Timing delay characterization of GNU Radio based 802.15.4 network using LimeSDR

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Abbreviations

LPWAN Low Power Wide Area Network

SDR Software Defined Radio

CSMA Carrier Sense Multiple Access

MAC Medium Access Control

TDMA Time Division Multiple Access

CPU Central Processing Unit

ACK Acknowledgement

IoT Internet of Things

PHY Physical

OSI Open Systems Interconnection

RF Radio Frequency

LQI Link Quality Information

FCS Frame Control Sequence

CSMA/CA Carrier-sense multiple access with collision avoidance

CSMA/CD Carrier-sense multiple access with collision detection

L2 Layer 2

FPGA Field Programmable Gate Array

DSP Digital Signal Processor

NIC Network Interface Controller

FPRF Field Programmable RF

LNA Low noise amplifier

DDS Direct Digital Synthesis

NCO Numerically Controlled Oscillator

DAC Digital Analog Converter

FIR Finite Impulse Response

ASIC Application Specific Integrated Circuit.

PDU Packet Data Unit.

MIMO Multiple Input Multiple Output.

SPI Serial Peripheral Interface.

PGA Programmable Gain Amplifier.

PLL Phased Lock Loop.

TSP Transreceiver Signal Processor.

IQ In-Phase Quadrature.

DDR Double Data Rate.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Internet of Things (IoT) is enabling communication among huge numbers of diverse low power devices. According to estimate by Ericsson [3], there will be 20 billion connected IoT devices by 2023 . The communication needs for a field temperature sensor is different from an industrial controller. Hence, there is need for research and development of communication protocols that satisfy diverse device communication needs. The evaluation of these experimental protocols is difficult because of the need of specialized radio hardware. SDR devices can be a powerful platform for enabling the real-world evaluation of these protocols.

SDR are flexible radio platforms where most of the communication systems functionality is designed in software. Typically, SDR platforms have on board radio front-end equipped with wide band antennas and analog signal processing chain for tuning the carrier frequency and desired bandwidth. High speed data converters convert the incoming analog signals into the digital domain and vice-versa. In traditional radios, the digital processing chain of a wireless protocol physical layer is implemented on the same chip as the radio front-end and analog signal processing functions. SDR, on the other hand, in *host-PHY [5]* architecture transfers the converted data to a general purpose computing platform using bus transfer (USB, PCIe). The digital processing chain is designed in software, thus allowing for flexibility in the protocol design, enabling experimentation in decoding and modulation techniques. SDR also allows for careful analysis of RF signals as the raw sample data is made available to the host.

SDR helps to protect investments by facilitating change of protocols on already existing system. A major motivation within the commercial communications arena, is the rapid evolvement of communications standards, making software upgrades of base stations a more attractive solution than the costly replacement of base stations[7]. SDR also opens up the possibility of Cognitive Radios, a context sensitive radio system that can adapt depending on the radio channel conditions and applications.

A fundamental challenge of SDR system is computational horsepower, because it
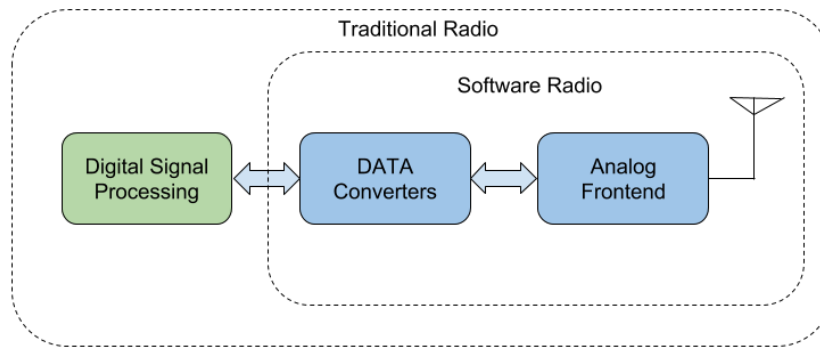
Figure 1.1: Software Radio and Traditional Radio Architecture.

needs to process complex data waveforms in a reasonable time-frame. Since SDR involves transferring of signals and data from one system to another, this introduces considerable communication delays. Finally, general purpose processing systems introduces non-determinism in data processing and communication times.

Wireless devices share the wireless channel with other devices. Wireless protocol MAC layer is responsible for moderating access to the wireless channel. It typically uses *Time Division Multiple Access* (TDMA) and *Carrier Sense Multiple Access* (CSMA) to allocate the use of the channel. TDMA protocols schedule the allocation of the entire channel to one of the devices for a particular time duration. This requires global time synchronization among the devices so that the devices can understand when to transmit and receive. CSMA, on the other hand uses the channel on an opportunistic basis, with the devices sensing if the channel is free or not. When it senses the channel to be free, it can start using it.

IEEE 802.15.4 [**noauthor_ieee_nodate**] is a network specification deigned specially for *Low Power Wide Area Network* (LPWAN) i.e IoT devices. It specifically defines the Physical Layer and the MAC layer of the network stack. With the aim to be enabler of SDR testbeds for IoT protocols, this project uses IEEE 802.15.4 based physical layer implementation for the evaluation of the SDR platform.

LimeSDR [4] is a new low-cost SDR platform, which supports the desired frequency bands. The lack of research on the characteristics of the platform made it the ideal choice for my SDR platform.

1.1 Problem Context

1.1.1 CSMA

As highlighted by [6], SDR based systems don't comply with the stringent timing constraints imposed by modern MAC protocols. Furthermore, the presence of long bus communication and processing delays create *blind spots*[6] in carrier sensing. In fig 1.2, a packet is being transmitted through the air medium which is received by the SDR system. Since there is communication and processing delays, the *Central Processing Unit* (CPU) of the SDR system receives the packet completely at t_1 delayed from t_0 when the packet transfer ends on the air medium.

