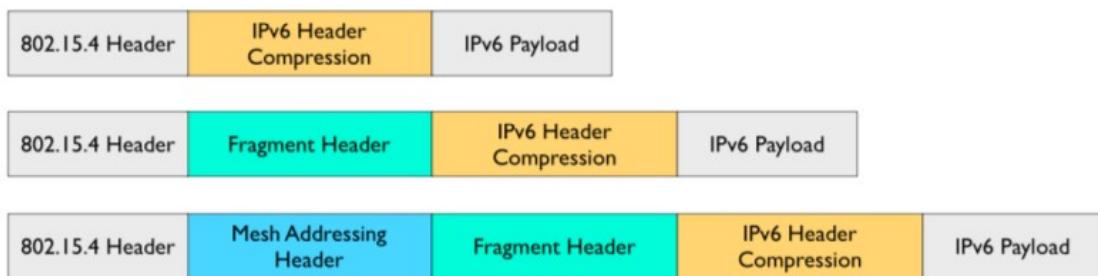


Fig. 9: Typical 6LoWPAN Header Stacks.

3.3.3 Fragment Header

The fragment header is used when the payload is too large to fit in a single IEEE 802.15.4 frame. The Fragment header is analogous to the IEEE 1394 Fragment header and includes three fields: Datagram Size, Datagram Tag, and Datagram Offset. Datagram Size identifies the total size of the unfragmented payload and is included with every fragment to simplify buffer allocation at the receiver when fragments arrive out-of-order. Datagram Tag identifies the set of fragments that correspond to a given payload and is used to match up fragments of the same payload. Datagram Offset identifies the fragment's offset within the unfragmented payload and is in units of 8-byte chunks.

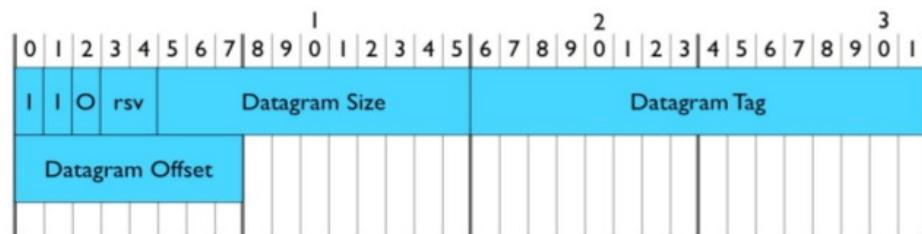


Fig. 10: 6LoWPAN Fragment Header.

3.3.4 Mesh addressing header

The Mesh Addressing header is used to forward 6LoWPAN payloads over multiple radio hops and support layer-two forwarding. The mesh addressing header includes three fields: Hop Limit, Source Address, and Destination Address. The Hop Limit field is analogous to the IPv6 Hop Limit and limits the number of hops for forwarding. The Hop Limit field is decremented by each forwarding node, and if decremented to zero the frame is dropped. The source and destination addresses indicate the end-points of an IP hop. Both addresses are IEEE 802.15.4 link addresses and may carry either a short or extended address.



Fig. 11: 6LoWPAN Mesh Addressing Header.

3.3.5 Header compression (RFC4944)

RFC 4944 defines HC1, a stateless compression scheme optimized for link-local IPv6 communication. HC1 is identified by an encoding byte following the Compressed IPv6 dispatch header, and it operates on fields in the upper-layer headers. 6LoWPAN elides some fields by assuming commonly used values. For example, it compresses the 64-bit network prefix for both source and destination addresses to a single bit each when they carry the well-known link-local prefix. 6LoWPAN compresses the Next Header field to two bits whenever the packet uses UDP, TCP, or ICMPv6. Furthermore, 6LoWPAN compresses Traffic Class and Flow Label to a single bit when their values are both zero. Each compressed form has reserved values that indicate that the fields are carried inline for use when they don't match the elided case. 6LoWPAN elides other fields by exploiting cross-layer redundancy. It can derive Payload Length – which is always elided – from the 802.15.4 frame or 6LoWPAN fragmentation header. The 64-bit interface identifier (IID) for both source and destination addresses are elided if the destination can derive them from the corresponding link-layer address in the 802.15.4 or mesh addressing header. Finally, 6LoWPAN always elides Version by communicating via IPv6.



Fig. 12: 6LoWPAN RFC 4944 IPv6 Header Compression.

The HC1 encoding is shown in Figure 11. The first byte is the dispatch byte and indicates the use of HC1. Following the dispatch byte are 8 bits that identify how the IPv6 fields are compressed. For each address, one bit is used to indicate if the IPv6 prefix is link-local and elided and one bit is used to indicate if the IID can be derived from the IEEE 802.15.4 link address. The TF bit indicates whether Traffic Class and Flow Label are both zero and elided. The two Next Header bits indicate if the IPv6 Next Header value is 7UDP, TCP, or ICMP and compressed or carried inline. The HC2 bit indicates if the next header is compressed using HC2. Fully compressed, the HC1 encoding reduces the IPv6 header to three bytes, including the dispatch header. Hops Left is the only field always carried inline.

RFC 4944 uses stateless compression techniques to reduce the overhead of UDP

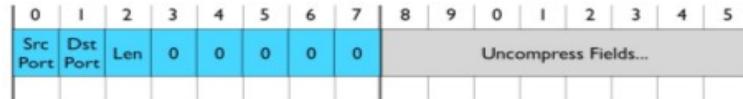


Fig. 13: 6LoWPAN RFC 4944 UDP Header Compression Encoding.

headers. When the HC2 bit is set in the HC1 encoding, an additional 8-bits is included immediately following the HC1 encoding bits that specify how the UDP header is compressed. To effectively compress UDP ports, 6LoWPAN introduces a range of well-known ports (61616 – 61631). When ports fall in the well-known range, the upper 12 bits may be elided. If both ports fall within range, both Source and Destination ports are compressed down to a single byte. HC2 also allows elision of the UDP Length, as it can be derived from the IPv6 Payload Length field.

The best-case compression efficiency occurs with link-local unicast communication, where HC1 and HC2 can compress a UDP/IPv6 header down to 7 bytes. The Version, Traffic Class, Flow Label, Payload Length, Next Header, and link-local prefixes for the IPv6 Source and Destination addresses are all elided. The suffix for both IPv6 source and destination addresses are derived from the IEEE 802.15.4 header.

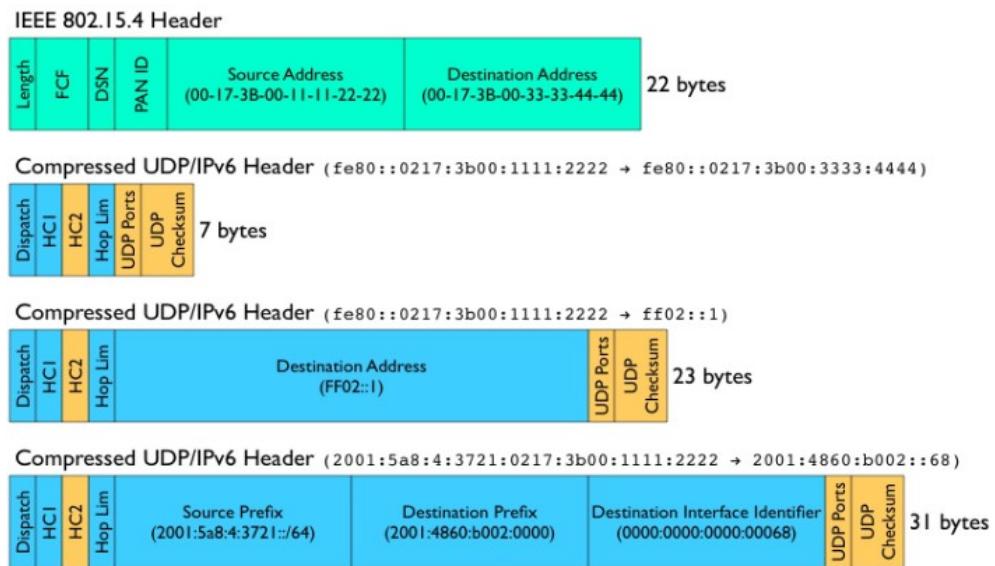


Fig. 14: 6LoWPAN RFC4944 Header Compression Examples

However, RFC 4944 does not efficiently compress headers when communicating outside of link-local scope or when using multicast. Any prefix other than the link-local prefix must be carried inline. Any suffix must be at least 64 bits when carried inline even if derived from a short 802.15.4 address. As shown in Figure 8, HC1/HC2 can compress a link-local multicast UDP/IPv6 header down to 23 bytes in the best case. When communicating with nodes outside the LoWPAN, the IPv6 Source Address prefix and full IPv6 Destination Address must be carried inline.

3.3.6 Header compression Improved (*draft-hui-6lowpan-hc-01*)

To provide better compression over a broader range of scenarios, the 6LoWPAN working group is standardizing an improved header compression encoding format, called HC. The format defines a new encoding for compressing IPv6 header, called IPHC. The new format allows Traffic Class and Flow Label to be individually compressed, Hop Limit compression when common values (E.g., 1 or 255) are used, makes use of shared-context to elide the prefix from IPv6 addresses, and supports multicast addresses most often used for IPv6 ND and SLAAC.

Contexts act as shared state for all nodes within the LoWPAN. A single context holds a single prefix. IPHC identifies the context using a 4-bit index, allowing IPHC to support up to 16 contexts simultaneously within the LoWPAN. When an IPv6 address matches a context's stored prefix, IPHC compresses the prefix to the context's 4-bit identifier. Note that contexts are not limited to prefixes assigned to the LoWPAN but can contain any arbitrary prefix. As a result, share contexts can be configured such that LoWPAN nodes can compress the prefix in both Source and Destination addresses even when communicating with nodes outside the LoWPAN.

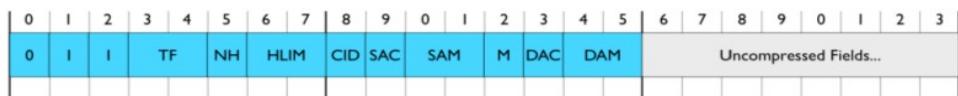


Fig. 15: 6LoWPAN Improved IPv6 Header Compression

The improved header compression encoding is shown in Figure 8. The first three bits (011) form the header type and indicate the use of IPHC. The TF bits indicate whether the Traffic Class and/or Flow Label fields are compressed. The HLIM bits indicate whether the Hop Limit takes the value 1 or 255 and compressed, or carried inline.

Bits 8-15 of the IPHC encoding indicate the compression methods used for the IPv6 Source and Destination Addresses. When the Context Identifier (CID) bit is zero, the default context may be used to compress Source and/or Destination Addresses. This mode is typically when both Source and Destination Addresses are assigned to nodes in the same LoWPAN. When the CID bit is one, two additional 4-bit fields follow the IPHC encoding to indicate which one of 16 contexts is in use for the source and destination addresses.

The Source Address Compression (SAC) indicates whether stateless compression is used (typically for link-local communication) or stateful context-based compression is used (typically for global communication). The Source Address Mode (SAM) indicates whether the full Source Address is carried inline, upper 16 or 64-bits are elided, or the full Source Address is elided. When SAC is set and the Source Addresses' prefix is elided, the identified context is used to restore those bits.

The Multicast (M) field indicates whether the Destination Address is a unicast or multicast address. When the Destination Address is a unicast address, the DAC and DAM bits are analogous to the SAC and SAM bits. When the Destination Address is a multicast address, the DAM bits indicate different forms of multicast compression.

HC also defines a new framework for compressing arbitrary next headers, called NHC. HC2 in RFC 4944 is only capable of compressing UDP, TCP, and ICMPv6 headers, the latter two are not yet defined. Instead, the NHC header defines a new variable length Next Header identifier, allowing for future definition of arbitrary next header compression encodings.

HC initially defines a compression encoding for UDP headers, similar to that defined in RFC 4944. Like RFC 4944, HC utilizes the same well-known port range (61616-61631) to effectively compress UDP ports down to 4-bits each in the best case. However, HC no longer provides an option to carry the Payload Length in line, as it can always be derived from the IPv6 header. Finally, HC allows elision of the UDP Checksum whenever an upper layer message integrity check covers the same information and has at least the same strength. Such a scenario is typical when transport- or application-layer security is used. As a result, the UDP header can be compressed down to two bytes in the best case.

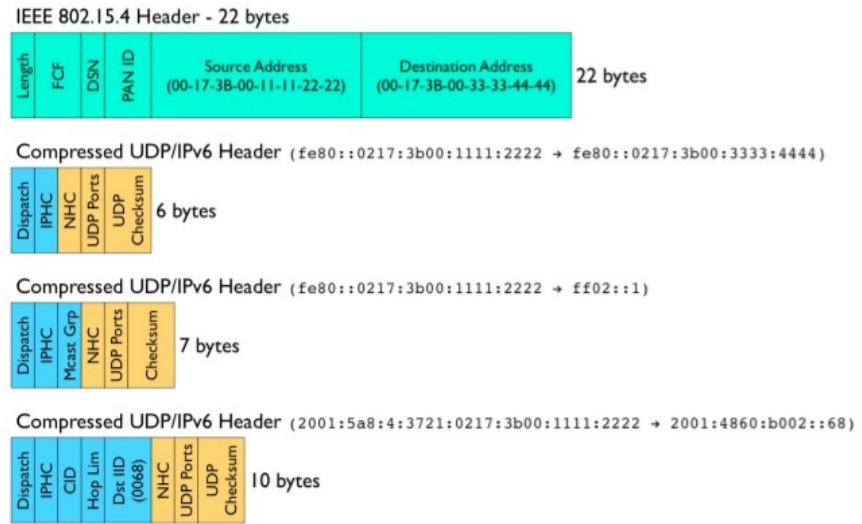


Fig. 16: 6LoWPAN Improved Header Compression Examples

3.4 RPL

RPL is a Distance Vector IPv6 routing protocol for LLNs that specifies how to build a Destination Oriented Directed Acyclic Graph (DODAG) using an objective function and a set of metrics/constraints.

The objective function operates on a combination of metrics and constraints to compute the ‘best’ path.

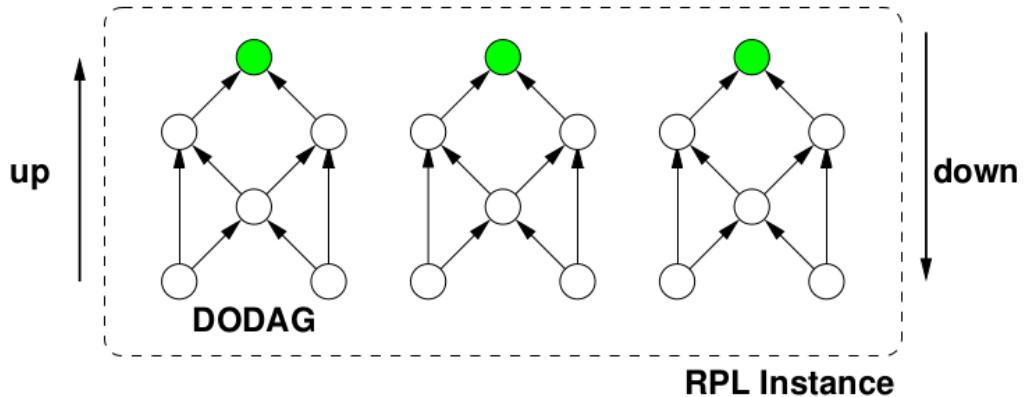


Fig. 17: RPL Instance

An RPL Instance consists of multiple Destination Oriented Directed Acyclic Graphs (DODAGs). Traffic moves either up towards the DODAG root or down towards the DODAG leafs.

The graph building process starts at the root or LBR (LowPAN Border Router). There could be multiple roots configured in the system. The RPL routing protocol

specifies a set of ICMPv6 control messages to exchange graph related information. These messages are called DIS (DODAG Information Solicitation), DIO (DODAG Information Object) and DAO (DODAG Destination Advertisement Object).

The root starts advertising the information about the graph using the DIO message. The nodes in the listening vicinity (neighbouring nodes) of the root will receive and process DIO messages potentially from multiple nodes and makes a decision based on certain rules (according to the objective function, DAG characteristics, advertised path cost and potentially local policy) whether to join the graph or not. Once the node has joined a graph it has a route toward the graph (DODAG) root. The graph root is termed as the ‘parent’ of the node. The node computes the ‘rank’ of itself within the graph, which indicates the “coordinates” of the node in the graph hierarchy. If configured to act as a router, it starts advertising the graph information with the new information to its neighbouring peers. If the node is a “leaf node”, it simply joins the graph and does not send any DIO message. The neighbouring peers will repeat this process and do parent selection, route addition and graph information advertisement using DIO messages. This rippling effect builds the graph edges out from the root to the leaf nodes where the process terminates. In this formation each node of the graph has a routing entry towards its parent (or multiple parents depending on the objective function) in a hop-by-hop fashion and the leaf nodes can send a data packet all the way to root of the graph by just forwarding the packet to its immediate parent. This model represents a MP2P (Multipoint-to-point) forwarding model where each node of the graph has reachability toward the graph root. This is also referred to as UPWARD routing. Each node in the graph has a ‘rank’ that is relative and represents an increasing coordinate of the relative position of the node with respect to the root in graph topology. The notion of “rank” is used by RPL for various purposes including loop avoidance. The MP2P flow of traffic is called the ‘up’ direction in the DODAG.