Once the packet has been received, the system wants to let the transmitting system about the successful reception by sending the *Acknowledgement* (ACK) packet. It detects the medium is free using carrier sensing, but this information is actually past information that has been delayed by $t_1 - t_0$, hence the system is blind towards the real time channel situation when making the decision to transmit and might lead to a collision.
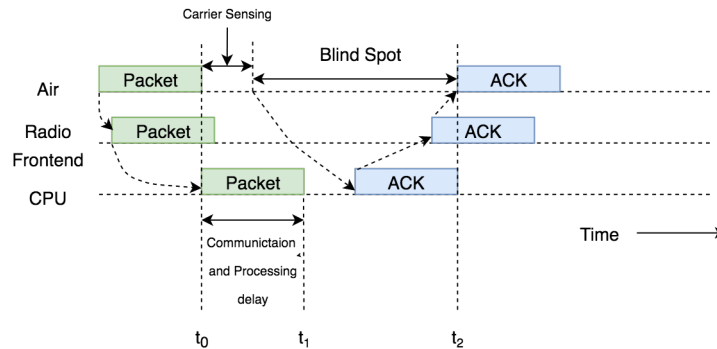
Figure 1.2: Blind Spots Illustration(adapted from [6]).

Hence when designing MAC protocols, these delays needs to be taken into account to avoid collisions. This necessitates a closer understanding of these delays and how different system parameters affect these delays.

1.1.2 TDMA

TDMA based protocols are controlled by time slots, hence there is need for precise scheduling to ensure that the transmissions happen in the correct time-slot. The delays and imprecise scheduling can be tolerated by making the time-slots longer but that degrades the efficiency of the overall network. Modern contention based protocols(CSMA) also require precise timing to implement inter-frame spacing.

Hence methods to implement precise time scheduling needs to studied.

1.2   Research Questions

- What are the timing delays in LimeSDR based IEEE 802.15.4 network ?
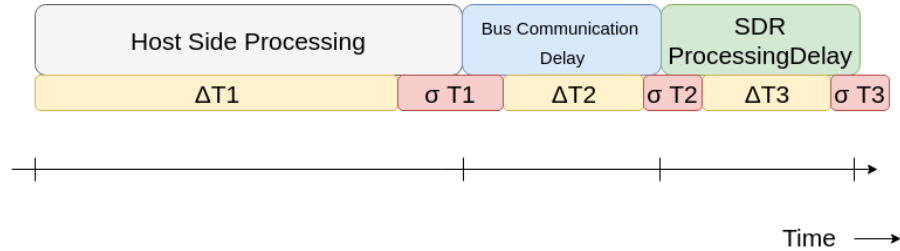
Figure 1.3: Research Question 1.

- How to implement precise scheduling in LimeSDR based IEEE 802.15.4 communication system?

1.3   Report Outline

The remainder of the report is structured as follows.*Chapter 2* introduces the previous work in this field, as well the needed background information on the LimeSDR platform, the base system design and the relevant tools used in methods section. *Chapter 3* introduces the experimental setup and the methods used in the measurement of the timing delays. It also discusses on methods for precise scheduling in LimeSDR based systems. *Chapter 4* presents the experimental results, which are analyzed in *Chapter 5*. Finally, *Chapter 6* includes the concluding remarks and scope of future work.

Chapter 2

Background

This chapter introduces the necessary background information needed for understanding the rest of the report. First section, provides a broad introduction to SDR systems, GNU Radio Software Tool and PHY and MAC layers of the network stack. The second section introduces previous work in this domain, which are critically analyzed to help concretely define the problem area. Finally the last section, introduces the LimeSDR platform, IEEE 802.15.4 based system design and the tools used in the methods section.

2.1 Essential Concepts

2.1.1 PHY and MAC Layers

Open Systems Interconnection (OSI) Model (ISO/IEC 7498-1:1994) presents the abstract model for networking, that is used for most communication systems design. The abstract model is divided into 7 layers, where entity in each layer implements the functionality of the layer and interacts directly with the layer beneath it, the added functionality can be used by the upper layers. Data from the user application is encapsulated by each subsequent layers of the OSI model into their frame format. These frames carry meta-data in the form of frame headers. Different protocols use different frame format and headers as it helps differentiate one protocol from another. These headers help the receiver in learning where the incoming data packet is coming from, who is it meant for, how to decode and arrange the contents of the data packets etc.

PHY layer is the lowest layer (L1) of the OSI model,it interacts with the physical communication channel directly. It defines the type of data transfer(serial/parallel) and data rate of the protocol. PHY layer defines the process of transmitting raw bits through the physical medium. The bit-stream is grouped into code words and converted to symbols, which are then modulated to a physical signal for transmission over the transmission medium. PHY layers also provides physical transmission link information like carrier sense and collision detection and *Link Quality Information* (LQI) to the upper layers.