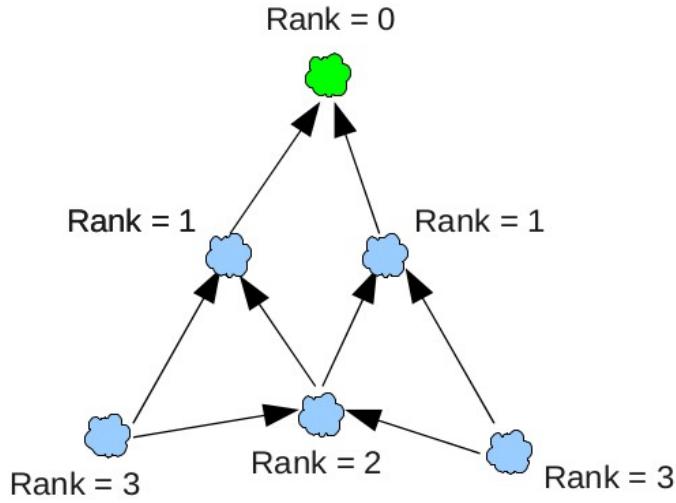


Fig. 18: RPL Node Rank

The DIS message is used by the nodes to proactively solicit graph information (via DIO) from the neighbouring nodes should it become active in a stable graph environment using the ‘poll’ or ‘pull’ model of retrieving graph information or in other conditions.

Similar to MP2P or ‘up’ direction of traffic, which flows from the leaf towards the root there is a need for traffic to flow in the opposite or ‘down’ direction. This traffic may originate from outside the LLN network, at the root or at any intermediate nodes and destined to a (leaf) node. This requires a routing state to be built at every node and a mechanism to populate these routes. This is accomplished by the DAO (Destination Advertisement Object) message. DAO messages are used to advertise prefix reachability towards the leaf nodes in support of the ‘down’ traffic. These messages carry prefix information, valid lifetime and other information about the distance of the prefix. As each node joins the graph it will send DAO message to its parent set. Alternately, a node or root can poll the sub-dag for DAO message through an indication in the DIO message. As each node receives the DAO message, it processes the prefix information and adds a routing entry in the routing table. It optionally aggregates the prefix information received from various nodes in the sub-dag and sends a DAO message to its parent set. This process continues until the prefix information reaches the root and a complete path to the prefix is setup. Note that this mode is called the “storing” mode of operation where intermediate nodes have available memory to store routing tables. RPL also supports another mode called “non-storing” mode where intermediate node do not store any routes.

3.5 COAP (COnstrained Application Protocol)

The Constrained Application Protocol (CoAP) is a specialized web transfer protocol for use with constrained nodes and constrained networks in the Internet of Things.

More detailed information about the protocol is given in the Contiki OS CoAP section.

3.5.1 Overview

Like HTTP, CoAP is a document transfer protocol. Unlike HTTP, CoAP is designed for the needs of constrained devices.

The packets are much smaller than HTTP TCP flows. Packets are simple to generate and can be parsed in place without consuming extra RAM in constrained devices.

CoAP runs over UDP, not TCP. Clients and servers communicate through connectionless datagrams. Retries and reordering are implemented in the application stack.

It follows a client/server model. Clients make requests to servers, servers send back responses. Clients may GET, PUT, POST and DELETE resources.

CoAP implements the REST model from HTTP, with the primitives GET, POST, PUT and DELETE.

Application
Coap Methods
Coap Transactions
UDP
IPv6/RPL
6LowPAN
802.15.4

Tab. 2: CoAP Protocol Stack

3.5.2 Coap Methods

GET	Retrieves information of an identified resource
POST	Creates a new resource under the requested URI
PUT	Updates the resource identified by an URI
DELETE	Deletes the resource identified by an URI

Tab. 3: CoAP Methods

CoAP extends the HTTP request model with the ability to observe a resource. When the observe flag is set on a CoAP GET request, the server may continue to reply

after the initial document has been transferred. This allows servers to stream state changes to clients as they occur. Either end may cancel the observation.

CoAP defines a standard mechanism for resource discovery. Servers provide a list of their resources (along with metadata about them) at /.well-known/core. These links are in the application/link-format media type and allow a client to discover what resources are provided and what media types they are.

3.5.3 Coap Transactions

CON	Confirmable requests. The receiving peer must send an acknowledgement or a reset after receiving a request.
NON	Non-confirmable messages do not request any message being sent by the receiving peer
ACK	Acknowledges that a CON has been received, may carry payload
RST	Indicates that a CON has been received but some context is missing to process it

Tab. 4: CoAP Transactions

3.5.4 Coap Messages

The CoAP message structure is designed to be simpler than HTTP, for reduced transmission data. Each field responds to a specific purpose.

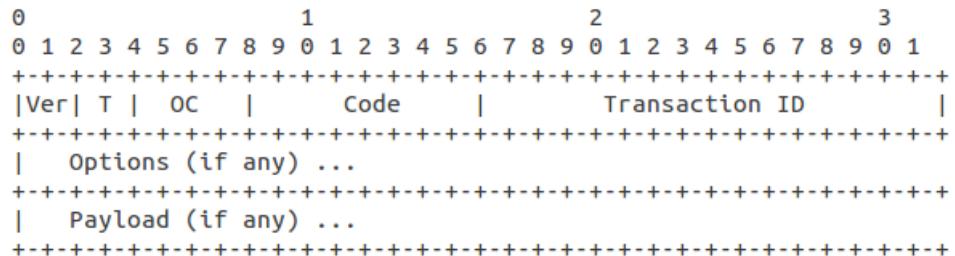


Fig. 19: Message Format

- Ver: Protocol Version.
- T: Message Type.
- OC: Options Number.
- Code: Method code or Response Code.
- Transaction ID: Unique number, changed in every transmission. Repeated in retransmissions.

- Options: The options for the request. There can be many options sent in one packet. The option type, represented as a delta (difference) from the previous option code.

```

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| option delta |      length      | for 0..14
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
for 15..270:
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| option delta | 1   1   1   1 |      length - 15      |
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+

```

Fig. 20: Option Format

No.	C	U	N	R	Name	Format	Length	Default
1	x			x	If-Match	opaque	0-8	(none)
3	x	x	-		Uri-Host	string	1-255	(see below)
4				x	ETag	opaque	1-8	(none)
5	x				If-None-Match	empty	0	(none)
7	x	x	-		Uri-Port	uint	0-2	(see below)
8				x	Location-Path	string	0-255	(none)
11	x	x	-	x	Uri-Path	string	0-255	(none)
12					Content-Format	uint	0-2	(none)
14		x	-		Max-Age	uint	0-4	60
15	x	x	-	x	Uri-Query	string	0-255	(none)
16				x	Accept	uint	0-2	(none)
20				x	Location-Query	string	0-255	(none)
35	x	x	-		Proxy-Uri	string	1-1034	(none)
39	x	x	-		Proxy-Scheme	string	1-255	(none)

C=Critical, U=Unsafe, N=No-Cache-Key, R=Repeatable

Fig. 21: Possible options (Coap 13)

4 Contiki OS

Contiki is an open source operating system for the Internet of Things. Contiki connects tiny low-cost, low-power micro-controllers to the Internet.

4.1 Main aspects

- A lightweight OS written in C for networked devices
 - 2k RAM, 60k ROM; 10k RAM, 48K ROM
- Portable to tiny low-power micro-controllers
 - I386 based, ARM, AVR, MSP430, ...
- Implements uIP stack
 - IPv6 protocol for Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN)
- Uses the protothreads abstraction to run multiple process in an event based kernel.
 - “Emulates” concurrency
 - Contiki has an event based kernel (1 stack)
 - Calls a process when an event happens

4.2 Contiki size

Tab. 5 shows the size of the different modules of Contiki OS core for two different microcontroller architectures, MSP430 (E.g. Z1 motes) and AVR (E.g. avr-raven)

The RAM requirement depends on the maximum number of processes that the system is configured to have (p), the maximum size of the asynchronous event queue (e) and, in the case of multi-threaded operation, the size of the thread stacks (s)

Module	Code size (MSP430)	Code size (AVR)	RAM
Kernel	810	1044	$10 + 4e + 2p$
Service layer	110	128	0
Program loader	658	-	8
Multi-threading library	582	678	$8 + s$
Timer library	60	90	0
Replicator stub	98	182	4
Replicator	1558	1752	200
Total	3876	3874	$30+4e+2p+s$

Tab. 5: Contiki compiled code size (bytes)

One of the main aspect of the system, is the modularity of the code. Besides the system core, each program builds only the necessary modules to be able to run, not the entire system image. This way, the memory used from the system, can be reduced to the strictly necessary. This methodology makes more practical any change in any module, if it is needed.

The code size of Contiki is larger than that of TinyOS, but smaller than that of the Mantis system. Contiki's event kernel is significantly larger than that of TinyOS because of the different services provided. While the TinyOS event kernel only provides a FIFO event queue scheduler , the Contiki kernel supports both FIFO events and poll handlers with priorities. Furthermore, the flexibility in Contiki requires more run-time code than for a system like TinyOS, where compile time optimization can be done to a larger extent.

4.3 Contiki directories

apps/	Several applications that can be included in our platform
core/	The Contiki kernel sources
cpu/	The different low-layer source files related to each CPU architecture The Z1 platform uses cpu/msp430/
platform/	All the platforms supported from Contiki, and its configurations The source files include the main() program call, which initiates all the system Z1 platform source files are included in the platform/z1/ directory
tools/	Different tools for debugging and program the nodes. It includes the simulator Cooja and MSPSim
examples/	Several application examples for different protocols and nodes
doc/	Documentation about examples and functionalities

Tab. 6: Contiki directories

The documentation in the doc folder can be compiled, in order to get the html wiki of all the code. It needs doxygen installed, and to run the command “make html”.

This will create a new folder, “doc/html”, and in the index.html file, the wiki can be opened.

4.4 Contiki Hardware

Contiki can be run in a number of platforms, each one with a different CPU.

Tab.7 shows the hardware platforms currently defined in the Contiki code tree. All these platforms are in the “platform” folder of the code.

MCU/SoC	Radio	Platforms	Cooja simulation support
RL78	ADF7023	EVAL-ADF7023DB1	-
TI CC2538	Integrated	cc2538dk	-
TI MSP430x	TI CC2420	exp5438, z1	Yes
TI MSP430x	TI CC2420	wismote	Yes
Atmel AVR	Atmel RF230	avr-raven, avr-rcb, avr-zigbit, iris	-
Atmel AVR	TI CC2420	micaz	Yes
Freescale MC1322x	Integrated	redbee-dev, redbee-econotag	-
ST STM32w	Integrated	mb851, mbxxx	-
TI MSP430	TI CC2420	sky, jcreate, sentilla-usb	Yes
TI MSP430	TI CC1020	msb430	-
TI MSP430	RFM TR1001	esb	Yes
Atmel Atmega128 RFA1	Integrated	avr-atmega128rfa	-
Microchip pic32mx795f512I	Microchip mrf24j40	seed-eye	-
TI CC2530	Integrated	cc2530dk	-
RC2300/RC2301	Integrated	sensinode	-
6502	-	apple2enh, atari, c128, c64	-
Native	-	native, minimal-net, cooja	Yes

Tab. 7: Contiki OS supported hardware

4.5 Kernel structure

There are two main approaches of kernel structures for embedded systems.

- Event-driven
- Multi-threading

4.5.1 Event Kernel

An event system works with handlers (functions) that are invoked whenever something (an event) happens in the system.

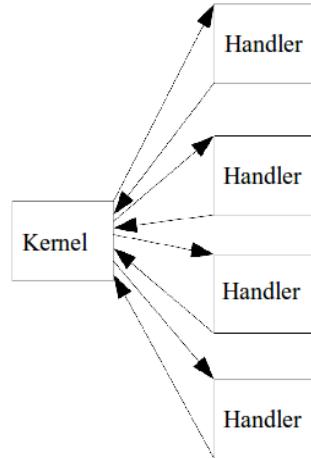


Fig. 22: Event Driven Kernel

A blocking statement in a handler, must be resolved as a state machine, making every handler a list of switch cases with different codes to execute depending on the state.

For a complex handler, this approach creates a complex function which can be difficult know what it wants to achieve.

```
function eventHandler(){
    if (state == ON){
        if (transfer_complete == true){
            /* Code */
        }else if (transfer_complete == false){
            /* Code */
        }
    }else if (state == OFF){
        /* Code */
    }else if (state == WAITING){
        if (timer_expired == true){
            /* Code */
        }else if (timer_expired == false){
            /* Code */
        }
    }
}
```

Fig. 23: Event Handler Example

4.5.2 Multi-threading Kernel

In a multi-threading system, there are several processes running, invoking others, and waiting if needed until the execution is complete.

In multi-threading, each thread requires its own stack, that typically is over-provisioned. The stacks may use large parts of the available memory.

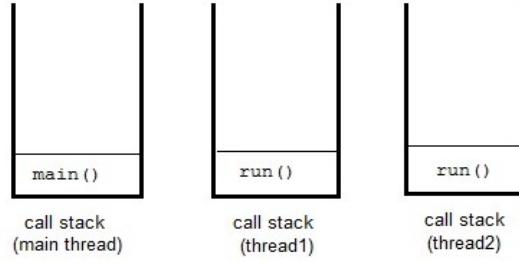


Fig. 24: Stacks in multi-threading

4.5.3 Contiki Kernel (Protothreads)

Contiki combines both events and threads approaches using protothreads, a design point between events and threads.

The purpose of protothreads is to implement sequential flow of control without using complex state machines or full multi-threading.

The protothreads library is implemented in top of an event kernel, making the code structure of a thread, but using events.

There are two main things to consider when using protothreads:

- Local variables are not preserved when the protothread blocks (a call to wait())
- Only a single thread is running in the kernel until it exits or blocks.

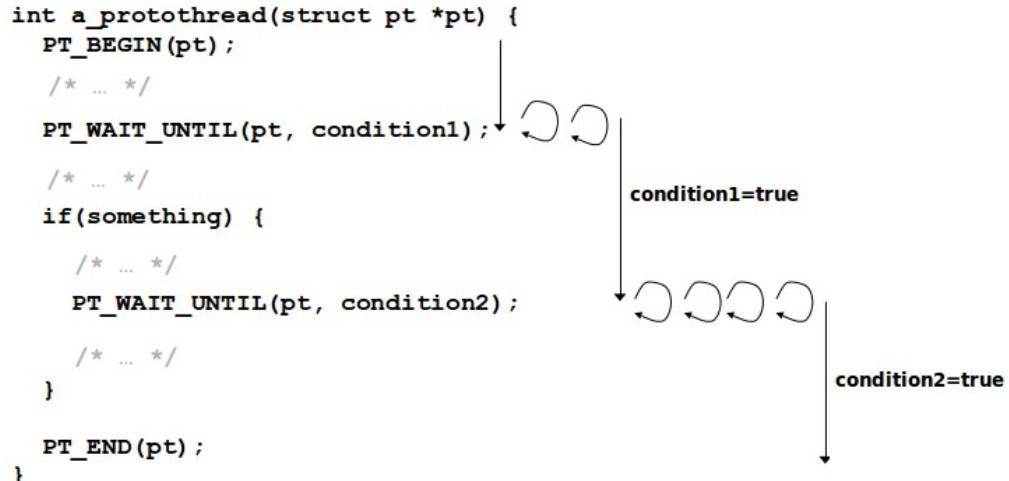


Fig. 25: Protothread code structure

Protothreads are implemented using local continuations (lc). A local continuation represents the current state of execution at a particular place in the program, but does

not provide any call history or local variables. It is used to capture the state of the function. When a protothread is started, his local continuation is set to 0. When a wait statement is invoked, the local continuation stores the line the wait was set, and exits the protothread. The protothread is called periodically, and jumps directly into the local continuation line and resumes the execution.

```

struct pt { unsigned short lc; };

#define PT_INIT(pt)           pt->lc = 0
#define PT_BEGIN(pt)         switch(pt->lc) { case 0:
#define PT_EXIT(pt)          pt->lc = 0; return 2
#define PT_WAIT_UNTIL(pt, c) pt->lc = __LINE__; case __LINE__: \
                                if(!c) return 0
#define PT_END(pt)          } pt->lc = 0; return 1

```

Fig. 26: Protothreads implementation

In Fig.27 example, the expected result of the program is to print the variable “i”, increase the value, then print the value increased, and so on.

```

struct etimer et;
PROCESS_THREAD(test_process, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    int i=0;
    while(1){
        etimer_set(&et, CLOCK_SECOND);
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));
        printf("Number:%d\n",i);
        i++;
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 27: Protothreads failing example

Due to the nature of the protothreads, the result of the code will not be the expected one.

```

Number:0
Number:0
Number:0
Number:0
Number:0
Number:0
Number:0
Number:0
Number:0

```

Fig. 28: Protothreads example output

As mentioned before, the local variables are not saved between wait statements.

To solve this issue, the variables that need to be saved between statements, need to be global or static. This two kind of variables will be saved between function calls.

A global variable can be used by any function on the code, on the other hand, a static one will be used only in the function it has been declared.

4.6 Contiki code structure

All the Contiki programs, have the same base structure, a Makefile like Fig 29, and a file as Fig 30.

```
CONTIKI = ../../
include $(CONTIKI)/Makefile.include
```

Fig. 29: Contiki Makefile structure

The Makefile, includes the base Makefile from ContikiOS, which defines the commands to compile and upload the code to the platforms. It can also define variables that will activate other Contiki modules.