MAC layer, *Layer 2* (L2) of the OSI model, is responsible for defining the the methods for sharing and using the common transmission medium among multiple devices. MAC layer addresses are used to to check if the incoming packet is meant for the device. In case of outgoing packets, the MAC layer adds the MAC address of the destination device to the packet header. It adds the synchronization preamble and *Frame Control Sequence* (FCS) for checking transmission error. Retransmission in case of dropped packets and acknowledgement to successfully received packets are handled by this layer.
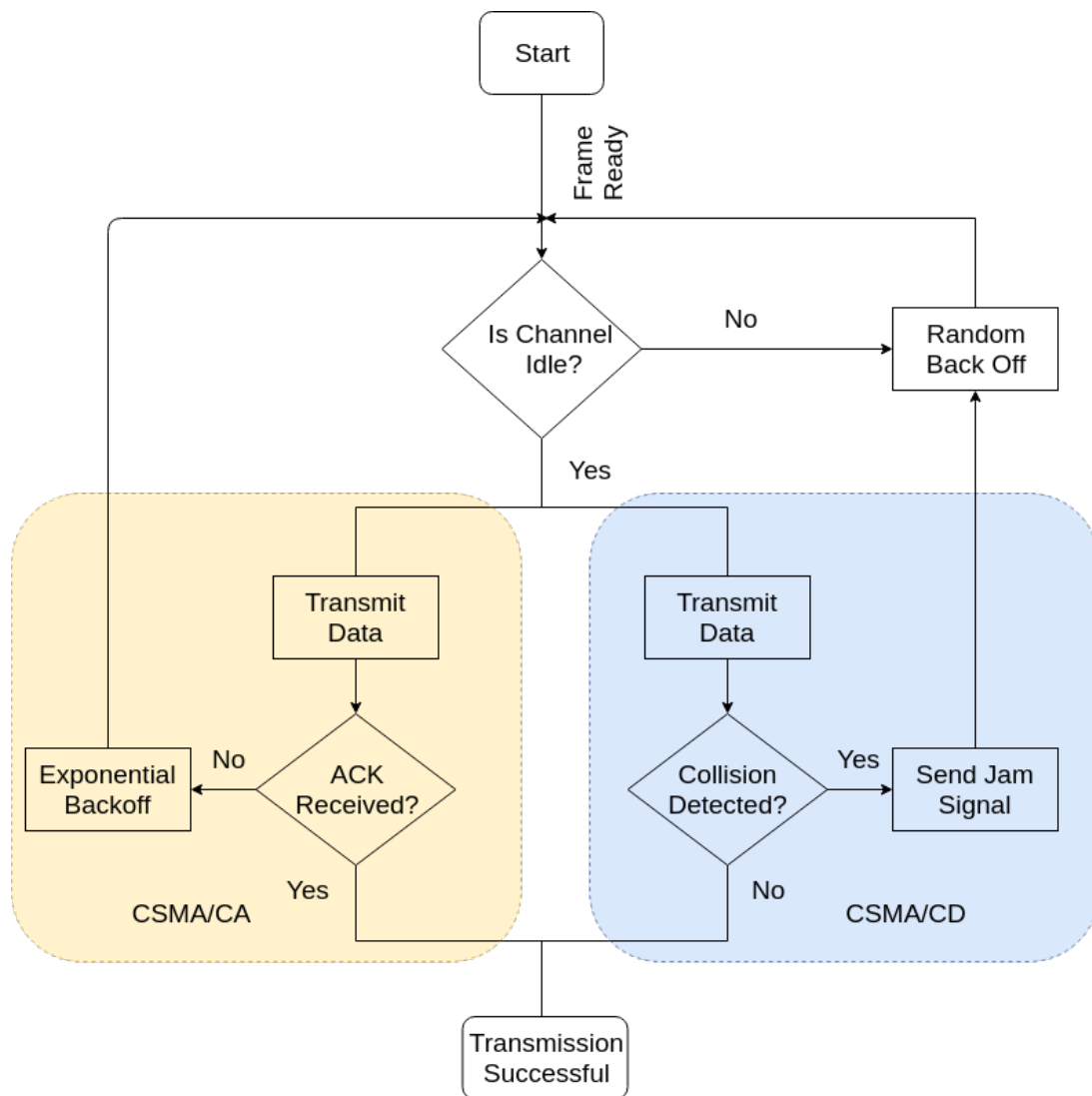

Figure 2.1: CSMA flow graph.

CSMA is L2 protocol of the OSI Model. It is a method for handling multiple access of a shared medium. It mainly comes in two varieties: *Carrier-sense multiple access with collision detection* (CSMA/CD) and *Carrier-sense multiple access with collision avoidance*

(CSMA/CA). In the older CSMA/CD, the nodes wait until the frame is ready, then check is the medium is idle or not. If idle it starts transmission. During transmission, it monitors the medium for collision. If collision is detected, it employs a collision recovery process, where it sends a jam signal to signal other nodes that a collision has occurred. Then it waits for a random delay and starts transmission again.

CSMA/CA tries to avoid collision, it starts off similar to CSMA/CD where it senses to check when the channel is idle. If found idle, it starts transmission. As it is difficult for wireless nodes to detect collision at the same time its transmitting therefore it relies on an ACK from the receiving node to check if the data packet was received. If ACK is not received, the node assumes a collision has occurred and uses exponential back-off to determine when the next time to re initiate transmission.

TDMA is also a L2 protocol, where a coordinator schedules medium access to the nodes in a periodic manner. Communication happens in time-slots. Each node in the network is given exclusive access to transmit during its time slot. The coordinator generates beacon signals periodically to maintain relative time synchronization. On receiving the beacons, the nodes adjust their transmit clocks so that they have the correct estimate of their time-slots.

2.1.2 SDR Platforms

SDR represents a new paradigm of communication system design where the system is flexible to adapt to the needs of the end-user as also the radio channel conditions. Nychis et.al [5] classifies SDR based communication systems into two main architectures.

- *Host-PHY Architecture:* This is the most common architecture, enabling design and development of the entire system in software. It provides the maximum flexibility in terms of design and implementation choices, also there is added benefit of easy upgrades. But, since the system is designed is software only, the processing and communication delays make most modern MAC protocols infeasible in this architecture.

- *NIC-PHY Architecture:* In this architecture most of the PHY layer functionality is implemented in *Field Programmable Gate Array* (FPGA) and *Digital Signal Processor* (DSP). The closer proximity to the radio hardware and specialized parallel hardware processing makes this architecture most suitable for running the modern MAC protocols. But the design process for this architecture based systems is time consuming and difficult, as traditionally hardware programming harder simple software programming. However, they are much more flexible compared to commercial *Network Interface Controller* (NIC). *Wireless Open Access Research Platform*(WARP) [11] is an example of system based on this type of architecture.

Since host-PHY [5] is the most commonly used architecture (**cite sources**), the report concentrates on explaining the functionality of SDR systems using this architecture.

Figure 2.2 shows the typical design of communication systems in this architecture. The system can be broadly divided into two main components:

1. SDR Platform.
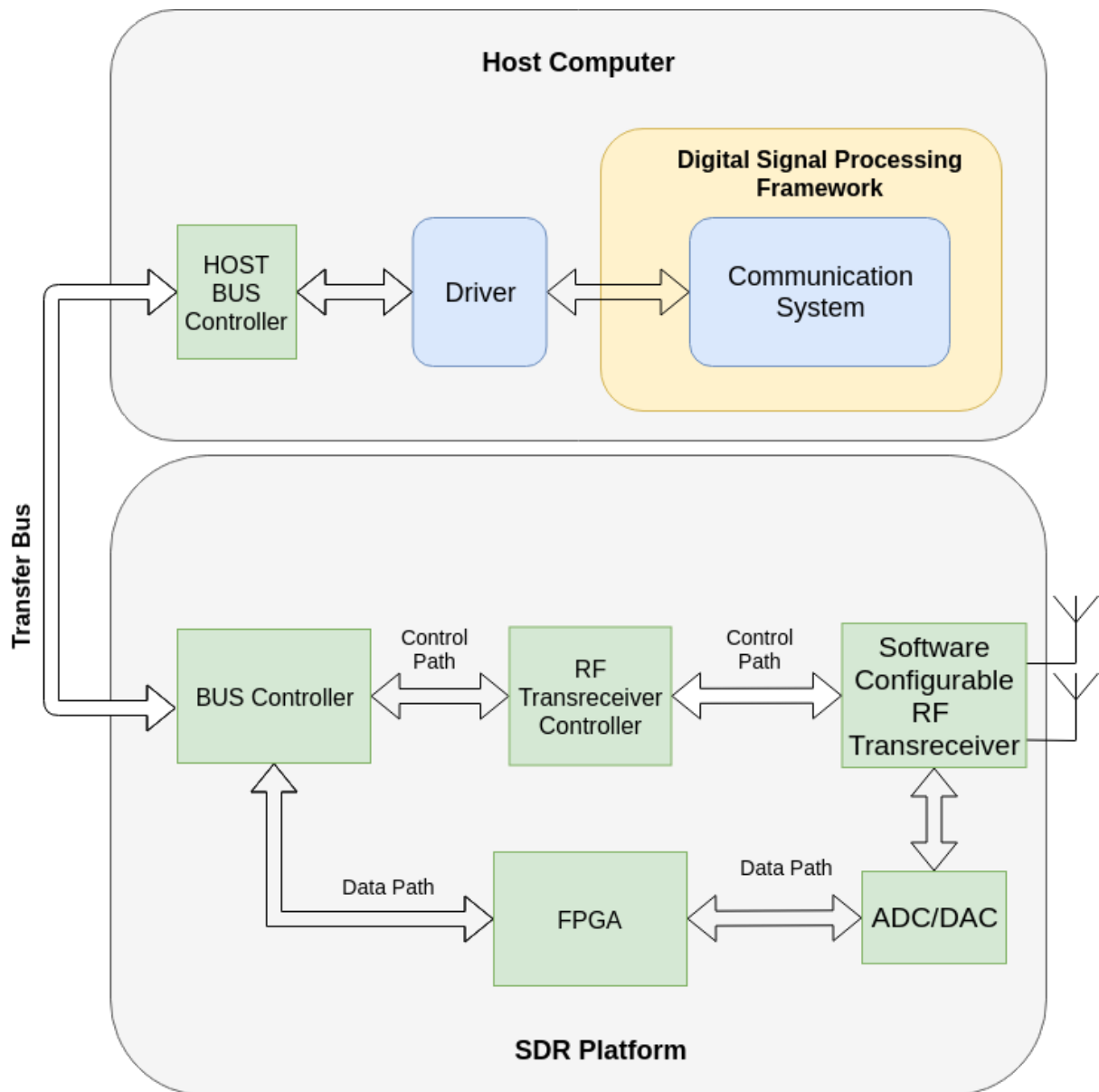
2. Host Computer.

Figure 2.2: Host-PHY [5] SDR architecture.

Since the process for transmission and reception are symmetric, this report concentrates on the explaining the reception side of SDR platforms.

SDR Platform: It is the hardware that provides access to the wireless medium in a flexible manner. RF signals are transmitted and received by the platform, it converts these analog signals to digital samples and transfers them to the host computer. The main building blocks of these platforms are shown in 2.2.

- **Software Configurable RF trans-receiver** This is the heart of SDR platforms and provides RF modulation and demodulation capability. They are attached to wideband antennas for receiving and transmitting over a broad range of frequencies. Taking the case of reception of RF signal, the signal received from the antenna is amplified by a *Low noise amplifier* (LNA). The LNA amplifies a low power signal without significantly degrading the signal to noise ratio. Once amplified, the signal to passed to a RF receiver, where the RF signal is demodulated either to a intermediate frequency or baseband signal depending on whether the the receiver is a Zero-IF receiver or Super-heterodyne receiver respectively.
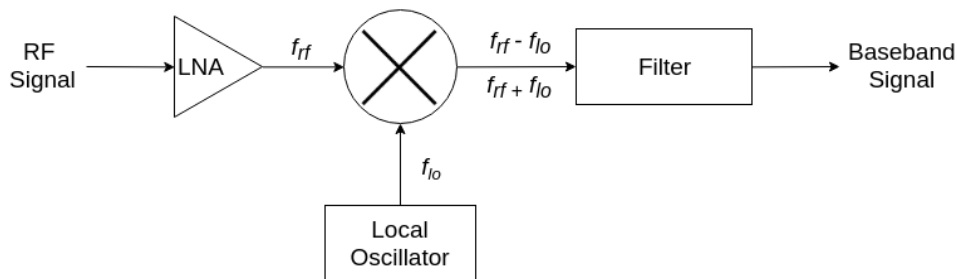
Figure 2.3: Simple RF receiver.

Figure 2.3 shows a simple RF receiver, the LNA output signal is fed to a mixer. The mixer is a signal processing block used for translating the input signal to another frequency range. The mixer uses a locally generated carrier frequency for the translation. If the input RF signal has a frequency of f_{rf}, and the local oscillator frequency is f_{lo} then the mixer will produce a signal with frequency components $f_{rf} - f_{lo}$ and $f_{rf} + f_{lo}$. This output signal is then passed through a band-pass filter with $f_{rf} - f_{lo}$ as center frequency, this will reject the unwanted $f_{r}f + f_{l}o$. In the assume $f_{rf} = f_{lo}$, the bandpass filter will become a low pass filter and the output signal will be the baseband signal. This is the case in Zero-IF receiver architecture. In super heterodyne receiver architecture, a number of stages of intermediate frequency are used before generation of the baseband signal.

In traditional trans-receiver, a crystal oscillator is used. This results in good stability of the local oscillator signal but the system is now tuned to a particular frequency. With the goal of flexibility in mind, SDR platforms use frequency synthesizers to generate the local clock signal. Frequency synthesizers are used for creating arbitrary waveforms from a single frequency clock. Most SDR use DDS

as the frequency synthesizer, which uses a highly stable oscillator used as a reference signal.
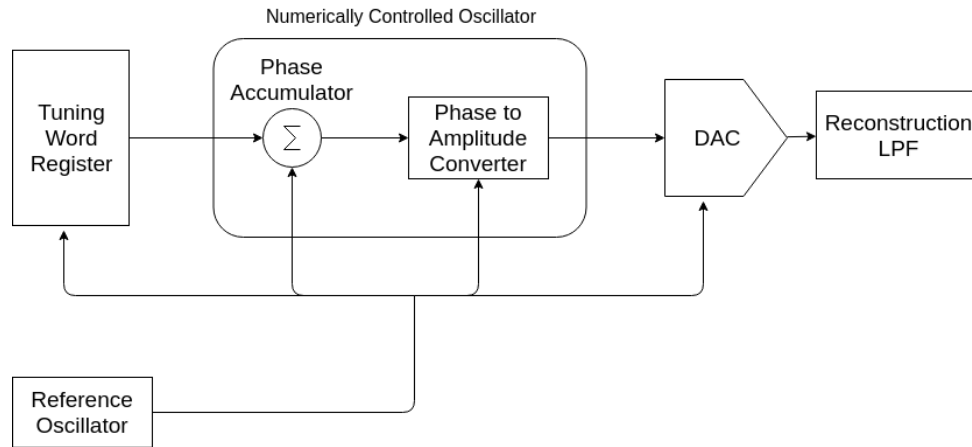
Numerically Controlled Oscillator

Figure 2.4: DDS.