```
#include "contiki.h" /* Always needed */
/* Instantiate a process*/
PROCESS(example_program_process, "Example process");

/* To start the process automatically*/
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&example_program_process);

/* Declare the body of the process*/
PROCESS_THREAD(example_program_process, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN(); /* To start the process*/
    /* Stuff to do*/
    PROCESS_END(); /* To end the process*/
}
```

Fig. 30: Contiki program structure

The “contiki.h” library, includes all the base functions to start processes, protothreads, timers, clock, and the energy estimation module.

PROCESS(name, title)	Instantiation of the main process
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&process_name1,&process_name2,...)	Starts the processes instantiated at startup

Tab. 8: Process API

All processes need to be started by another process, or autostarted at the start of the launch. It's possible to start a list of processes, separated by commas.

A process thread, has to be started with PROCESS_BEGIN(), and ended with PROCESS_END, to activate the protothreads structs.

4.7 Timers

Contiki has a clock module and a set of timer modules: timer, stimer, ctimer, etimer, and rtimer. The different timer modules have different uses: some provide long-running timers with low granularity, some provide a high granularity but with a short range, some can be used in interrupt contexts (rtimer) others cannot.

4.7.1 Clock Module

The clock module provides functions for handling system time.

<code>clock_time_t clock_time()</code>	To get the system time in clock ticks
<code>unsigned long clock_seconds()</code>	To get the system time in seconds
<code>void clock_delay_usecs(uint16_t delay)</code>	To delay the CPU for a number of microseconds
<code>void clock_wait(int delay)</code>	To delay the CPU for a number of clock ticks
<code>void clock_init(void)</code>	To initialize the clock module
<code>CLOCK_SECOND</code>	The number of ticks per second

Tab. 9: Clock Module API

The function `clock_time()` returns the current system time in clock ticks. The number of clock ticks per second is platform dependent and is specified with the constant `CLOCK_SECOND`.

$$\text{sec} = \text{ticks} * \text{CLOCK_SECOND}$$

The system time is specified as the platform dependent type `clock_time_t` and in most platforms this is a limited unsigned value which overflows when getting too large.

The clock module also provides a function `clock_seconds()` for getting the system time in seconds as an unsigned long and this time value can become much larger before it overflows (136 years on MSP430 based platforms). The system time starts from zero when the Contiki system starts.

The clock module provides two functions for blocking the CPU: `clock_delay_usecs()`, which blocks the CPU for a specified delay in microseconds, and `clock_wait()`, which blocks the CPU for a specified number of clock ticks.

The function `clock_init()` is called by the system during the boot-up procedure to initialize the clock module.

4.7.2 Timer Library

The Contiki timer library provides functions for setting, resetting and restarting timers, and for checking if a timer has expired. This library uses clock ticks as interval.

An application must "manually" check if its timers have expired; this is not done automatically. The timer library use *clock_time()* in the clock module to get the current system time.

<code>void timer_set(struct timer *t, clock_time_t interval)</code>	To start the timer. The interval is in clock ticks
<code>void timer_reset(struct timer *t)</code>	To restart the timer from the previous expiration time
<code>void timer_restart(struct timer *t)</code>	To restart the timer from current time
<code>int timer_expired(struct timer *t)</code>	To check if the timer has expired
<code>clock_time_t timer_remaining(struct timer *t)</code>	To get the time until the timer expires

Tab. 10: Timer library API

A timer is declared as a struct timer and all access to the timer is made by a pointer to the declared timer.

A timer is always initialized by a call to *timer_set()* which sets the timer to expire the specified delay from current time and also stores the time interval in the timer. *timer_reset()* can then be used to restart the timer from previous expire time and *timer_restart()* to restart the timer from current time.

Both *timer_reset()* and *timer_restart()* uses the time interval set in the timer by the call to *timer_set()*. The difference between these functions is that *timer_reset()* adds to the previous start time the interval, while *timer_restart()* set the timer start in *clock_time()*.

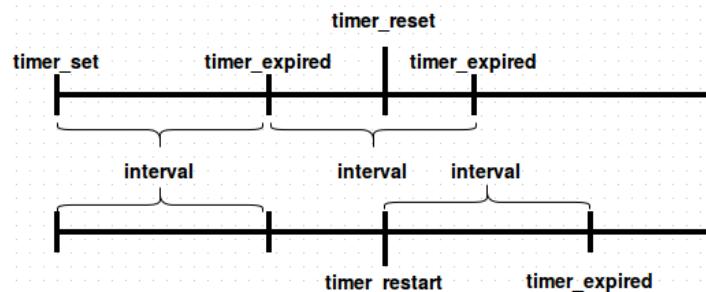


Fig. 31: Timer diagram example

The function *timer_expired()* is used to determine if the timer has expired by comparing the start time plus the interval with *clock_time()*, and *timer_remaining()* to

get an estimate of the remaining time until the timer expires. The return value of the latter function is undefined if the timer already has expired.

4.7.3 Stimer Library

The Contiki stimer library provides a timer mechanism similar to the timer library but uses time values in seconds, allowing much longer expiration times. The stimer library use *clock_seconds()* in the clock module to get the current system time in seconds.

<code>void stimer_set(struct stimer *t, unsigned long interval)</code>	To start the timer
<code>void stimer_reset(struct stimer *t)</code>	To restart the stimer from the previous expiration time
<code>void stimer_restart(struct stimer *t)</code>	To restart the stimer from current time
<code>int stimer_expired(struct stimer *t)</code>	To check if the stimer has expired
<code>unsigned long stimer_remaining(struct stimer *t)</code>	To get the time until the timer expires

Tab. 11: Stimer library API

The API for the Contiki stimer library is similar to the timer library. The difference is that times are specified as seconds instead of clock ticks.

4.7.4 Etimer Library

The Contiki etimer library provides a timer mechanism that generates timed events. An event timer will post the event PROCESS_EVENT_TIMER to the process that sets the timer when the event timer expires. The etimer library uses *clock_time()* in the clock module to get the current system time.

<code>void etimer_set(struct etimer *t, clock_time_t interval)</code>	To start the timer
<code>void etimer_reset(struct etimer *t)</code>	To restart the timer from the previous expiration time
<code>void etimer_restart(struct etimer *t)</code>	To restart the timer from current time
<code>void etimer_stop(struct etimer *t)</code>	To stop the timer
<code>int etimer_expired(struct etimer *t)</code>	To check if the timer has expired
<code>int etimer_pending()</code>	To check if there are any non-expired event timers
<code>clock_time_t etimer_next_expiration_time()</code>	To get the next event timer expiration time
<code>void etimer_request_poll()</code>	To inform the etimer library that the system clock has changed

Tab. 12: Etimer library API

An event timer is declared as a struct etimer and all access to the event timer is made by a pointer to the declared event timer.

Like the previous timers, an event timer is always initialized by a call to *etimer_set()* which sets the timer to expire the specified delay from current time.

etimer_reset() can then be used to restart the timer from previous expire time and *etimer_restart()* to restart the timer from current time, both using the same time interval that was originally set by *etimer_set()*. The difference between *etimer_reset()* and *etimer_restart()* is that the former schedules the timer from previous expiration time while the latter schedules the timer from current time thus allowing time drift. An event timer can be stopped by a call to *etimer_stop()* which means it will be expired without posting a timer event.

etimer_expired() is used to determine if the event timer has expired.

```
#include "sys/etimer.h"

PROCESS_THREAD(example_process, ev, data)
{
    static struct etimer et;
    PROCESS_BEGIN();

    /* Delay 1 second */
    etimer_set(&et, CLOCK_SECOND);

    while(1) {
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));
        /* Reset the etimer to trig again in 1 second */
        etimer_reset(&et);
        /* ... */
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}
```

Fig. 32: Etimer example

4.7.5 Ctimer Library

The Contiki ctimer library provides a timer mechanism that calls a specified function when a ctimer expires. The ctimer library uses *clock_time()* in the clock module to get the current system time.

void ctimer_set(struct ctimer *c, clock_time_t t, void(*f)(void *), void *ptr)	To start the timer
void ctimer_reset(struct ctimer *t)	To restart the timer from the previous expiration time
void ctimer_restart(struct ctimer *t)	To restart the timer from current time
void ctimer_stop(struct ctimer *t)	To stop the timer
int ctimer_expired(struct ctimer *t)	To check if the timer has expired

Tab. 13: Ctimer library API

The API for the Contiki ctimer library is similar to the etimer library. The difference is that *ctimer_set()* takes a callback function pointer and a data pointer as arguments. When a ctimer expires, it will call the callback function with the data pointer as argument.

```
#include "sys/ctimer.h"
static struct ctimer timer;

static void
callback(void *ptr)
{
    ctimer_reset(&timer);
    /* ... */
}

void
init(void)
{
    ctimer_set(&timer, CLOCK_SECOND, callback, NULL);
}
```

Fig. 33: Ctimer example

4.7.6 Rtimer Library

The Contiki rtimer library provides scheduling and execution of real-time tasks (with predictable execution times). The rtimer library uses its own clock module for scheduling to allow higher clock resolution. The function *RTIMER_NOW()* is used to get the current system time in ticks and *RTIMER_SECOND* specifies the number of ticks per second.

RTIMER_CLOCK_LT(a, b)	This should give TRUE if 'a' is less than 'b', otherwise false
RTIMER_ARCH_SECOND	The number of ticks per second
void rtimer_arch_init(void)	Initialize the rtimer architecture code
rtimer_clock_t rtimer_arch_now()	Get the current time
int rtimer_arch_schedule(rtimer_clock_t wakeup_time)	Schedule a call to <tt>rtimer_run_next()</tt>

Tab. 14: Rtimer library API

Unlike the other timer libraries in Contiki, the real-time tasks pre-empt normal execution for the task to execute immediately. This sets some constraints for what can be done in real-time tasks because most functions do not handle pre-emption. Interrupt-safe functions such as *process_poll()* are always safe to use in real-time tasks but anything that might conflict with normal execution must be synchronized.

A real-time task can use the function *RTIMER_TIME(struct rtimer *t)* to retrieve the execution time required when the task was executed last time.

4.8 Rime

The RIME library in Contiki is located in “net/rime.h”. It is a communication protocol stack over the Physical layer of 802.15.4. There are about 20 different rime primitives, some of the use another one of the primitives, to achieve more complex network transmissions.

This document will only explain 3 of the basic primitives, to send single hop unicast messages, best effort broadcast messages, and mesh routing messages.

4.8.1 Rime buffer management

There is a library to manage the buffer management, located at “net/packetbuf.h”.

This buffer contains the data sent and received in Rime connections.

<code>void packetbuf_clear (void)</code>	Clear and reset the packetbuf
<code>void packetbuf_clear_hdr (void)</code>	Clear and reset the header of the packetbuf
<code>int packetbuf_copyfrom (const void *from, uint16_t len)</code>	Copy from external data into the packetbuf
<code>void packetbuf_compact (void)</code>	Compact the packetbuf
<code>int packetbuf_copyto_hdr (uint8_t *to)</code>	Copy the header portion of the packetbuf to an external buffer
<code>int packetbuf_copyto (void *to)</code>	Copy the entire packetbuf to an external buffer
<code>int packetbuf_hdralloc (int size)</code>	Extend the header of the packetbuf, for outbound packets
<code>int packetbuf_hdrreduce (int size)</code>	Reduce the header in the packetbuf, for incoming packets
<code>void packetbuf_set_datalen (uint16_t len)</code>	Set the length of the data in the packetbuf
<code>void * packetbuf_dataptr (void)</code>	Get a pointer to the data in the packetbuf
<code>void * packetbuf_hdrptr (void)</code>	Get a pointer to the header in the packetbuf, for outbound packets
<code>void packetbuf_reference (void *ptr, uint16_t len)</code>	Point the packetbuf to external data
<code>int packetbuf_is_reference (void)</code>	Check if the packetbuf references external data
<code>void * packetbuf_reference_ptr (void)</code>	Get a pointer to external data referenced by the packetbuf
<code>uint16_t packetbuf_datalen (void)</code>	Get the length of the data in the packetbuf.
<code>uint8_t packetbuf_hdrlen (void)</code>	Get the length of the header in the packetbuf, for outbound packets
<code>uint16_t packetbuf_totlen (void)</code>	Get the total length of the header and data in the packetbuf.

Tab. 15: Rime packetbuf API



PACKETBUF_SIZE	The size of the packetbuf, in bytes (128 by default)
PACKETBUF_HDR_SIZE	The size of the packetbuf header, In bytes (48 by default)

Tab. 16: Rime packetbuf macros

Every time a function is called, the buffer only contains one packet. When a packet is sent, the buffer gets reset, to handle new data. When a packet is received, the buffer contains only one packet.

4.8.2 Rime addresses

A rime address is contained in the struct *rimeaddr_t*. It contains an array 'u8' with 2 positions, u8[0] and u8[1] holding a number between 0 and 255 each one.

The address of the device is set in the platform specific configuration in the folder 'platform'. For the Z1 motes, the address is set using the node id.

void rimeaddr_copy (rimeaddr_t *dest, const rimeaddr_t *from)	Copy a Rime address
int rimeaddr_cmp (const rimeaddr_t *addr1, const rimeaddr_t *addr2)	Compare two Rime addresses
void rimeaddr_set_node_addr (rimeaddr_t *addr)	Set the address of the current node

Tab. 17: Rime addresses API

rimeaddr_node_addr	The Rime address of the node
rimeaddr_null	The null Rime address, used in route tables to indicate that the table entry is unused

Tab. 18: Rime addresses variables

4.8.3 Single-hop Unicast

The unicast primitive uses the broadcast primitive and adds the single-hop receiver address attribute to the outgoing packets. For incoming packets, the unicast module inspects the single-hop receiver address attribute and discards the packet if the address does not match the address of the node.

In Fig. 34, there is a process sending the message Hello to a device with the rime address 1.0.

```

static void
recv_uc(struct unicast_conn *c, const rimeaddr_t *from)
{
    printf("unicast message received from %d.%d\n",
           from->u8[0], from->u8[1]);
}
static const struct unicast_callbacks unicast_callbacks = {recv_uc};
static struct unicast_conn uc;
/*
PROCESS_THREAD(example_unicast_process, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_EXITHANDLER(unicast_close(&uc));

    PROCESS_BEGIN();

    unicast_open(&uc, 146, &unicast_callbacks);

    while(1) {
        static struct etimer et;
        rimeaddr_t addr;

        etimer_set(&et, CLOCK_SECOND);

        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));

        packetbuf_copyfrom("Hello", 5);
        addr.u8[0] = 1;
        addr.u8[1] = 0;
        if(!rimeaddr_cmp(&addr, &rimeaddr_node_addr)) {
            unicast_send(&uc, &addr);
        }
    }

    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 34: unicast example

There are 2 main operations in a unicast transmission: Open a connection and send a package.

unicast_conn	A unicast connection. It contains a broadcast connection structure and the list of callbacks.
unicast_callbacks	A list of 2 functions to call when a packet is received, and a packet is sent. (unicast_callbacks = {recv_uc,send_uc})

Tab. 19: Rime unicast struct

void unicast_open(struct unicast_conn *c, uint16_t channel, const struct unicast_callbacks *u)	Open a unicast connection. It also assign the unicast callbacks struct to this connection.
void unicast_close(struct unicast_conn *c)	Close a unicast connection
int unicast_send(struct unicast_conn *c, const rimeaddr_t *receiver)	Send the packet in the buffer to a receiver.

Tab. 20: Rime unicast API

4.8.4 Best-effort local area broadcast

The broadcast module sends a packet to all local neighbors. The module adds the single-hop sender address as a packet attribute to outgoing packets.

All Rime primitives that need the identity of the sender in the outgoing packets use the broadcast primitive, either directly or indirectly through any of the other communication primitives that are based on the broadcast primitive.

```

static void
broadcast_recv(struct broadcast_conn *c, const rimeaddr_t *from)
{
    printf("broadcast message received from %d.%d: '%s'\n",
           from->u8[0], from->u8[1], (char *)packetbuf_dataptr());
}
static const struct broadcast_callbacks broadcast_call = {broadcast_recv};
static struct broadcast_conn broadcast;
/*-----*/
PROCESS_THREAD(example_broadcast_process, ev, data)
{
    static struct etimer et;

    PROCESS_EXITHANDLER(broadcast_close(&broadcast));

    PROCESS_BEGIN();

    broadcast_open(&broadcast, 129, &broadcast_call);

    while(1) {

        /* Delay 2-4 seconds */
        etimer_set(&et, CLOCK_SECOND * 4 + random_rand() % (CLOCK_SECOND * 4));

        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));

        packetbuf_copyfrom("Hello", 6);
        broadcast_send(&broadcast);
        printf("broadcast message sent\n");
    }

    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 35: broadcast example

The Fig. 35 example sends a broadcast message every 2-4 seconds in the channel 129.

The code is similar to the unicast transmission. Only the channel is missing in the *broadcast_send()* call.

broadcast_conn	A broadcast connection. It contains a abc(anonymous broadcast connection) structure and the list of callbacks.
broadcast_callbacks	A list of 2 functions to call when a packet is received, and a packet is sent. (<i>broadcast_callbacks</i> = { <i>broadcast_recv,broadcast_send</i> })

Tab. 21: Rime broadcast struct

void broadcast_open(struct broadcast_conn *c, uint16_t channel, const struct broadcast_callbacks *u)	Open a broadcast connection. It also assign the broadcast callbacks struct to this connection.
---	--

void broadcast_close(struct broadcast_conn *c)	Close a broadcast connection
int broadcast_send(struct broadcast_conn *c)	Send the packet in the buffer.

Tab. 22: Rime broadcast API

4.8.5 Mesh routing

The mesh module sends packets using multi-hop routing to a specified receiver somewhere in the network.

The mesh module uses 3 channel; one for the multi-hop forwarding (multihop) and two for the route discovery (route-discovery)

```

static void
sent(struct mesh_conn *c)
{
    printf("packet sent\n");
}
static void
timedout(struct mesh_conn *c)
{
    printf("packet timedout\n");
}
static void
recv(struct mesh_conn *c, const rimeaddr_t *from, uint8_t hops)
{
    printf("Data received from %d.%d: %.8s (%d)\n",
           from->u8[0], from->u8[1],
           packetbuf_dataptr(), packetbuf_datalen());
    packetbuf_copyfrom(MESSAGE, strlen(MESSAGE));
    mesh_send(&mesh, from);
}
static struct mesh_conn mesh;
const static struct mesh_callbacks callbacks = {recv, sent, timedout};
/*-----*/
PROCESS_THREAD(example_mesh_process, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_EXITHANDLER(mesh_close(&mesh));
    PROCESS_BEGIN();

    mesh_open(&mesh, 132, &callbacks);

    SENSORS_ACTIVATE(button_sensor);

    while(1) {
        rimeaddr_t addr;

        /* Wait for button click before sending the first message. */
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(ev == sensors_event && data == &button_sensor);

        printf("Button clicked\n");

        /* Send a message to node number 1. */

        packetbuf_copyfrom(MESSAGE, strlen(MESSAGE));
        addr.u8[0] = 1;
        addr.u8[1] = 0;
        mesh_send(&mesh, &addr);
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 36: mesh example

In Fig. 36 example, a message is sent to the address 1.0. Every time a message is received, is resend to the source address.