The main components of a DDS are *Numerically Controlled Oscillator* (NCO) which is made of the Phase Accumulator and Phase to Amplitude Converter, *Digital Analog Converter* (DAC) and a Tuning Word Register as shown in Figure 2.4.

In each clock cycle, the phase accumulator increases the output by the value stored in the Tuning Word Register. This output is the input to the Phase to Amplitude Converter, which basically is a lookup table containing the amplitude for a particular phase. The output of the Phase Accumulator is basically the address(phase) for the lookup table. The output is then converted to an analog signal by the the DAC and then passed through a low pass filter to smoothen out the waveform.

Since the Tuning Word Register is responsible for how fast the phase changes, the output sinusoid frequency can be controlled by controlling the Tuning Word Register, this is how SDR platforms are able to generate a wide range of local oscillator frequencies.

In SDR platforms, the filter is implemented using *Finite Impulse Response* (FIR) filters. FIR filters are convolutional filters where the output response of a particular input is finite. The output of a FIR filter can be adjusted by readjusting the parameters of the filter's impulse response. This allows for the SDR to allow certain range of frequencies in the output, which can be adjusted by external control.

- **RF Trans receiver Controller:** The controller provides the interface to control the RF Transceiver. The communication system running on the host computer, provides the desired RF parameters to the controller. It then translates those instructions to digital signals for configuring the RF trans-receiver modules like the FIR filter weights, the tunable word register for selecting the desired frequency and also the desired gain in the programmable gain amplifiers.

- **ADC/DAC:** The filtered analog RF signal needs to be converted to digital domain before transferring to the host computer. Fast data converters are used on the SDR platforms for this purpose. Since Nyquist criteria defines the bandwidth of a RF system is defined by the sampling rate, the sampling rate of these data converters define the available bandwidth of the system. The resolution of the SDR data converters are important so as to ensure high dynamic range of the received signal, ensuring that the system is capable is receiving very weak signals as well very strong signals without saturation. The sampling rate of these data converters are controlled by the RF trans-receiver controller.

- **FPGA:** The FPGA provides acts as the glue logic between the data converters and the bus controller. In most cases the bus communication is bursty in nature, whereas the DAC produces a stream of samples. FPGA provides for efficient buffering of these samples, packs them into bursts to be sent over the bus. In some platforms, additional information like a sample clock is also packed into these bursts. Some applications might need additional signal processing, FPGA provides for a efficient way for implementing these filters. In NIC-PHY architecture most of the communication system is designed using the FPGA.

- **Bus Controller:** It is the bridge for the bursts of data crossing over from the SDR platform to the host computer and vice versa. It takes in data packets from the FPGA encodes them with bus transfer protocol, then initiates transfer. The flow control and routing for different packets is also handled by the bus controller.

Host Computer: The host computer, a general purpose computer,is the brain of the communication system. It runs the software implementation of the baseband processing for the desired protocol, taking the digital samples from the acsdr as input. During initialization, it configures the SDR platform. Depending on implementation, it can have the full network stack and an application running on top of it. From architectural viewpoint, the host computer has three main components as shown in Figure 2.2.

- **Bus Controller:** The bus controller on the host computer controls the other end of the bus communication link. It decodes the received data bursts and sends them to the driver for further processing. If the bus communication involves a master slave relationship, then the host computer bus controller is designated as the master. It initiates the data transfer on the bus, and the slave bus controller responds to the requests placed by this bus controller.

- **Driver:** The driver is the abstraction layer for the SDR platform communication and configuration. For the use of use of the SDR platform, the communication system designer should be able to provide high level instructions. It is left to the driver to handle the translation of high level instructions to low level register control data words. For example, when tuning the RF trans-receiver, the system designer would be much more comfortable to say set the center frequency to 1.8

GHz, rather than saying set register at address "x" to value "data". This translation is taken care of by the driver. It also is responsible for ensuring a reliable data transfer procedure. Since the communication system and the incoming data may be running at different rates, the driver buffers the incoming data and provides it to the the running communication system at its incoming data processing rate.

- **Digital Signal Processing Framework:** The hardware baseband processing of communication systems are generally designed with concurrent execution in mind. Whereas, general purpose computing platform are sequential in nature. Many core processors add the capability of concurrent execution but at a much smaller scale than what can be acheived with hardware processing platforms like FPGA and *Application Specific Integrated Circuit.* (ASIC). So when designing systems on general purpose computing platforms, this change in execution model needs to be taken into account.

Threads provide a software method to implement concurrent execution model. But, efficient thread management and synchronization produces significant overhead. Digital Signal Processing frameworks are designed to help system designers to only design their signal processing modules without worrying about thread synchronization and management. They are designed with concurrent execution of signal processing algorithms and modularity of system design in mind. Two of the most popular frameworks are GNURadio and Labview. In the next section, the report goes into detail about GNU Radio.

2.1.3   GNU Radio

GNU Radio is an open-source digital signal processing framework, which has been rapidly evolving with a large active community. The software framework can be used for both simulation and prototyping for real-world application scenarios. It provides an graphical interface for designing signal processing chains as well as extensive library of signal processing blocks like filters, synchronizers, demodulators etc. The ease of use of the framework, extensive library as well as hardware support for most SDR platforms has led to diverse application use cases such as RFID, 802.11, cellular networks.