Although the structure is similar to the unicast and broadcast examples, there is an underlaying login in the *mesh_conn* struct. The struct has 2 connections, a *route_discovery_conn* that creates a routing table of destinations, and a *multihop_conn* struct, to pass the incoming messages for another destination.

<code>mesh_conn</code>	A mesh connection. It contains a <code>multihop_conn</code> struct, a <code>route_discovery_conn</code> struct, a <code>queuebuf</code> of packets, a <code>rimeaddr_t</code> of the data destination, and the list of callbacks
<code>mesh_callbacks</code>	A list of 2 functions to call when a packet is received, and a packet is sent. (<code>mesh_callbacks</code> = {recv,sent,timeout})

Tab. 23: Rime mesh struct

<code>void mesh_open (struct mesh_conn *c, uint16_t channels, const struct mesh_callbacks *callbacks)</code>	Open a mesh connection
<code>void mesh_close (struct mesh_conn *c)</code>	Close an mesh connection
<code>int mesh_send (struct mesh_conn *c, const rimeaddr_t *dest)</code>	Send a mesh packet
<code>int mesh_ready (struct mesh_conn *c)</code>	Test if mesh is ready to send a packet (or packet is queued)

Tab. 24: Rime mesh API

4.9 Contiki uIP Stack

The uIP TCP/IP stack is intended to make it possible to communicate using the TCP/IP protocol suite even on small 8-bit micro-controllers. Despite being small and simple, uIP does not require their peers to have complex, full-size stacks, but can communicate with peers running a similarly light-weight stack. The code size is on the order of a few kilobytes and RAM usage can be configured to be as low as a few hundred bytes.

To use the uIP stack with IPv6, the Makefile of the application, must contain three parameters:

```
WITH UIP6=1
UIP_CONF IPV6=1
CFLAGS+= -DUIP_CONF IPV6_RPL
```

<code>uip_ip4addr_t</code>	An IP address. Either IPv4 address, or IPv6 if IPv6 is activated
<code>union uip_ip4addr_t</code>	Representation of an IPv4 address

<code>union uip_ip6addr_t</code>	Representation of an IPv6 address
<code>struct uip_802154_shortaddr</code>	16 bit 802.15.4 address
<code>struct uip_802154_longaddr</code>	64 bit 802.15.4 address
<code>struct uip_80211_addr</code>	802.11 address
<code>struct uip_eth_addr</code>	802.3 address
<code>struct uip_conn</code>	Representation of a uIP TCP connection
<code>struct uip_udp_conn</code>	Representation of a uIP UDP connection.
<code>struct uip_stats</code>	The structure holding the TCP/IP statistics that are gathered if UIP_STATISTICS is set to 1

Tab. 25: uIP struct

<code>uip_datalen()</code>	The length of any incoming data that is currently available (if available) in the <code>uip_appdata</code> buffer
<code>uip_urgdatalen()</code>	The length of any out-of-band data (urgent data) that has arrived on the connection
<code>uip_close()</code>	Close the current connection
<code>uip_abort()</code>	Abort the current connection. More...
<code>uip_stop()</code>	Tell the sending host to stop sending data
<code>uip_stopped(conn)</code>	Find out if the current connection has been previously stopped with <code>uip_stop()</code> .
<code>uip_restart()</code>	Restart the current connection, if it has previously been stopped with <code>uip_stop()</code>
<code>uip_udpconnection()</code>	Is the current connection a UDP connection?
<code>uip_newdata()</code>	Is new incoming data available?
<code>uip_acked()</code>	Has previously sent data been acknowledged?
<code>uip_connected()</code>	Has the connection just been connected?
<code>uip_closed()</code>	Has the connection been closed by the other end?
<code>uip_aborted()</code>	Has the connection been aborted by the other end?
<code>uip_timedout()</code>	Has the connection timed out?
<code>uip_rexmit()</code>	Do we need to retransmit previously data?
<code>uip_poll()</code>	Is the connection being polled by uIP?
<code>uip_initialmss()</code>	Get the initial maximum segment size (MSS) of the current connection.
<code>uip_mss()</code>	Get the current maximum segment size that can be sent on the current connection
<code>uip_udp_remove(conn)</code>	Remove a UDP connection
<code>uip_udp_bind(conn, port)</code>	Bind a UDP connection to a local port
<code>uip_udp_send(len)</code>	Send a UDP datagram of length len on the current connection

Tab. 26: uIP macros

<code>void uip_listen (uint16_t port)</code>	Start listening to the specified port
<code>void uip_unlisten (uint16_t port)</code>	Stop listening to the specified port

<code>struct uip_conn * uip_connect (uip_ipaddr_t *ripaddr, uint16_t port)</code>	Connect to a remote host using TCP
<code>void uip_send (const void *data, int len)</code>	Send data on the current connection
<code>struct uip_udp_conn * uip_udp_new (const uip_ipaddr_t *ripaddr, uint16_t rport)</code>	Set up a new UDP connection

Tab. 27: uIP functions

On top of the uIP stack, there is an application API using the stack, that differentiates between TCP and UDP connections.

4.9.1 TCP

There are 2 approaches to handle TCP connections:

4.9.1.1 Raw API

A simple API to bind TCP ports, and handle connections. This API can handle one or two connections. If a more complex application, with several ports, or several connections, although is still possible to achieve with this API, it becomes hard to manage. This API is mainly used for the client side of the connection.

<code>void tcp_attach (struct uip_conn *conn, void *appstate)</code>	Attach a TCP connection to the current process (Internally using)
<code>void tcp_listen (uint16_t port)</code>	Open a TCP port
<code>void tcp_unlisten (uint16_t port)</code>	Close a listening TCP port
<code>struct uip_conn * tcp_connect (uip_ipaddr_t *ripaddr, uint16_t port, void *appstate)</code>	Open a TCP connection to the specified IP address and port
<code>void tcPIP_poll_tcp (struct uip_conn *conn)</code>	Cause a specified TCP connection to be polled

Tab. 28: TCP raw API

4.9.1.2 Protosocket API

It uses the raw API together with the protothread library, to have a more flexible way to program TCP applications. This library provides an interface similar to the standard BSD sockets (Unix sockets), and allows programming the application in a process. This API is used for the server side of the connection.

Protosockets only work with TCP connections.

<code>PSOCK_INIT(psock, buffer, buffersize)</code>	Initialize a protosocket
<code>PSOCK_BEGIN(psock)</code>	Start the protosocket protothread in a function
<code>PSOCK_SEND(psock, data, datalen)</code>	Send data
<code>PSOCK_SEND_STR(psock, str)</code>	Send a null-terminated string
<code>PSOCK_GENERATOR_SEND(psock, generator, arg)</code>	Generate data with a function and send it
<code>PSOCK_CLOSE(psock)</code>	Close a protosocket

PSOCK_READBUF(psock)	Read data until the buffer is full
PSOCK_READBUF_LEN(psock, len)	Read data until at least len bytes have been read
PSOCK_READTO(psock, c)	Read data up to a specified character
PSOCK_DATALEN(psock)	The length of the data that was previously read.
PSOCK_EXIT(psock)	Exit the protosocket's protothread
PSOCK_CLOSE_EXIT(psock)	Close a protosocket and exit the protosocket's protothread
PSOCK_END(psock)	Declare the end of a protosocket's protothread
PSOCK_NEWDATA(psock)	Check if new data has arrived on a protosocket
PSOCK_WAIT_UNTIL(psock, condition)	Wait until a condition is true

Tab. 29: Protosocket API

Fig. 37 Example is an echo server, that listens to the port 12345, and responds with the data received.

To initialize a protosocket, a pssock structure and a buffer is needed. The protosocket only will be able to read in blocks of the size of the buffer length. In the example 50 bytes.

The protosocket library uses protothreads to provide sequential control flow. This makes the protosockets lightweight in terms of memory, but also means that protosockets inherits the functional limitations of protothreads. Each protosocket lives only within a single function block. Automatic variables (stack variables) are not necessarily retained across a protosocket library function call.

Because each protosocket runs as a protothread, the protosocket has to be started with a call to PSOCK_BEGIN() at the start of the function in which the protosocket is used. Similarly, the protosocket protothread can be terminated by a call to PSOCK_EXIT().

In PSOCK_READTO(), the protosocket will stop, and read data until the specified character is read.

```

static struct psock ps;
static char buffer[10];
/*-----*/
static
PT_THREAD(handle_connection(struct psock *p))
{
    /*
     * A protosocket's protothread must start with a PSOCK_BEGIN(), with
     * the protosocket as argument.
     */
    PSOCK_BEGIN(p);

    /*
     * We start by sending out a welcoming message. The message is sent
     * using the PSOCK_SEND_STR() function that sends a null-terminated
     * string.
     */
    PSOCK_SEND_STR(p, "Welcome, please type something and press return.\n");

    /*
     * Next, we use the PSOCK_READTO() function to read incoming data
     * from the TCP connection until we get a newline character.
     */
    PSOCK_READTO(p, '\n');

    /*
     * And we send back the contents of the buffer. The PSOCK_DATALEN()
     * function provides us with the length of the data that we've
     * received.
     */
    PSOCK_SEND_STR(p, "Got the following data: ");
    PSOCK_SEND(p, buffer, PSOCK_DATALEN(p));
    PSOCK_SEND_STR(p, "Good bye!\r\n");

    /*
     * We close the protosocket.
     */
    PSOCK_CLOSE(p);

    /*
     * And end the protosocket's protothread.
     */
    PSOCK_END(p);
}
/*-----*/

```

Fig. 37: TCP protosocket example

```

/*
PROCESS(example_psocck_server_process, "Example protosocket server");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&example_psocck_server_process);
*/
PROCESS_THREAD(example_psocck_server_process, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();

    /*
     * We start with setting up a listening TCP port. Note how we're
     * using the UIP_HTONS() macro to convert the port number (1010) to
     * network byte order as required by the tcp_listen() function.
     */
    tcp_listen(UIP_HTONS(1010));

    while(1) {
        /*
         * We wait until we get the first TCP/IP event
         */
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(ev == tcpip_event);
        /*
         * If a peer connected with us, we'll initialize the protosocket
         * with PSOCK_INIT().
         */
        if(uip_connected()) {
            /*
             * The PSOCK_INIT() function initializes the protosocket and
             * binds the input buffer to the protosocket.
             */
            PSOCK_INIT(&ps, buffer, sizeof(buffer));
            /*
             * We loop until the connection is aborted, closed, or times out.
             */
            while(!(uip_aborted() || uip_closed() || uip_timedout())) {
                /*
                 * We wait until we get a TCP/IP event.
                 */
                PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(ev == tcpip_event);
                /*
                 * We call the handle_connection() protothread that we defined above. This
                 * protothread uses the protosocket to receive the data that we want it to.
                 */
                handle_connection(&ps);
            }
        }
        PROCESS_END();
    }
}
*/

```

Fig. 38: TCP protosocket example main loop

4.9.2 UDP

There are two approaches to handle TCP connections:

4.9.2.1 Raw UDP API

This API is used to handle UDP connections.

void udp_attach (struct uip_udp_conn *conn, void *appstate)	To attach the current process to a UDP connection
struct uip_udp_conn * udp_new (const uip_ipaddr_t *ripaddr, uint16_t port, void *appstate)	To create a new UDP connection
struct uip_udp_conn * udp_broadcast_new (uint16_t port, void *appstate)	To create a new UDP broadcast connection

void tcpip_poll_udp (struct uip_udp_conn *conn)	To cause a specified UDP connection to be polled
void udp_bind(struct uip_udp_conn *conn, uint16_t port)	To bind a UDP connection to a local port (An internal call to uip_udp_bind(conn, port))

Tab. 30: raw UDP API

4.9.2.2 Simple-UDP API

The simple-udp module provides a significantly simpler API than the raw UDP API.

int simple_udp_send (struct simple_udp_connection *c, const void *data, uint16_t datalen)	Send a UDP packet.
int simple_udp_sendto (struct simple_udp_connection *c, const void *data, uint16_t datalen, const uip_ipaddr_t *to)	Send a UDP packet to a specified IP address
int simple_udp_sendto_port (struct simple_udp_connection *c, const void *data, uint16_t datalen, const uip_ipaddr_t *to, uint16_t port)	Send a UDP packet to a specified IP address and UDP port
int simple_udp_register (struct simple_udp_connection *c, uint16_t local_port, uip_ipaddr_t *remote_addr, uint16_t remote_port, simple_udp_callback receive_callback)	Register a UDP connection

Tab. 31: Simple-UDP API

4.10 Contiki COAP 13 (Erbium)

Erbium is an implementation of the CoAP protocol.

Contiki 2.7 has 4 versions of the CoAP protocol. Being the last one coap-13.

void coap_init_connection(uint16_t port)	Inits a coap connection listen on the given port
uint16_t coap_get_mid(void)	Generates the next message id
void coap_init_message(void *packet, coap_message_type_t type, uint8_t code, uint16_t mid)	Assigns to the packet struct the connection type, status code and message id
size_t coap_serialize_message(void *packet, uint8_t *buffer)	Serializes the given packet. Puts buffer into the packet.
void coap_send_message(uip_ipaddr_t *addr, uint16_t port, uint8_t *data, uint16_t length)	Sends the message to the given address and port
coap_status_t coap_parse_message(void *request, uint8_t *data, uint16_t data_len)	Parses the given message. Extracts the request data.
int coap_get_query_variable(void *packet, const char *name, const char **output)	Gets the query-variable from the packet
int coap_get_post_variable(void *packet, const char *name, const char **output);	Gets the post-variable from the packet
int coap_set_status_code(void *packet, unsigned int code)	Sets the given status-code on the packet
unsigned int coap_get_header_content_type(void *packet)	Gets the content-type from the packet header
int coap_set_header_content_type(void *packet, unsigned int content_type);	Sets the given content-type on the packet header

int coap_get_header_accept(void *packet, const uint16_t **accept);	Gets the accept from the packet header
int coap_set_header_accept(void *packet, uint16_t accept)	Sets the given accept on the packet header
int coap_get_header_max_age(void *packet, uint32_t *age)	Gets the max-age from the packet header
int coap_set_header_max_age(void *packet, uint32_t age)	Sets the given max-age on the packet header
int coap_get_header_etag(void *packet, const uint8_t **etag)	Gets the etag from the packet header
int coap_set_header_etag(void *packet, const uint8_t *etag, size_t etag_len)	Sets the given etag on the packet header
int coap_get_header_if_match(void *packet, const uint8_t **etag)	Gets the if-match from the packet header
int coap_set_header_if_match(void *packet, const uint8_t *etag, size_t etag_len)	Sets the given if-match on the packet header
int coap_get_header_if_none_match(void *packet)	Gets the if-none-match from the packet header
int coap_set_header_if_none_match(void *packet)	Sets the given if-none-match on the packet header
int coap_get_header_token(void *packet, const uint8_t **token)	Gets the token from the packet header
int coap_set_header_token(void *packet, const uint8_t *token, size_t token_len)	Sets the given token on the packet header
int coap_get_header_proxy_uri(void *packet, const char **uri)	Gets the proxy-uri from the packet header
int coap_set_header_proxy_uri(void *packet, const char *uri)	Sets the given proxy-uri on the packet header
int coap_get_header_uri_host(void *packet, const char **host)	Gets the uri-host from the packet header
int coap_set_header_uri_host(void *packet, const char *host)	Sets the given uri-host on the packet header
int coap_get_header_uri_path(void *packet, const char **path)	Gets the uri-path from the packet header
int coap_set_header_uri_path(void *packet, const char *path)	Sets the given uri-path on the packet header
int coap_get_header_uri_query(void *packet, const char **query)	Gets the uri-query from the packet header
int coap_set_header_uri_query(void *packet, const char *query)	Sets the given uri-query on the packet header
int coap_get_header_location_path(void *packet, const char **path)	Gets the location-path from the packet header
int coap_set_header_location_path(void *packet, const char *path)	Sets the given location-path on the packet header
int coap_get_header_location_query(void *packet, const char **query)	Gets the location-query from the packet header
int coap_set_header_location_query(void *packet, const char *query)	Sets the given location-query on the packet header
int coap_get_header_observe(void *packet, uint32_t	Gets the given observe number

<code>*observe)</code>	from the packet header
<code>int coap_set_header_observe(void *packet, uint32_t observe)</code>	Sets the given observe number in the packet header
<code>int coap_get_header_block2(void *packet, uint32_t *num, uint8_t *more, uint16_t *size, uint32_t *offset)</code>	Gets the given block2 header from the packet header
<code>int coap_set_header_block2(void *packet, uint32_t num, uint8_t more, uint16_t size)</code>	Sets the given block2 header on the packet header
<code>int coap_get_header_block1(void *packet, uint32_t *num, uint8_t *more, uint16_t *size, uint32_t *offset)</code>	Gets the given block1 header from the packet header
<code>int coap_set_header_block1(void *packet, uint32_t num, uint8_t more, uint16_t size)</code>	Sets the given block1 header on the packet header
<code>int coap_get_header_size(void *packet, uint32_t *size)</code>	Gets the given header from the packet
<code>int coap_set_header_size(void *packet, uint32_t size)</code>	Sets the given header on the packet
<code>int coap_get_payload(void *packet, const uint8_t **payload)</code>	Gets the given payload from the packet
<code>int coap_set_payload(void *packet, const void *payload, size_t length)</code>	Sets the given payload on the packet

Tab. 32: CoAP 13 raw API

To activate CoAP, the Makefile of the application must have this parameters:

```
CFLAGS += -DWITH_COAP=13
CFLAGS += -DREST=coap_rest_implementation
CFLAGS += -DUIP_CONF_TCP=0
APPS += er-coap-13
APPS += erbium
```

All the configuration parameters can be found in the files “apps/er-coap-13/er-coap-13.h” or “apps/erbium/erbium.h”

A CoAP server has 2 distinct parts:

- Resources definition
- Resource activation

There are 4 kind of resources. Each resource definition macro creates a `resource_t` struc with the defined information, and instantiates some function handler. Each one of them is explained in detail in the next section.

<code>RESOURCE(name, flags, url, attributes)</code>	Defines a resource
<code>SUB_RESOURCE(name, flags, url, attributes, parent)</code>	Defines a sub-resource
<code>EVENT_RESOURCE(name, flags, url, attributes)</code>	Defines an event resource
<code>PERIODIC_RESOURCE(name, flags, url, attributes, period)</code>	Defines a periodic resource

Tab. 33: CoAP 13 resource definition API

- **name:** Used to instantiate the function handlers.
- **flags:** The methods that the resource responds to, and a special flag, if the resource has sub-resources. To add more than one flag an OR mask must be used (METHOD_GET | METHOD_POST)
- **url:** A string with the path of the url.
- **attributes:** The link-format parameters.

METHOD_GET
METHOD_POST
METHOD_PUT
METHOD_DELETE
HAS_SUB_RESOURCES

Tab. 34: CoAP 13 resource methods

Once a resource is defined, it needs to be activated in a main process.

void rest_activate_resource(resource_t* resource);	Activates a given resource
void rest_activate_periodic_resource(periodic_resource_t* periodic_resource);	Activates a given periodic resource
void rest_activate_event_resource(resource_t* resource);	Activates a given event resource

Tab. 35: CoAP 13 resource activation functions

All the handler functions must be implemented.

void name_handler (void* request, void* response, uint8_t *buffer, uint16_t preferred_size, int32_t *offset)	Function called in a GET request. Has to be implemented in a resource, event resource and periodic resource.
void name_event_handler (resource_t *r)	Function to be called in an event to notify subscribers of the event. Has to be implemented in a event resource.
void name_periodic_handler (resource_t *r)	Function called every period of time. It has to notify subscribers. It has to be implemented in a periodic resource.

Tab. 36: CoAP 13 handler function definition

REST_MAX_CHUNK_SIZE	The max size of the buffer in the handler functions (128 bytes by default)
COAP_DEFAULT_PORT	The port the server is listening (5683 by default)

Tab. 37: CoAP 13 constants

The REST struc, has all the functions to manage the incoming requests and the outgoing responses in every handler function.

void init(void)	Initialize the REST implementation
void set_service_callback(service_callback_t callback)	Register the RESTful service callback at implementation
int get_url(void *request, const char **url)	Get request URI path
int set_url(void *request, const char *url)	Set request URI path
rest_resource_flags_t get_method_type(void *request)	Get the method of a request
int set_response_status(void *response, unsigned int code)	Set the status code of a response
unsigned int get_header_content_type(void *request)	Get the content-type of a request
int set_header_content_type(void *response, unsigned int content_type)	Set the Content-Type of a response
int get_header_accept(void *request, const uint16_t **accept)	Get the Accept types of a request
int get_header_length(void *request, uint32_t *size)	Get the Length option of a request
int set_header_length(void *response, uint32_t size)	Set the Length option of a response
int get_header_max_age(void *request, uint32_t *age)	Get the Max-Age option of a request
int set_header_max_age(void *response, uint32_t age)	Set the Max-Age option of a response
int set_header_etag(void *response, const uint8_t *etag, size_t length)	Set the ETag option of a response
int get_header_if_match(void *request, const uint8_t **etag)	Get the If-Match option of a request
int get_header_if_none_match(void *request)	Get the If-Match option of a request
int get_header_host(void *request, const char **host)	Get the Host option of a request
int set_header_location(void *response, const char *location)	Set the location option of a response
int get_request_payload(void *request, const uint8_t **payload)	Get the payload option of a request
int set_response_payload(void *response, const void *payload, size_t length)	Set the payload option of a response
int get_query(void *request, const char **value)	Get the query string of a request
int get_query_variable(void *request, const char *name, const char **value)	Get the value of a request query key-value pair
int get_post_variable(void *request, const char *name, const char **value)	Get the value of a request POST key-value pair
void notify_subscribers(resource_t *resource, int32_t counter, void *notification)	Send the payload to all subscribers of the resource at url

Tab. 38: REST struc functions

type.TEXT_PLAIN
type.TEXT_XML
type.TEXT_CSV
type.TEXT_HTML
type.IMAGE_GIF
type.IMAGE_JPEG
type.IMAGE_PNG
type.IMAGE_TIFF
type.AUDIO_RAW
type.VIDEO_RAW
type.APPLICATION_LINK_FORMAT
type.APPLICATION_XML
type.APPLICATION_OCTET_STREAM
type.APPLICATION_RDF_XML
type.APPLICATION_SOAP_XML
type.APPLICATION_ATOM_XML
type.APPLICATION_XMPP_XML
type.APPLICATION_EXI
type.APPLICATION_FASTINFOSET
type.APPLICATION_SOAP_FASTINFOSET
type.APPLICATION_JSON
type.APPLICATION_X_OBIX_BINARY

Tab. 39: REST content-type constants

status.OK	CONTENT_2_05, OK_200
status.CREATED	CREATED_2_01, CREATED_201
status.CHANGED	CHANGED_2_04, NO_CONTENT_204
status.DELETED	DELETED_2_02, NO_CONTENT_204
status.NOT_MODIFIED	VALID_2_03, NOT_MODIFIED_304
status.BAD_REQUEST	BAD_REQUEST_4_00, BAD_REQUEST_400
status.UNAUTHORIZED	UNAUTHORIZED_4_01, UNAUTHORIZED_401
status.BAD_OPTION	BAD_OPTION_4_02, BAD_REQUEST_400
status.FORBIDDEN	FORBIDDEN_4_03, FORBIDDEN_403
status.NOT_FOUND	NOT_FOUND_4_04, NOT_FOUND_404
status.METHOD_NOT_ALLOWED	METHOD_NOT_ALLOWED_4_05, METHOD_NOT_ALLOWED_405
status.NOT_ACCEPTABLE	NOT_ACCEPTABLE_4_06, NOT_ACCEPTABLE_406
status.REQUEST_ENTITY_TOO_LARGE	REQUEST_ENTITY_TOO_LARGE_4_13, REQUEST_ENTITY_TOO_LARGE_413
status.UNSUPPORTED_MEDIA_TYPE	UNSUPPORTED_MEDIA_TYPE_4_15, UNSUPPORTED_MEDIA_TYPE_415

status.INTERNAL_SERVER_ERROR	INTERNAL_SERVER_ERROR_5_00, INTERNAL_SERVER_ERROR_500
status.NOT_IMPLEMENTED	NOT_IMPLEMENTED_5_01, NOT_IMPLEMENTED_501
status.BAD_GATEWAY	BAD_GATEWAY_5_02, BAD_GATEWAY_502
status.SERVICE_UNAVAILABLE	SERVICE_UNAVAILABLE_5_03, SERVICE_UNAVAILABLE_503
status.GATEWAY_TIMEOUT	GATEWAY_TIMEOUT_5_04, GATEWAY_TIMEOUT_504
status.PROXYING_NOT_SUPPORTED	PROXYING_NOT_SUPPORTED_5_05, INTERNAL_SERVER_ERROR_500

Tab. 40: REST status codes constants

4.10.1 CoAP Resources

4.10.1.1 Resource

A CoAP resource can respond to 4 kind of methods. It invokes the function handler in each request. This kind of resource only needs one handler defined. It cannot be observable.

The example in Fig. 39 shows a resource responding with a hello world string. It copies the message in the buffer, sets the response content type as text-plain and sets the buffer in the response.

```
RESOURCE(helloworld, METHOD_GET, "hello", "title=\"Hello world\";rt=\"Text\"");
void
helloworld_handler(void* request, void* response, uint8_t *buffer, uint16_t preferred_size, int32_t *offset)
{
    char const * const message = "Hello World!";
    memcpy(buffer, message, strlen(message));
    REST.set_header_content_type(response, REST.type.TEXT_PLAIN);
    REST.set_response_payload(response, buffer, strlen(message));
}
```

Fig. 39: CoAP 13 resource definition example

```
PROCESS(resource_example, "Resource Example Server");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&resource_example);

PROCESS_THREAD(resource_example, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    rest_init_engine();
    rest_activate_resource(&resource_helloworld);
    PROCESS_END();
}
```

Fig. 40: CoAP 13 resource example main process

4.10.1.2 Sub-resource

A CoAP sub-resource is a resource without a handler. The sub-resource requests are handled by the parent resource handler.

In the example in Fig. 41 there is main resource with a handler, that prints out the resource uri path. Then a sub-resource with his parent resource the main resource.

If the main resource receives a GET request, the output will be “main”, and if the sub-resource is requested, the output will be “main/sub”.

```
RESOURCE(main, METHOD_GET | HAS_SUB_RESOURCES, "main", "title=\\"Main resource\\\"");

void
main_handler(void* request, void* response, uint8_t *buffer, uint16_t preferred_size, int32_t *offset)
{
    REST.set_header_content_type(response, REST.type.TEXT_PLAIN);

    const char *uri_path = NULL;
    int len = REST.get_url(request, &uri_path);

    snprintf((char *)buffer, len+1, "%s", uri_path);

    REST.set_response_payload(response, buffer, strlen((char *)buffer));
}
SUB_RESOURCE(sub, METHOD_GET, "main/sub", "title=\\"Sub-resource\\\"",main);
```

Fig. 41: CoAP 13 sub-resource definition example

```
PROCESS(sub_resource_example, "Sub-resource Example Server");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&sub_resource_example);

PROCESS_THREAD(sub_resource_example, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    rest_init_engine();
    rest_activate_resource(&resource_main);
    rest_activate_resource(&resource_sub);
    PROCESS_END();
}
```

Fig. 42: CoAP 13 sub-resource example main process

4.10.1.3 Event resource

A CoAP event resource, is a resource that handles the observe option, and notifies when a programmed event occurs to the subscribers of the resource.

It has 2 handler functions. The first one is invoked when a request is sent to it. The second handler, has to be invoked in the main loop, when an event occurs.

The example in Fig. 43 shows an event resource. The first handler is the response to a get request, with a text output “It's eventful!”. The second handler is the



notification of an event to the subscribers of the event. In this example the event is a button pressed on the platform. It creates a new packet with the raw API with a counter of the times the event has happened, and then sends it to all subscribers.

```
EVENT_RESOURCE(example, METHOD_GET, "sensors/button", "title=\"Event demo\";obs");

void
example_handler(void* request, void* response, uint8_t *buffer, uint16_t preferred_size, int32_t *offset)
{
    REST.set_header_content_type(response, REST.type.TEXT_PLAIN);

    const char *msg = "It's eventful!";
    REST.set_response_payload(response, (uint8_t *)msg, strlen(msg));
}

void
example_event_handler(resource_t *r)
{
    static uint16_t event_counter = 0;
    static char content[12];

    ++event_counter;

    coap_packet_t notification[1];
    coap_init_message(notification, COAP_TYPE_CON, REST.status.OK, 0 );
    coap_set_payload(notification, content, snprintf(content, sizeof(content), "EVENT %u", event_counter));
    REST.notify_subscribers(r, event_counter, notification);
}
```

Fig. 43: CoAP 13 event resource definition example

In the main process, there is the activation of the button sensor, and when the button is pressed, the main loop calls the event handler.

```
PROCESS(event_resource_example, "Event Resource Example Server");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&event_resource_example);

PROCESS_THREAD(event_resource_example, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    rest_init_engine();
    rest_activate_event_resource(&resource_example);
    SENSORS_ACTIVATE(button_sensor);
    while(1){
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT();
        if (ev == sensors_event && data == &button_sensor) {
            example_event_handler(&resource_example);
        }
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}
```

Fig. 44: CoAP 13 event resource example main process

4.10.1.4 Periodic resource

A CoAP periodic resource is a resource that handles the observe option, and notifies periodically to the subscribers of the resource.

It has two handler functions. The first one is invoked when a request is sent to it. The second one is invoked periodically to notify the subscribers of the resource.

The example in Fig.45 is a periodic resource definition. The first handler, responds to a get request with the message “It's periodic!”. The second one notifies the subscribers of the event every 5 seconds, with a counter that is increased in every call.

```
PERIODIC_RESOURCE(pushng, METHOD_GET, "periodic", "title=\"Periodic resource\";obs", 5*CLOCK_SECOND);

void
pushng_handler(void* request, void* response, uint8_t *buffer, uint16_t preferred_size, int32_t *offset)
{
    REST.set_header_content_type(response, REST.type.TEXT_PLAIN);

    const char *msg = "It's periodic!";
    REST.set_response_payload(response, msg, strlen(msg));
}

void
pushng_periodic_handler(resource_t *r)
{
    static uint16_t obs_counter = 0;
    static char content[11];

    ++obs_counter;

    coap_packet_t notification[1];
    coap_init_message(notification, COAP_TYPE_NON, REST.status.OK, 0 );
    coap_set_payload(notification, content, sprintf(content, sizeof(content), "TICK %u", obs_counter));

    REST.notify_subscribers(r, obs_counter, notification);
}
```

Fig. 45: CoAP 13 periodic resource definition example

```
PROCESS(periodic_resource_example, "Periodic Resource Example Server");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&periodic_resource_example);

PROCESS_THREAD(periodic_resource_example, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    rest_init_engine();
    rest_activate_periodic_resource(&periodic_resource_pushng);
    PROCESS_END();
}
```

Fig. 46: CoAP 13 periodic resource example main process

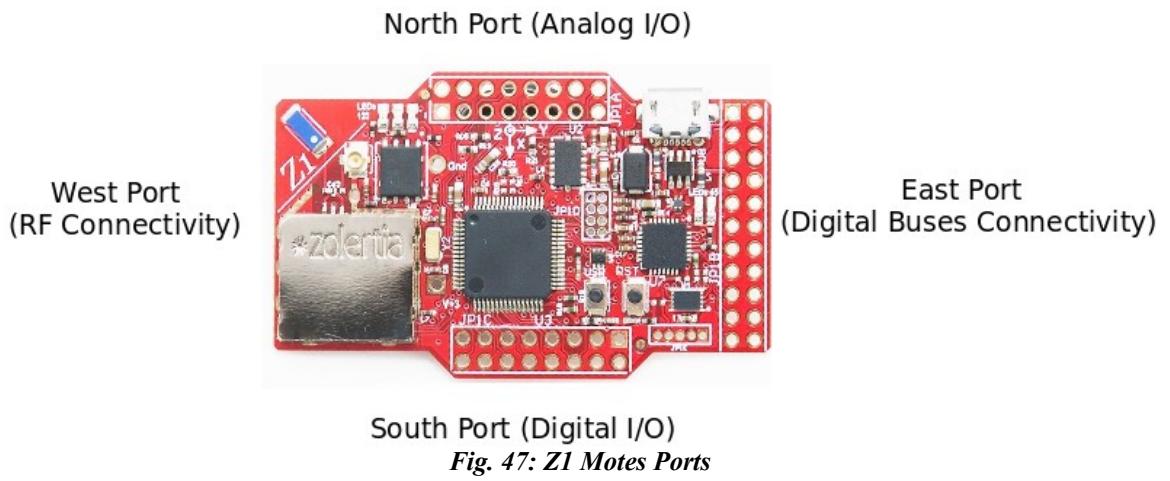
5 Zolertia Z1 Motes

The Z1 is a low power wireless module compliant with IEEE 802.15.4 and Zigbee protocols intended to be used for Wireless Sensor Networks.

This mote has support for Tiny OS, Contiki OS, OpenWSN and RIOT. The MCU architecture is based upon the MSP430 and the radio transceiver on CC2420 architecture, both from Texas Instruments.

5.1 Peripherals ports

It has 4 separated ports, for different purposes.



5.1.1 North Port

Intended for Analog I/O. Here are all the available ADCs (up to 8) and DACs (up to 2).

Features	MSP430 Port#	Pin Name	Pin#	Pin Name	MSP430 Port#	Features
Phidget powered @5V, ADC input has resistor divider to allow 5V inputs	P6.3	ADCGND	1 2	ADCGND	P6.7	Phidget @3V
		USB+5V	3 4	Vcc+3V	P6.6	
	P6.4	ADC3*	5 6	ADC7	P6.5	
	P6.2	ADC4	7 8	ADC6/DAC0		
		ADC2	9 10	ADC5/DAC1		
Phidget powered @5V, ADC input has resistor divider to allow 5V inputs	P6.0	ADCGND	11 12	ADCGND	P6.1	Phidget @3V
		USB+5V	13 14	Vcc+3V		
		ADC0*	15 16	ADC1		

Fig. 48: JP1A Pinout description

Source: Z1 Datasheet

5.1.2 East Port

Intended for digital buses connectivity (USB, I2C, SPI, 2xUARTs) as well as some GPIOs and powers and ground.