GNU Radio is designed to stream large amounts of data in real-time between parallel computational nodes. The data flow between the nodes from the source to the sink is described by the flow-graph, while the flow of data is controlled by the GNU Radio Scheduler. Figure 2.5, shows a simple flowgraph where the data from the Sources node is processed by the signal processing chain and output to the Sinks node. The signal processing chain itself is composed of multiple data processing nodes, for example the flow graph in Figure 2.5 has 4 nodes in the processing chain. The scheduler is in task of scheduling the execution of these blocks. From the block designer point of view, these
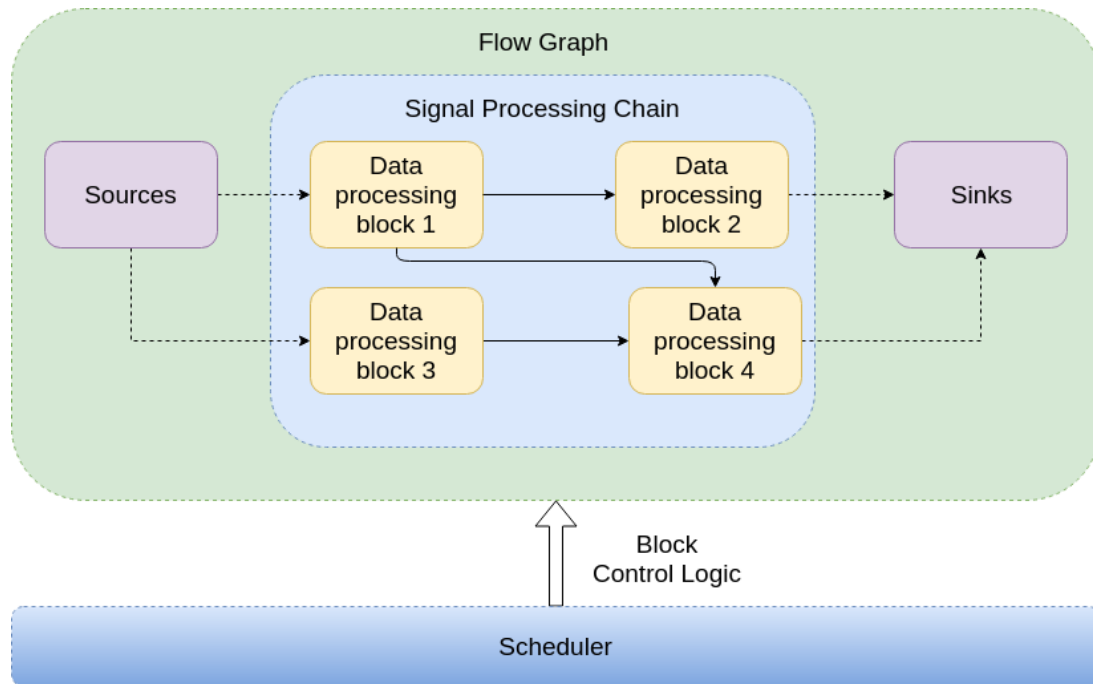
blocks can be viewed to be executing concurrently.

Figure 2.5: GNU Radio Software Architecture.

Blocks and Flow Graphs   The computational nodes in the flow-graph are the GNU Radio processing blocks. Each block describes how the input elements to the block, are converted to output elements in the *work* function.

Number of input elements	Number of output elements	Name
N	0	Sink Block
0	N	Source Block
N	1	Interpolation block
1	N	Decimation block
M	N	General Block

Table 2.1: GNU Radio Block Types

The relationship of input and output elements defines the type of the GNU Radio processing block as shown in Table 2.1. The type of block indicates the scheduler on how the block processes information. There are two types of blocks: *Synchronous block* and *block*. For synchronous blocks, there is a rational relationship between the input and output elements. The sink, source, interpolation block and decimation block in Table 2.1 are synchronous blocks. The key difference between different block types is in how the scheduler handles the input and output buffers of each block. For the synchronous blocks, the scheduler implicitly handles the input and output pointers to the

buffers. For general blocks, the *work* function needs to explicitly pass the information on how many elements it consumed and produced.

Since in GNU Radio flow graph, data is passed from one node to another, the method of passing the data among different blocks needs to be defined. This method is defined in the block interfaces. Stream Interfaces are intended to stream large amounts of data between blocks with variable processing rates. They use large buffers to pass the data from one node to another. Stream interfaces work well for samples, bits etc. but they are not the right method to pass metadata, control information or bursts of data between blocks as it involves significant overhead. GNU Radio recently added the message passing interface for handling asynchronous message passing. GNU Radio also supports stream tags for handling metadata as it is closely associated with the stream data samples. Stream tags are attached with stream data samples and provide additional information associated with the sample. It can be used both for passing control flags as well as metadata information like the *Packet Data Unit.* (PDU) size, timing information etc. These stream tags are propagated to the next blocks and is updated by the data rate changes. For example, if the block takes it 2 samples as input and produces 4 samples as output, its data rate is 2. In this case, if the input stream had a stream tag at position "x" then the the location in the output stream would be "2x".
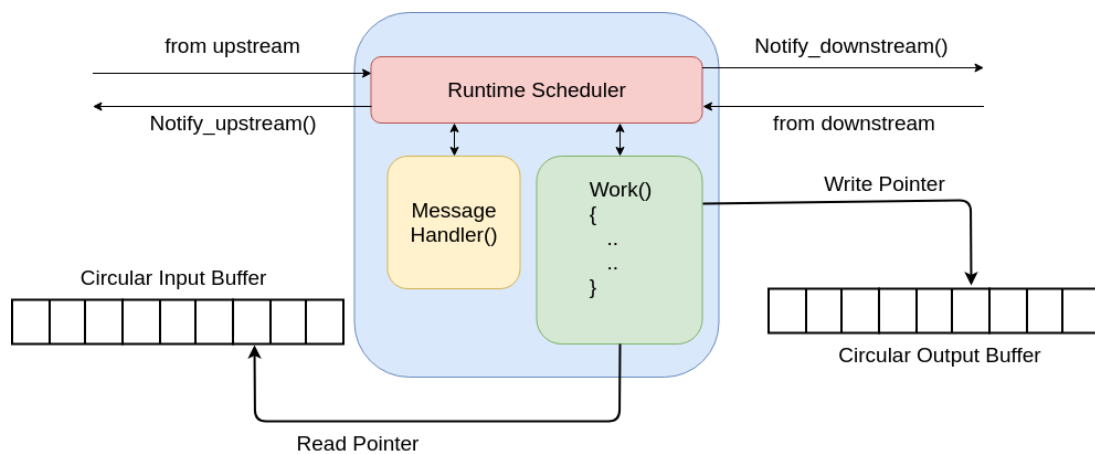
Figure 2.6: Architecture of GNU Radio block

Figure 2.6 shows the general architecture of a GNU Radio block. Each block has associated buffers for the stream interfaces, two computational components, namely the *work* function and the *message handler* function. A run time scheduler is associated with each block for controlling the execution of block during runtime. The runtime scheduler has its own signaling mechanism for interacting with schedulers of other blocks. This signaling mechanisms are hidden to the flow graph designer, and are used for flow control. The blocks providing the inputs to the current block are called upstream blocks, while those that are fed by the output of this block are called downstream block.

For the sake of simplicity, it is assumed that the current block in Figure 2.6 has one upstream block and one downstream block. This implies that the block has a single input buffer and a single output buffer. The *work* function describes the implementation of the signal processing algorithm. On starting execution, the *work* function accesses data from the circular input buffer, which is same as the output buffer for the upstream block. Both the upstream block and the current blocks maintains a pointer to the last used data element position. Once completion of execution, the upstream block writes new elements to the input buffer of the current block and updates its the write data pointer. The upstream block notifies the current block using the notify_ downstream() method that new input data elements have been written. The scheduler for the current block checks if there is sufficient new data for a single execution. It then starts the execution of the current block once the input buffer has sufficient data. On successful execution, it updates the read data pointer, writes the data elements into the output buffer and updates the write pointer. Since, most filter design rely on history of previous inputs, the scheduler also notifies the upstream block on reading the data from the buffer to notify that its output might have been modified. The current block scheduler notifies the downstream block that new data elements are available when it writes to the output buffer. The *message handler* function works similarly, in this case the upstream block scheduler uses notify_msg() method for signaling that a new message may be available.

The flow graph describes the flow of data between different blocks. Flow graphs make it easier to design complex signal processing algorithms by combining simpler blocks. This provides modularity and scalability to the algorithm development process. Generally blocks are designed in C++ to enable fine grained control and faster execution. Python's QT framework defines a signals and slot mechanism for communicating events between different objects. Slots are instantiation of C++ objects, which in this case are the the processing blocks. When the internal state of the block is changed, it emits a signal which notifies other slots an event has occurred. This mechanism is used for describing the flow graphs.

Scheduler The scheduler is the control unit for the flow graph. At initialization, the scheduler allocates the buffers and instantiates each block in its own thread. At runtime, it does memory management for each block, determines the requirements that are set by the block such as number of items to be processed in one execution, alignment of data in the buffers etc. Once the requirements are satisfied, it passes the read and write pointers to the *work* function and starts the one execution. Once the *work* function finishes its execution, the scheduler takes in the returned information and updates the state of the block and the appropriate pointers.

2.2 LimeSDR-USB

The SDR platform used in this project is LimeSDR-USB. It follows the architecture of
the SDR platform shown in Figure 2.2. The technical specifications of LimeSDR-USB
and the component description in reference to Figure 2.2 has been summarized in Table
2.2. In the next paragraphs, the report discusses the hardware and software architecture of LimeSDR-USB.

Feature	Description
Software Configurable RF Transreceiver	LMS7002 MIMO *Field Programmable RF* (FPRF)
FPGA	Altera Cyclone IV EP4CE40F23
Bus Controller	Cypress USB 3.0 CYUSB3014-BZXC

Table 2.2: LimeSDR-USB specifications

2.2.1 LimeSDR-USB Hardware Architecture
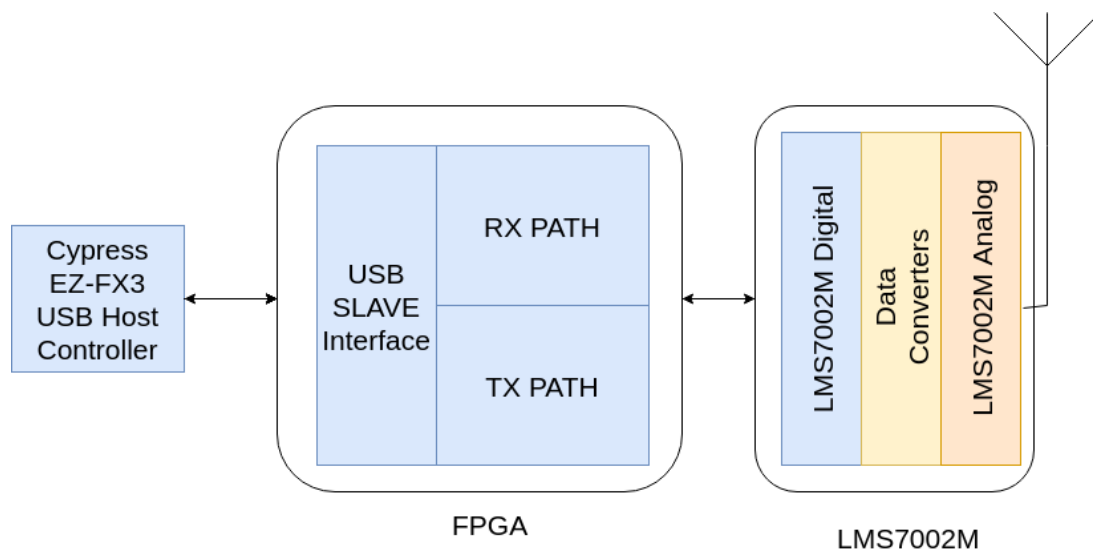
Figure 2.7: Block Diagram of LimeSDR-USB.

Figure 2.7 shows the block diagram of a LimeSDR-USB board. For the sake of simplicity the diagram shows the major components, namely the LMS7002M FPRF, FPGA
and the Cypress FX3 Bus Controller. Other components will be introduced in correspondence to their application with these major components.