JP1B							
Features	MSP430 Port#	Pin Name	Pin#	Pin Name	MSP430 Port#	Features	
		USBGND	17 18	CPDGND			
		D_P	19 20	CPD+3.3V			
		D_N	21 22	D+3V			
		USB+5V	23 24	DGND			
P5.0		TEMP_PWR	25 26	I2C_SCL	P5.2		
P4.7		JPP4.7/TBCLK	27 28	I2C_SDA	P5.1		
P5.3		JPP5.3/UCB1 CLK	29 30	JPP4.2/TB2	P4.2		
P3.7		UART1.RX	31 32	JPP4.0/TB0	P4.0		
P3.6		UART1.TX	33 34	SPI_CLK	P3.3		
P3.5		UART0.RX	35 36	SPI_SIMO	P3.1		
P3.4		UART0.TX	37 38	SPI_SOMI	P3.2		

Fig. 49: JP1B Pinout description

Source: Z1 Datasheet

5.1.3 South Port

Intended for GPIOs as well as other configurable functions like interrupt input pins,

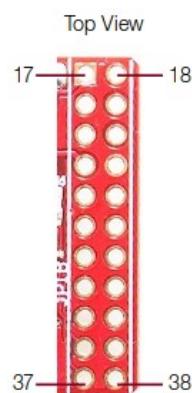


Fig. 50: JP1B Pinout

Source: Z1 Datasheet

comparator inputs, 1Wire. Also, some of the pins are already in use by some features of the Z1 and can be monitored or intercepted for another application from here.

JP1C							
MSP430 Port#	Pin Name	Pin#		Pin Name		MSP430 Port#	
P1.0	JPP1_1/CA0/TA0	54	53	BSL_RX		P1.1	
P1.6	P1.6/TA1	52	51	JPP1.5/TA0		P1.5	
P1.7	P1.7/TA2	50	49	JPP2.0/ACLK/CA2		P2.0	
P2.1	JPP2.1/TA1NCLK/CA3	48	47	BSL_TX		P2.2	
P2.3	JPP2.3/CA0/TA1	46	45	P2.4/CA1/TA2		P2.4	
P2.5	UserINT	44	43	JPP2.6/ADC12CLK/DMAEO/CA6		P2.6	
P4.3	JPP4.3/TB3	42	41	ALERT		P2.7	
	D+3V	40	39	DGND			

Fig. 51: JP1C Pinout description

Source: Z1 Datasheet

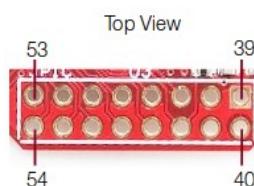


Fig. 52: JP1C Pinout

Source: Z1 Datasheet

5.1.4 West Port

Intended for wireless communication, either by embedded antenna or external antenna, using any supported wireless network protocol like Zigbee and 6LowPAN.

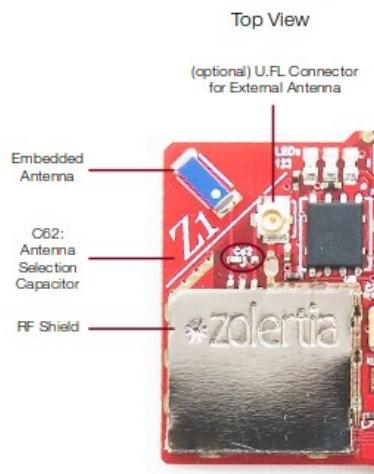


Fig. 53: West Port
Source: Z1 Datasheet

6 Z1 Sensors

A Z1 mote has 2 internal sensors, and using the external ports, can be connected to a variety of external sensors.

The main issue about collecting data with Contiki is the lack of support for floating point numbers in the stdio library, because of the large amount of code it requires. It has floating point numbers, but those are only useful for internal operations.

If a program needs to send the decimal data to an external source, has to use integers in the stdio functions, to write into the buffers.

6.1 Internal sensors

6.1.1 Temperature Sensor

The internal temperature sensor in the Z1 mote is the tmp102 sensor from Texas Instruments.

This sensor is integrated with the z1 motes using the I2C interface. It can read the temperature range of -40°C to +125°C.

The Contiki OS has his own library of functions that can read the sensor data, located in "platform/z1/dev/tmp102.h". To use it in a program, it has to include the library "dev/tmp102.h"

The main functions are:

void tmp102_init(void);	To init the ports and registers.
void tmp102_write_reg(uint8_t reg, uint16_t val);	Write to a register.
uint16_t tmp102_read_reg(uint8_t reg);	Read one register.
uint16_t tmp102_read_temp_raw();	Read temperature in raw format.
int8_t tmp102_read_temp_simple();	Read only integer part of the temperature in 1deg. precision.
int16_t tmp102_read_temp_x100();	Read only integer part of the temperature, multiplied by 100. E.g., 28,23° → 2823

Tab. 41: Contiki tmp102.h functions

```

#define TMP102_READ_INTERVAL (CLOCK_SECOND/2)

PROCESS(temp_process, "Test Temperature process");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&temp_process);
/*-----*/
static struct etimer et;

PROCESS_THREAD(temp_process, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();

    int16_t tempint;
    uint16_t tempfrac;
    int16_t raw;
    uint16_t absraw;
    int16_t sign;
    char minus = ' ';

    tmp102_init();

    while(1) {
        etimer_set(&et, TMP102_READ_INTERVAL);
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));
        sign = 1;
        printf("Reading Temp...\n");
        raw = tmp102_read_temp_raw();
        absraw = raw;
        if(raw < 0) { // Perform 2C's if sensor returned negative data
            absraw = (raw ^ 0xFFFF) + 1;
            sign = -1;
        }
        tempint = (absraw >> 8) * sign;
        tempfrac = ((absraw >> 4) % 16) * 625; // Info in 1/10000 of degree
        minus = ((tempint == 0) & (sign == -1)) ? '-' : ' ';
        printf("Temp = %c%d.%04d\n", minus, tempint, tempfrac);
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 54: Temperature sensor example

```

Temp = 26.6875
Temp = 26.7500
Temp = 26.7500
Temp = 26.8125
Temp = 26.8125
Temp = 26.8125
Temp = 26.8750
Temp = 26.8750
Temp = 26.8125

```

Fig. 55: Temperature sensor example output

6.1.2 Accelerometer

The internal accelerometer in the Z1 motes is the adxl345 from Analog Devices Inc.

This sensor is integrated with the z1 motes using the I2C interface.

The Contiki OS has his own library of functions that can read the sensor data, located in "platform/z1/dev/adxl345.h". To use it in a program, it has to include the library "dev/adxl345.h"

The sensor has 8 different interrupts to enable and 2 pins for mapping the interrupts.

ADXL345_INT_OVERRUN	When new data replaces unread data
ADXL345_INT_WATERMARK	When the number of samples in FIFO equals the value stored in the samples bits
ADXL345_INT_FREEFALL	When acceleration of less than the value stored in the THRESH_FF register is experienced for more time than is specified in the TIME_FF
ADXL345_INT_INACTIVITY	When acceleration greater than the value stored in the THRESH_ACT register is experienced for more time than is specified in the TIME_INACT
ADXL345_INT_ACTIVITY	When acceleration greater than the value stored in the THRESH_ACT register
ADXL345_INT_DBLTAP	When two acceleration event that is greater than the value in the THRESH_TAP register occurs for less time than is specified in the DUR register
ADXL345_INT_TAP	When a single acceleration event that is greater than the value in the THRESH_TAP register occurs for less time than is specified in the DUR register
ADXL345_INT_DATAREADY	When new data is available

```

#define ACCM_READ_INTERVAL      CLOCK_SECOND
static process_event_t et;
/*-----*/
PROCESS(accel_process, "Test Accel process");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&accel_process);

PROCESS_THREAD(accel_process, ev, data) {
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    {
        int16_t x, y, z;
        accm_init();
        while (1) {
            x = accm_read_axis(X_AXIS);
            y = accm_read_axis(Y_AXIS);
            z = accm_read_axis(Z_AXIS);
            printf("x: %d y: %d z: %d\n", x, y, z);

            etimer_set(&et, ACCM_READ_INTERVAL);
            PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));
        }
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}
/*-----*/

```

Fig. 56: Accelerometer example

```

x: 15 y: 81 z: 207
x: 15 y: 81 z: 205
x: 16 y: 82 z: 206
x: 2 y: 81 z: 207
x: -3 y: -1 z: 221
x: -14 y: -5 z: 222

```

Fig. 57: Accelerometer example output

6.2 External Sensors

The Z1 motes have several ways to connect sensors. In the next chapters, there are some examples of sensors, and how to read the data.

6.2.1 Analog sensors

To read the analog sensors, there is a Contiki library in “platform/z1/dev/z1-phidgets.h”

This library reads the values of 4 of the pins of the north ports, and returns a 16 bit register, representing the value. It uses a 12bits A/D converter, so the min value is 0 and the max in 4095.

There are 2 functions, to read the value.

SENSORS_ACTIVATE(phidgets);	Activates and configures the north port (input pins and the A/D converter)
phidgets.value(PHIDGETXV_X)	Reads the value from the designated pin.

Tab. 42: Contiki Phidgets library functions

There are four pins to read values.

PHIDGET5V_1	P6.0
PHIDGET5V_2	P6.3
PHIDGET3V_1	P6.1
PHIDGET3V_2	P6.7

Tab. 43: Contiki Phidgets port mapping

6.2.1.1 Precision Light Sensor

The precision light sensor used as an example is the Phidget P/N 1127 sensor.



Fig. 58: Precision light sensor

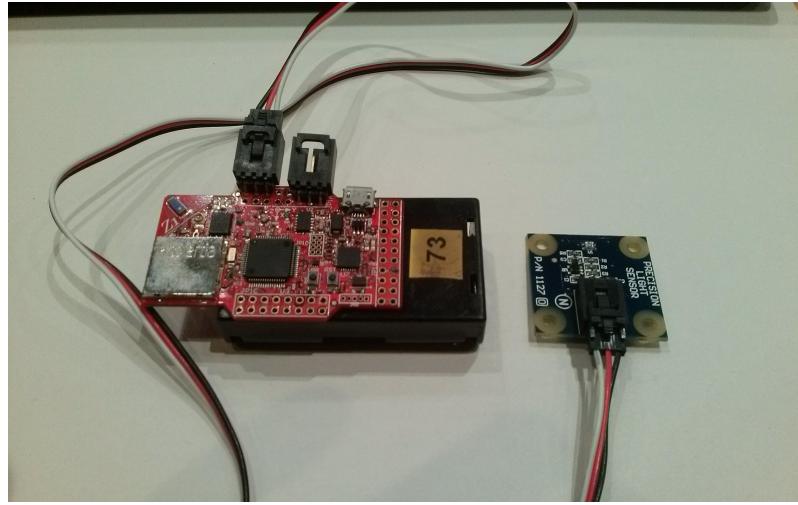


Fig. 59: Precision light sensor with Z1

This sensor is an analog sensor that measures light intensities of up to 1000 lux. It is a non-radiometric sensor. The output value does not depend on the input voltage, but the input voltage will limit the maximum measurement value.

The sensor can be connected to the north port of the Z1 motes, into the 3V port or the 5V port.

Light Level Min	1lx
Light Level Max (3.3V)	660 lx
Light Level Max (5V)	1 Klx

Tab. 44: Precision light measurement range

```

PROCESS(test_precision_light_process, "Test Precision Light Sensor");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&test_precision_light_process);
/*-----*/
PROCESS_THREAD(test_precision_light_process, ev, data)
{
    static struct etimer et;
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    SENSORS_ACTIVATE(phidgets);

    while(1) {
        etimer_set(&et, CLOCK_SECOND);
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));

        uint16_t valueint;
        uint16_t valuefrac;
        uint16_t rawvalue = phidgets.value(PHIDGET5V_1);      // connected to 6.0
        //uint16_t rawvalue = phidgets.value(PHIDGET5V_2);      // connected to 6.3
        //uint16_t rawvalue = phidgets.value(PHIDGET3V_1);      // connected to 6.1
        //uint16_t rawvalue = phidgets.value(PHIDGET3V_2);      // connected to 6.7
        valueint = (uint16_t) ((rawvalue)/4.095);
        valuefrac = (uint16_t) ((rawvalue*10)/4.095)%10;

        printf("Luminosity = %u.%u Lux\n", valueint,valuefrac);
        printf("\n");
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 60: Light sensor example code

```

Luminosity = 268.6 Lux
Luminosity = 17.3 Lux
Luminosity = 39.8 Lux
Luminosity = 340.9 Lux

```

Fig. 61: Light sensor example output

In Fig.60, to read the value of the sensor, the phidgets library from Contiki is used. After a raw read, the value is transformed to lux, knowing the maximum value of the A/D converter is 4095, and the maximum value the sensor can give is 1000 lux. (In this case is connected to 5V)

$$\frac{\text{value}}{4095} * 1000$$

6.2.1.2 Force Sensor

The force sensor used used as an example is the Phidget P/N 1106 sensor.

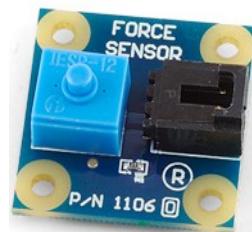


Fig. 62: Force sensor

This force sensor can be used as a button for human input or to sense the presence of a small object. It is a radiometric sensor. The output value depends on the input voltage. It measures the same force value with 3V or 5V.

Force Min	0 N
Force Max	39.2 N

Tab. 45: Force sensor measurement range

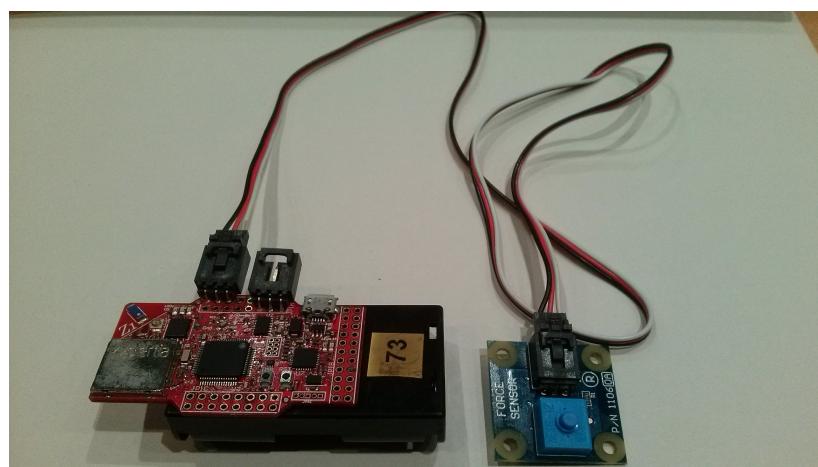


Fig. 63: Force sensor with Z1

```

PROCESS(force_sensor_process, "Force Sensor Test");
AUTOSTART_PROCESSES(&force_sensor_process);
/*-----*/
PROCESS_THREAD(force_sensor_process, ev, data)
{
    static struct etimer et;
    PROCESS_BEGIN();
    SENSORS_ACTIVATE(phidgets);
    while(1) {
        etimer_set(&et, CLOCK_SECOND);
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));

        uint16_t rawvalue;
        //rawvalue=phidgets.value(PHIDGET3V_1);
        //rawvalue=phidgets.value(PHIDGET3V_2);
        rawvalue=phidgets.value(PHIDGET5V_1);
        //rawvalue=phidgets.value(PHIDGET5V_2);

        uint16_t valueint = (uint16_t) ((rawvalue*39.2)/4095);
        uint16_t valuefrac = (uint16_t) ((rawvalue*392)/4095)%10;

        printf("Force = %u.%u N\n", valueint,valuefrac);
        printf("\n");
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 64: Force sensor example code

```

Force = 0.1 N
Force = 32.9 N
Force = 12.0 N

```

Fig. 65: Force sensor example output

In Fig. 64, to read the value of the sensor, the phidgets library from Contiki is used. Once the raw value is read, it is transformed it to Newtons, knowing the maximum value of the A/D converter is 4095, and the maximum value the sensor can give is 39.2 Newtons.

$$\frac{value}{4095} * 39.2$$

6.3 Relay actuator

The relay used as an example is the Electronic brick – 5V Relay form seedestudio.



Fig. 66: Relay actuator

This actuator, works as a switch, when a signal is sent through the signal pin. It has a library for the Z1 motes in “platform/z1/dev/relay-phidget.h”.

<code>void relay_enable(uint8_t pin)</code>	Enables the relay in the specified pin
<code>void relay_on()</code>	Activates the relay
<code>void relay_off()</code>	Deactivates the relay
<code>uint8_t relay_toggle()</code>	Toggles the relay

Tab. 46: Contiki Z1 relay API

This library conflicts with the phidgets library, because it turns the selected pin from the north port as an output, and the phidgets functions as an input.

In this configuration, the switch is powered with 5V supplied by the Z1 in the ON port, and with ground in the OFF port. It toggles the led on and off, each time the signal is triggered.

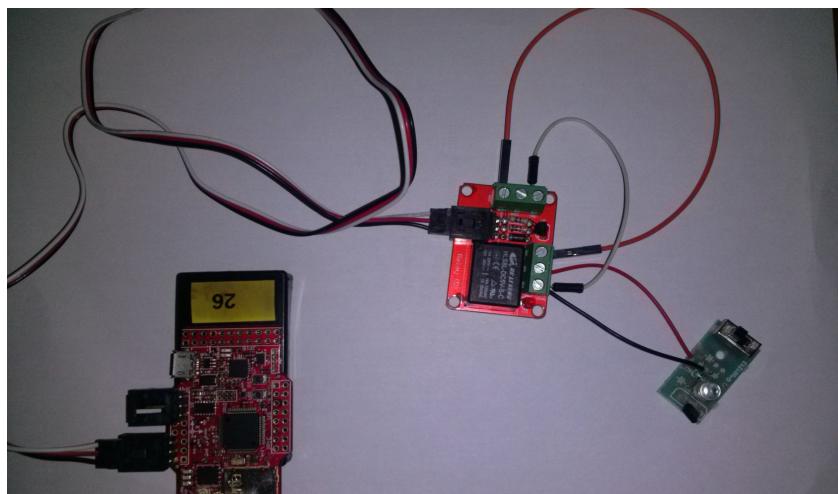


Fig. 67: Z1 with relay and a led

In Fig.68 example, the main loop waits for a specified time, and then toggles the relay.

```

PROCESS_THREAD(test_process, ev, data)
{
    PROCESS_BEGIN();

    /* Selects P6.7 as control pin of the relay module */
    relay_enable(7);

    while(1) {
        etimer_set(&et, RELAY_INTERVAL);
        PROCESS_WAIT_EVENT_UNTIL(etimer_expired(&et));

        status = relay_toggle();
        PRINTF("Relay [%d]\n", status);
    }
    PROCESS_END();
}

```

Fig. 68: Relay toggle example

6.3.1 Distance sensor

The distance sensor used as an example is the SEN-12784 from SparkFun. It has an VL6180 digital sensor integrated, that can read light and distance.

It uses the an I2C interface to extract the values from the sensor registers.



Fig. 69: SEN-12784



Fig. 70: Z1 with distance sensor

Contiki has a I2C interface library adapter for the Z1 motes in “platform/z1/dev/i2cmater.h”. To use it in a program, it has to include the library “dev/i2cmaster.h”

```

uint8_t getDistance()
{
    VL6180x_setRegister(VL6180X_SYSRANGE_START, 0x01); //Start single shot mode
    clock_wait(CLOCK_SECOND/100);
    return VL6180x_getRegister(VL6180X_RESULT_RANGE_VAL);
}

```

Fig. 71: VL6180 getDistance function

```

Distance measured (mm) = 255
Distance measured (mm) = 23
Distance measured (mm) = 21
Distance measured (mm) = 18
Distance measured (mm) = 24

```

Fig. 72: VL6180 example output

The function in Fig.71, shows how to read the distance from the device. It calculates the distance by sending a pulse of light, and retrieving it back, then doing an internal calculation with the difference between the power of the signal sent and the received. Between the activation and the collection of the value, there is some time waiting for the light to travel.

The functions in Fig.71 and Fig.73, show how to set and get a register from the sensor, using the I2C interface.

```

void VL6180x_setRegister(uint16_t registerAddr, uint8_t data)
{
    uint8_t tx_buf[] = { 0x00, 0x00, 0x00 };

    tx_buf[0] = (uint8_t) (registerAddr >> 8);
    tx_buf[1] = (uint8_t) (registerAddr & 0xFF);
    tx_buf[2] = data;

    i2c_transmitinit(VL6180x_ADDR);
    printf("I2C Ready to TX\n");
    while (i2c_busy());
    i2c_transmit_n(3, &tx_buf);
    while (i2c_busy());

    printf("WRITE_REG 0x%04X @ reg 0x%04X\n", data, registerAddr);
}

```

Fig. 73: VL6180 set register function

```

uint16_t VL6180x_getRegister16bit(uint16_t registerAddr)
{
    uint8_t tx_buf[] = { 0x00, 0x00 };

    uint8_t data_low;
    uint8_t data_high;
    uint16_t data;

    tx_buf[0] = (uint8_t) (registerAddr >> 8);
    tx_buf[1] = (uint8_t) (registerAddr & 0xFF);

    printf("READ_REG 0x%04X\n", registerAddr);

    /* transmit the register to read */
    i2c_transmitinit(VL6180x_ADDR);
    while (i2c_busy());
    i2c_transmit_n(2, &tx_buf);
    while (i2c_busy());

    /* receive the data */
    i2c_receiveinit(VL6180x_ADDR);
    while (i2c_busy());
    i2c_receive_n(2, &data);
    while (i2c_busy());

    return data;
}

```

Fig. 74: VL6180 get register function

7 Sentilo

Sentilo is an open source platform to store sensor and actuators information.

This platform is designed for the smart cities environment, to be used as a sensor data server that stores the data from different providers and different components within the providers.

7.1 Definitions

- Provider: A Sentilo account in the server. It stores the published data, and sends the data to his subscribers.
- Publisher: A device that sends data to the server. It publish the data into a provider account.
- Subscriber: A device that receives data. It is subscribed to a certain data from a provider
- Worker: A threat in the server that executes a programed task
- Redis: A in-memory data structure store. It is used as a Publisher/Subscriber implementation to store the data in the memory of the server.
- MongoDB: A database that stores the data as 'documents'. A 'document' is a JSON object.

7.2 Sentilo Architecture

The platform has 3 distinct parts:

- PubSub Server (Core)
- Web Catalog Application (A web interface to check the information of the PubSub Server)
- Extensions (Also called Agents, they extend the capabilities of the PubSub Server)

The core platform, listens and responds to requests specified in the API. By default, it listens the TCP port 8081

- For a publisher, it registers the data sent, in one of the platform items.
- For subscribers, it responds with a JSON with the requested data of an item.

The web catalog, is a web interface to manage and see the information on the PubSub Server. It listens the TCP port 8080.

The platform supports some extensions in order to extend the base functionalities such as alerts or data storage.

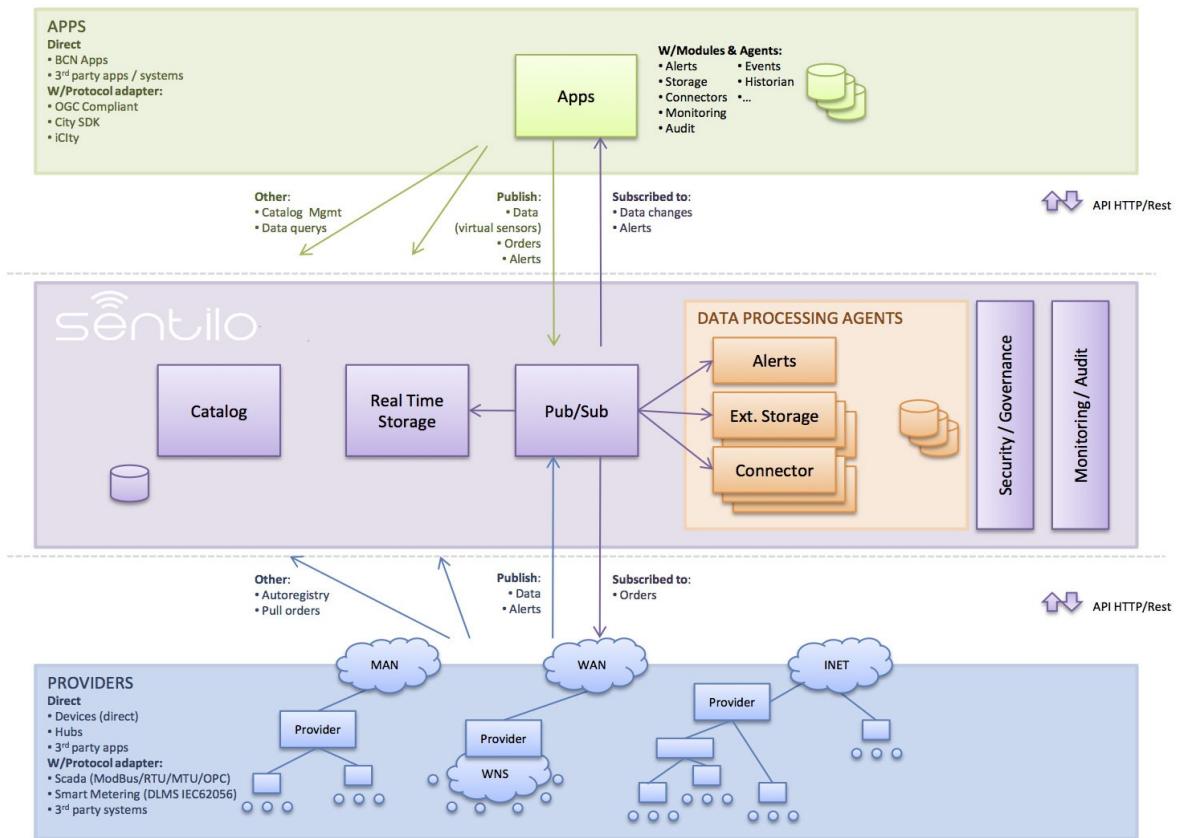


Fig. 75: Sentilo Arquitecture
Source: Sentilo Web Page

7.2.1 PubSub Server

The Core of the platform is a running process, that listens to the requests and creates workers (Threads) to do the tasks.

There are 2 requesters:

- Publishers: Send data from sensors, and alerts.
- Subscribers: First, they request a subscription. Then waits for the data they are subscribed is sent.

The platform is separated in 2 different layers: Transport and Service.

The transport layer manages the incoming requests (as published data, data requests or subscription requests) and generates a queue with tasks containing the information of the request.

Then, a limited pool of workers handles the requests, every time each finishes the previous task.

When a client sends an Http request to the platform, the process is: (Fig. 76)

1. The server accepts the request
2. Queues the request on the list of pending requests
3. When a Worker is available, a pending task is assigned to it for processing(removing it from the queue)
 - (a) delegates the request to an element of the service layer
 - (b) constructs the HTTP response from the information received
4. Sends the response to the client's request

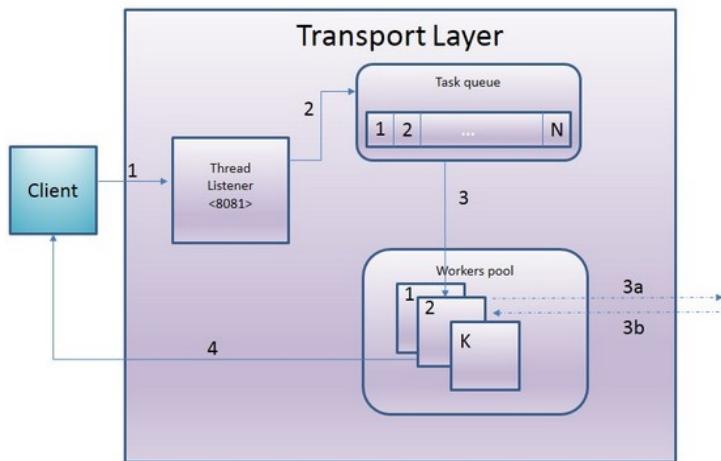


Fig. 76: Sentilo Transport Layer
Source: Sentilo Web Page

The service layer manages the workers information and processes it and registers the data or delivers the data depending on the request. (Fig. 77)

1. The Worker delegates the request to the associated handler depending on the type of request (data, order, alarm, ...)
2. The following validations are performed on each request:
 - (a) Integrity of credential: checks the received token sent in the header using the internal database in memory containing all active credentials in the system.
 - (b) Authorization to carry out the request: validate that the requested action can be done according to the permission database.
3. Stores the data in Redis (in memory), and depending on the type of data
 - (a) Publish the data through publish mechanism
 - (b) Register of the subscription in the ListenerMessageContainer (A list of all subscribers) and into Redis as a subscriber.

4. If any new data is received, Redis publish the data to the subscribers, otherwise this step is skipped.
5. The container notifies the event to each subscriber associated with it by sending an HTTP Request to them.

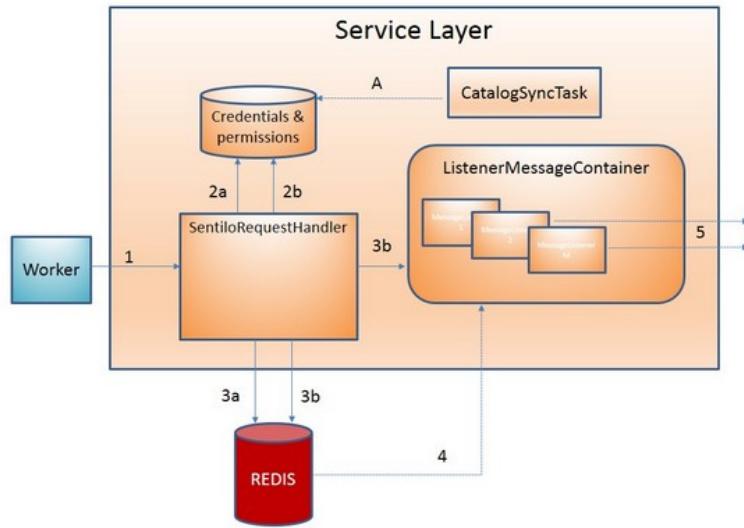


Fig. 77: Sentilo Service Layer
Source: Sentilo Web Page

7.2.2 Web Catalog Application

The catalog application platform is a web application that uses MongoDB as data storage database.

The Web App has 2 parts:

- A public console for displaying public data of components and sensors and their data
- A secured part for resources administration: providers, client apps, sensors, components, alerts, permissions, ...

It is fully integrated with the Publish/Subscribe platform for data synchronization:

- Permission and authentication data
- Register statistical data and the latest data received for showing it in different graphs of the Web application.

7.2.3 Extensions (Agents)

The extensions of Sentilo add functionalities to the Core application.

The extensions are subscribed to the Redis module for all the incoming notifications.

When Redis receives a publication of data, sends a message to all subscribers, including all the agents.

The agent gets the data, and carries out his task.

Currently there are 3 Sentilo agents:

- Relational database agent
 - Stores all the incoming data in a external database
- Alarm agent
 - Manages the internal alerts defined into the Web Catalog and published an alert if the condition is met.
- Location updater agent
 - Is responsible of updating automatically the component location according to the location of the published observations.

7.3 Sentilo structure

The platform has 5 main items:

- Component
- Sensor
- Alert
- Alarm
- Order

A component is the item where a set of sensors is attached.

A sensor is a representation of a physical sensor, it is attached to a component. The data published is sent for a specific sensor.

An alert is a trigger registered in Sentilo when an event happens. There are 2 types of alerts: internal and external.

The internal alerts are related to specific sensors and its logic is defined using basic math rules or configuring an inactivity time.

The external alerts are defined by third party entities, which will be the responsible of calculating their logic and throw the related alarms when applies.

An alarm is the message sent to the subscribers of an alert when it is triggered. Must be attached to an alert.

An order is a message registered for a specific sensor or component. It is received by the subscribers of the sensor or component orders.

7.4 Sentilo API

The Application Programming Interface (API) define a set of commands, functions and protocols that must be followed by who wants to interact with the platform from external systems, like sensors/actuators or applications.

The requests are HTTP requests with 3 fields in the header:

- The Request Method: GET, POST, PUT
- IDENTITY_KEY: The authentication token
- Content-Type: application/json

The platform has 3 operations for publishers:

- Retrieve data: Using the GET method, any kind of data can be consulted, the response is in JSON format
- Register data: Using the POST method, can be registered components, sensors alerts, alarms or orders.
- Update data: Using the PUT method, components, sensors alerts, alarms and orders data can be updated. Also sensor data can be published.

It also has 3 kind of subscriptions:

- To sensor data
- To orders
- To alerts

All the documentation of the Application Programming Interface can be found in:

- <http://www.sentilo.io/xwiki/bin/view/APIDocs/WebHome>

8 Experimental Environment

The objective of this scenario is to connect a Wireless Sensor Network to a running Sentiло server.

There are 2 sides of the network, with the border router in the middle of both.

The WSN uses CoAP to extract the sensors information, and the sensor data.

The Sentiло server uses HTTP requests, with JSON objects. The JSON (JavaScript Object Notation) is a text format transmit data objects consisting of attribute–value pairs. It is one of most widely used by programming languages to send data over HTTP.

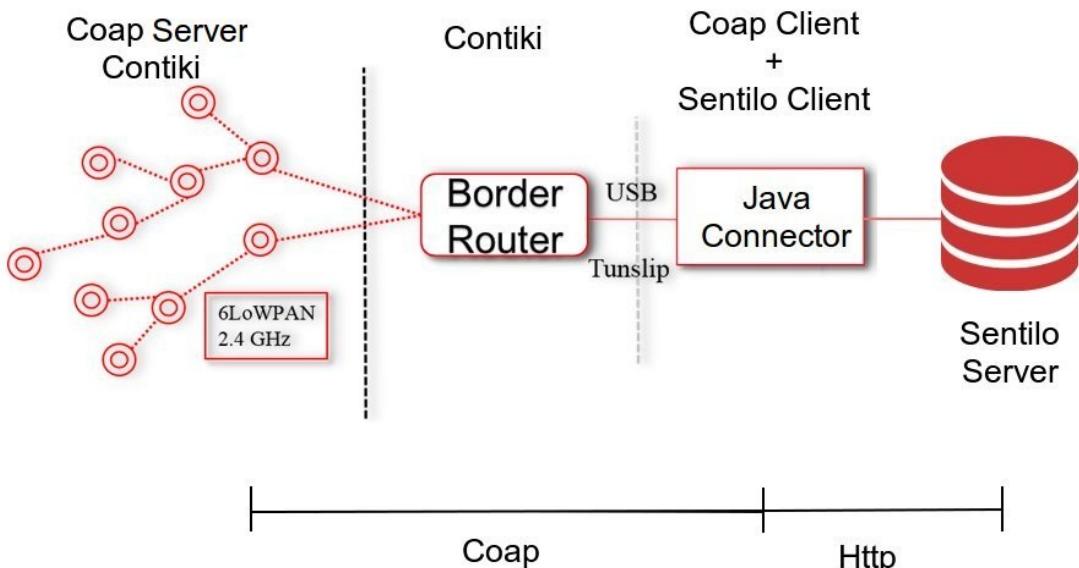


Fig. 78: Experimental Environment

8.1 Sensor Network

The wireless sensor network is composed by Z1 motes connected by a border-router.

8.1.1 Border Router

The Border Router manages the RPL (Routing Protocol for Low-Power and Lossy Networks), and is connected to a computer using Tunslip, a tool used to bridge IP traffic between 2 devices, over the serial line.

Tunslip creates a virtual network interface (tun) on the host side and uses SLIP (serial line internet protocol) to encapsulate and pass IP traffic to and from the other side of the serial line.

8.1.2 Nodes

Each of the motes has a CoAP server running, and has a resource for each sensor attached to the mote.

In this environment 2 Sentilo items will be used:

- Component: The hardware where a sensor is attached.
- Sensor: A physical sensor. It must be attached to a component

For the Sentilo server, each component, sensor, and alert must have a unique id.

In this setup, each mote is a component in the server, the mote id is used for the unique id in sentilo. For this example, the mote 3 will have the id MOTE03.

Each sensor has his unique id too, using the component id and the type of sensor.

In this setup the temperature sensor of the mote 3 will have the id MOTE03TMP.

Every sensor has a CoAP resource defined in the mote.

A location resource is defined to set the mote location

```
/sensors/temperature
  ■ title: Temperature sensor
  ■ obs: true
/sensors/precision_light
  ■ title: Precision Light sensor
  ■ obs: true
/sensors/force
  ■ title: Force sensor
  ■ obs: true
/location
  ■ title: Mote location
```

Fig. 79: CoAP resources example

Each of these resources has 2 methods defined, both of them send a JSON object:

- GET : Provides the information of the sensor to register it on the Sentilo platform.

```
{
  sensor: MOTE03FORCE
  unit: Newton
}
```

Fig. 80: GET sensor/force

- OBSERVE : Provides the sensor data periodically.

```
{
  observations:
  [
    (length 1)
    {
      value: 15.5
    }
  ]
}
```

Fig. 81: OBSERVE sensor/force

8.2 Network connector

In the computer connected with the border-router, there's a Java application that pulls the information in the WSN using CoAP, and communicates with the Sentilo server to register the sensor and send the data.

A provider must be registered manually in Sentilo in order to get the authentication token. For every request sent, the authorization token is checked.

The screenshot shows the Sentilo provider interface. At the top, it displays the provider ID: `Z1 motes WSN` and `ID: z1_motes_wsn`. Below this is a navigation bar with tabs: `Details`, `Sensors / Actuators` (which is selected), `Components`, `Active subscriptions`, and `Documentation`. Under the `Sensors / Actuators` tab, there is a section titled `Data`. It contains two entries: `Authorization Token` with the value `b8dc3699ab9c21bb45f5a7eaae6987a84c724d7787df0f9bef3b6608cad687a0`, and `Description` with the value `Sensor network of z1 zolertia motes using Contiki`.

Fig. 82: Sentilo provider

In this setup, the provider id is `z1_motes_wsn`.

8.2.1 Application workflow

The Java application that connects the 2 networks, follows 5 steps:

1. Searches for all the Motes of the specified network in the border router, by sending an HTTP GET to the border router. It responds with an XML with the information of all the motes.

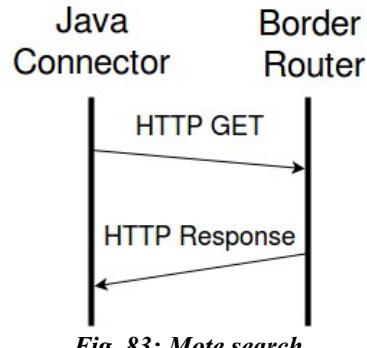


Fig. 83: Mote search

```

--<motes>
- <node>
  <ip>aaaa::c30c:0:0:49</ip>
  <prefix>128</prefix>
</node>
- <node>
  <ip>aaaa::c30c:0:0:3</ip>
  <prefix>128</prefix>
</node>
</motes>

```

Fig. 84: Border router response

2. Discovers all the sensors in each Mote, by sending a CoAP discover to each mote.

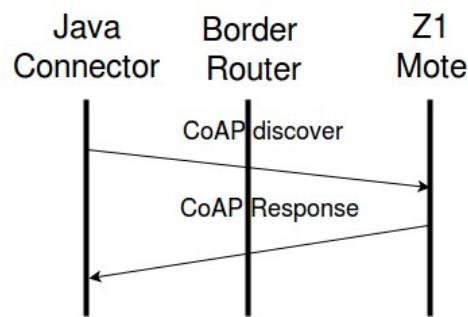


Fig. 85: Resource discover

3. Gets the information of each sensor, by sending a CoAP GET to the resources on the mote.
4. Registers each sensor in Sentilo, by sending a HTTP POST to the server with the information of the sensor.

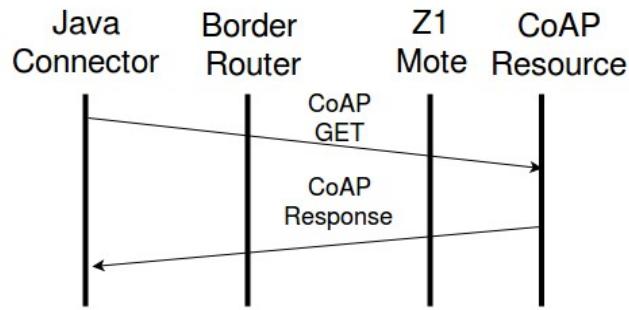


Fig. 86: Resource information retrieval

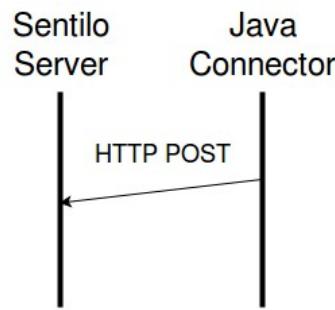


Fig. 87: Sensor Register

5. Starts collecting data from the sensors, and registers it in Sentilo, by sending a CoAP observe to each Mote resource, and for each observation, sends a HTTP PUT with the data to Sentilo.

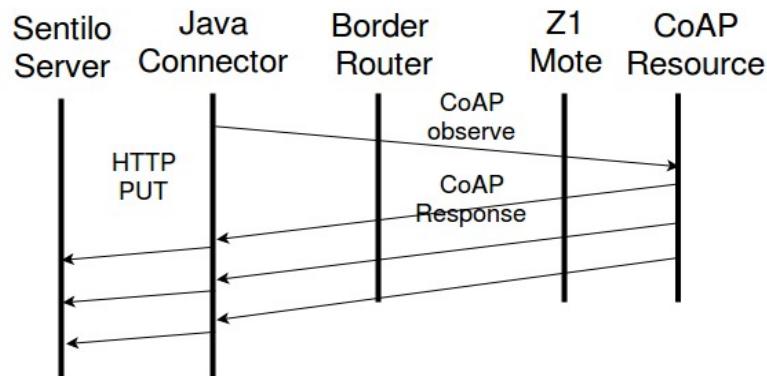


Fig. 88: Sensor data registration

8.2.2 Sensor registration

Once the application has a list of all the motes and the sensors of each one, sends a GET request every mote for each one of the sensors resources, to get the information of the resource.

The sensor resource has defined the information needed to register.

Key	Description
sensor	Sensor ID to Register

dataType	Sensor data types (Number or Boolean)
unit	Unit of measure

Tab. 47: CoAP resource information

Once the information of the sensor is gathered, it creates a JSON Object to register the sensor into the Sentilo server via the API.

Method	Url
POST	http://SENKO_SERVER_IP:8081/catalog/PROVIDER_ID

Tab. 48: HTTP request to register a sensor

The parameters sent in the JSON to the server are:

Key	Description
sensor	Sensor ID to Register
type	Sensor Type
dataType	Sensor data types. By default Number.
unit	Unit of measurement
component	Component identifier to which the sensor belongs
location	Location of the component to which the sensor ids

Tab. 49: JSON request parameters to register a sensor

The type of sensor is defined in the CoAP resource name. E.g., /sensor/force

The component is the mote from where the sensor was discovered.

The location is a CoAP resource defined in with the specific location of the mote.

```

  {
    "sensors": [
      {
        "sensor": "MOTE03FORCE",
        "unit": "newton",
        "location": "41.388699 2.111939",
        "component": "MOTE03",
        "type": "force"
      }
    ]
  }

```

Fig. 89: Registration JSON Example

8.2.3 Sensor data publish

The application starts an OBSERVE on the mote for each sensor resource. At this point, the application starts to listen for messages from the CoAP resource.

The sensor periodic resource sends information of the sensor data periodically. The period of observation is defined in the mote.

In every observation, the data is sent to Sentilo in a JSON Object via the API.

Method	Url
PUT	http://SENKO_SERVER_IP:8081/data/PROVIDER_ID/SENSOR_ID

Tab. 50: HTTP request to register data from a sensor

The parameters sent in the JSON to the server are:

Key	Description
value	Observation value to register (number or boolean)

Tab. 51: JSON request parameters to register data from a sensor

```
{  
  "observations": [  
    {  
      "value": "31.5625"  
    }  
  ]  
}
```

Fig. 90: Publication JSON Example

9 Future lines of work

There are some future lines of work in this experimental environment:

1. Test the CoAP server in the new release of Contiki. Contiki 3.0

A new release of Contiki was released in September 2015, with some changes and improvements overall, specially with CoAP. The new release supports CoAP 1.8.

2. A Java connector with a dynamic network.

The Java connector finds the motes in a stable WSN, if a node is missing or replaced, it needs a manual interaction to find all the motes again, by erasing all the network, and start to find all the motes again. Besides, the protocol handling the routes, is IP and the protocol handling the links is RPL. The IP routes in the border router expire every certain time, that means that if a mote is missing, a route is still present for a certain time, even if the RPL is aware of the missing mote.

As a possible solution, there are repairing route methods in CoAP that are used to repair the broken links between nodes.

10 Conclusion

The Contiki OS, collects all the technologies needed for the development of centralized data collectors, for the sensors. This platform combined with Sentilo, creates a real application platform, to be able to deploy in several possible real environments.

The main advantages of Contiki, are how easy is to create code, and generate concurrent scenarios inside the same mote, being able to have a web server at the same time a root node of a WSN is running, without complexity.

At the same time , the application level library as COAP, with the complete examples of this libraries, makes this system a powerful and versatile tool.

A disadvantage of this platform, is the lack of documentation and examples, outside the inner code. There's a lot of time and test to make, for a more complex application.

Secondly, the Sentilo platform, is an easy to install, use and program applications with. It has a wide set of options and tools, that need to be understand carefully for a rich application that uses all the functionalities properly.

The combinations of both, makes a good, simple and potentially improvable scenario, for centralize data collection.

11 Appendix I: Contiki OS 2.7 workspace in Ubuntu 14.04

To setup the environment, we need to:

- Download Contiki OS
- Install msp430 toolchain (To compile and upload to the Z1 motes)
- Install Java Development Kit.
- Install libncurses5 (Library needed for the native examples of Contiki)
- Install Ant (To use the cooja simulator)
- Install msp430-gcc 4.7 and configure the sudo PATH in Ubuntu
 - There's an unresolved issue in the version 4.6.3 from the repository
- Install ia32-libs (ONLY if the Ubuntu distribution is x64)

11.1 Download Contiki OS 2.7

The Contiki OS 2.7 can be found in the official web page of the project:

```
https://codeload.github.com/contiki-os/contiki/zip/2.7
```

After the download, we will need to unzip the file, and place the folder in our working directory (E.g., The home user path: /home/your_user)

11.2 Installing the tools

To be able to compile the code into the specific processor of the Z1 motes, we need some specific build tools.

In addition to this tools, we can install the Ant library and the Java 7 JDK, to use the Cooja simulator, to test applications without the need to upload the hardware to the motes.

```
sudo apt-get install build-essential binutils-msp430 gcc-msp430 msp430-libc msp430mcu  
mspdebug openjdk-7-jdk libncurses5-dev ant
```

11.3 Install msp430-gcc 4.7

There's an issue with the msp430-gcc 4.6.3 version of this compiler provided by the repository, regarding the serial communication. The script used to dump the prints from the mote, doesn't work correctly with it.

To fix it, there's a higher version of the compiler, but it needs to be downloaded manually.

First, download the compiler from:

- <http://sourceforge.net/projects/zolertia/files/Toolchain/msp430-47.tar.gz>

Unzip it, and move it to the /opt directory.

```
sudo cp -r msp430-47 /opt
```

Add the folder to the environment variable PATH for the local user

```
echo "PATH=/opt/msp430-47/bin:$PATH" >> ~/.bashrc
```

At last, add the folder to the environment variable PATH for the root user:

```
sudo visudo
```

```
Defaults      env_reset
Defaults      mail_badpass
Defaults      secure_path="/opt/msp430-47/bin:/usr/local/sbin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/sbin:/usr/bin:/sbin:/bin"
```

Fig. 91: sudoers file

11.4 Install 64 bits libraries (Only for x64 systems)

Now, only for the x64 bits Ubuntu Desktop, prompt this in a Terminal

```
sudo -i
cd /etc/apt/sources.list.d
echo "deb http://old-releases.ubuntu.com/ubuntu/ raring main restricted universe multiverse"
>ia32-libs-raring.list
apt-get update
apt-get install ia32-libs
```

This will install the tools for the compiler, in order to compile in 32 bits correctly

12 Appendix II: Installation of Sentilo in Ubuntu 14.04

To install the sentilo server we need to:

- Install the dependencies:
 - git
 - maven2
 - redis
 - mysql
 - tomcat
- Configure Redis
- Configure MongoDB
- Configure Mysql

12.1 Install dependencies

First we need to install all the dependencies for the server

```
sudo apt-get install git maven2 redis-server mongodb mysql-server tomcat7
```

The installation of mysql-server, needs a root password, it will be asked during the installation.

12.2 Download and build code

The source code of the project can be obtained from git, cloning the remote project in a local directory named *sentilo*:

```
git clone https://github.com/sentilo/sentilo.git sentilo
```

Then we need to build the project with maven in order to create the executables

```
cd sentilo  
mvn clean install  
mvn eclipse:clean eclipse:eclipse
```

12.3 Configure Redis

The default configuration of redis listens to the port 6379, but the password is disabled.

To enable it edit the file

```
sudo gedit /etc/redis/redis.conf
```

Then find the line on this file to edit the password

```

317 ##### SECURITY #####
318
319 # Require clients to issue AUTH <PASSWORD> before processing any other
320 # commands. This might be useful in environments in which you do not trust
321 # others with access to the host running redis-server.
322 #
323 # This should stay commented out for backward compatibility and because most
324 # people do not need auth (e.g. they run their own servers).
325 #
326 # Warning: since Redis is pretty fast an outside user can try up to
327 # 150k passwords per second against a good box. This means that you should
328 # use a very strong password otherwise it will be very easy to break.
329 #
330 requirepass sentinel
---
```

Fig. 92: redis.conf

12.4 Configure MongoDB

The default configuration of MongoDB listens to the port 27017, but the authentication is disabled.

```
sudo gedit /etc/mongodb.conf
```

Then find the line on this file to edit authentication

```

20 # Turn on/off security. Off is currently the default
21 noauth = true
22 auth = true
```

Fig. 93: mongodb.conf

Next, we need to create the database sentinel and the user and password that can access this database

```

mongo
use sentinel
db.addUser("sentinel", "sentinel")
```

Then we need to add the default sentinel data into the database

```

cd /home/vagrant/sentilo/scripts/mongodb
mongo -u sentinel -p sentinel sentinel init_test_data.js
```

12.5 Configure MySQL server

We need to create the database 'sentilo', the user 'sentilo_user' with password 'sentilo_pwd', and grant it access to the database.

```
CREATE USER 'sentilo_user'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'sentilo_pwd';
```

```
CREATE DATABASE sentinel;
```

```
GRANT ALL ON sentinel.* TO 'sentilo_user'@'localhost';
```



```
flush privileges;
```

At last, we need to create the tables for sentilo in the database. The file in 'sentilo-agent-relational/src/main/resources/bd/agent_mysql.sql' has the queries to create them.

```
mysql --user=sentilo_user --password=sentilo_pwd sentilo sentilo-agent-relational/src/main/resources/bd/agent_mysql.sql
```

12.6 Configure Tomcat7

To deploy the web application in tomcat7 we need to move the .war file to the tomcat server webapps folder and restart the server.

```
sudo cp ~/sentilo/sentilo-catalog-web/target/sentilo-catalog-web.war /var/lib/tomcat7/webapps
```

```
sudo service tomcat7 restart
```

12.7 Start services

There are 4 binaries to launch in order to start the background processes of sentilo.

First, create the folders.

```
mkdir /opt/sentilo-server  
mkdir /opt/sentilo-agent-alert  
mkdir /opt/sentilo-agent-relational  
mkdir /opt/sentilo-agent-location-updater
```

Then copy all the files into the folders.

```
mv ~/sentilo/sentilo-platform/sentilo-platform-server/target/appassembler/* /opt/sentilo-server  
mv ~/sentilo/sentilo-agent-alert/target/appassembler/* /opt/sentilo-agent-alert  
mv ~/sentilo/sentilo-agent-relational/target/appassembler/* /opt/sentilo-agent-relational  
mv ~/sentilo/sentilo-agent-location-updater/target/appassembler/* /opt/sentilo-agent-location-updater
```

At last, create a script to launch the processes at the startup.

```
gedit start-sentilo
```

```
#!/bin/bash  
  
/opt/sentilo-server/bin/sentilo-server  
/opt/sentilo-agent-alert/bin/sentilo-agent-alert-server  
/opt/sentilo-agent-relational/bin/sentilo-agent-relational-server  
/opt/sentilo-agent-location-updater/bin/sentilo-agent-location-updater-server
```

Fig. 94: sentilo-start

Then move the file to the startup folder



```
sudo mv sentilo-start /etc/init.d/
```

```
sudo chmod +x /etc/init.d/ sentilo-start
```

And launch it

```
sudo /etc/init.d/ sentilo-start
```

13 Bibliography

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