LMS7002M   LMS7002M is a fully intergarted FPRF transreceiver providing 2*2 *Multiple Input Multiple Output.* (MIMO) functionality. It provides continuous coverage of the
100kHZ- 3.8GHz frequency range, with on chip data converters providing 160 MHz RF

modulation bandwidth. It is designed for a broad range of applications, ranging from broadband wireless communication, cellular communications, SDR applications etc. The hardware mainly consists of three main segments: analog processing chain, data converters and digital processing chain.
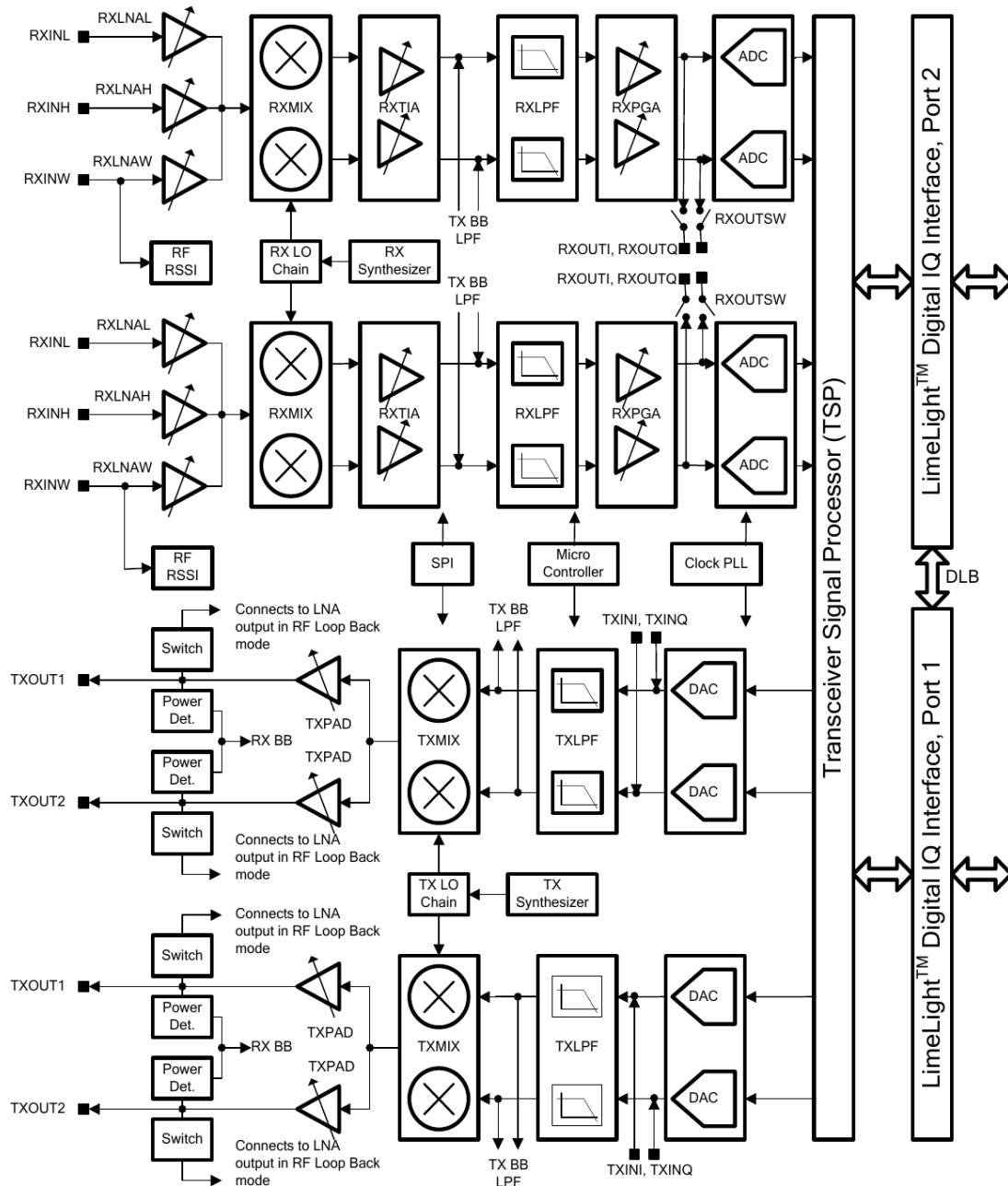

Figure 2.8: Block Diagram of LMS7002M.

LimeSDR USB offers full duplex on both the TX and RX chains, enabling it to transmit and receive simultaneously. Each of the RX chains has three separate RF ports tuned for narrow band low frequency, narrow band high frequency and wide band op-

erations. Similarly, the TX Chains are connected two separate RF ports tuned for high frequency and low frequency operations. This separation is done for better impedance matching at the boundary of the antennas.

Figure 2.8 shows the functional block diagram for a LMS7002M FPRF. Since, both the RX and TX paths are identical, the report concentrates on only one RX path. The output from the RF RX ports are fed into the LNA inorder to minimize injecting too much noise at the beginning of the chain. The receiver follows the architecture shown in Figure 2.3, with a RX mixer, followed by filter and a *Programmable Gain Amplifier.* (PGA) combined in a Zero-IF architecture. The RX PGA outputs the analog baseband signal.

LMS7002M uses a fractional N-*Phased Lock Loop.* (PLL) architecture for the local oscillator frequency synthesis. PLL is used extensively in RF circuits for making sure the generated local oscillator signal and the reference signal have the same phase and frequency. PLLs are essentially negative feedback systems, so when the input signal differs a lot from the output signal, the control logic tries to lower the error(*input-output)*. Integer N- PLL architectures are used to generate high frequency signals from low frequency reference clocks, by using a frequency divider in the negative loopback path. The frequency divider is basically a counter, that outputs every "N" (division factor of the loop) clock cycles of the output signal. But since the output signal frequency will be multiples of the reference clock, the output signal resolution is determined by the reference clock. So to have a high frequency as well as a high resolution, the divider counter should be very large in size. To counter the problem, fractional N-PLL architectures were designed where the output signal frequency can also be a fractional multiple of the input signal frequency. This helps in increasing the frequency resolution without the need for a large divisor counter. The input and output frequency relationship for a fractional N-PLL can be summarized by: $f_{out} = f_{ref}(N + k/M)$, where N is the integer divider factor, k is the fractional divider factor and $1/M$ gives the output frequency resolution. Both the integer and fractional divider factor are determined by the size of the counters used. In case of LimeSDR, the reference signal fed to the PLL varies from to 10 to 52 MHz. The output signal can vary from 30 to 3800 MHz, with a frequency resolution of 24.8 Hz.

Once the RF demodulation is completed by the analog processing chain, the analog signal is sent to the data converters and converted to digital data samples. The sampling rate for the data conversion is determined by the RF channel bandwidth. The digital samples are sent to the *Transreceiver Signal Processor.* (TSP), LMS7002M digital side, for further processing. The TSP uses advanced signal processing algorithms like IQ DC offset correction, IQ phase correction for correcting the received samples. An interpolation and decimation filter is added to the TSP for the TX and RX chains respectively. These filters are implemented with a chain of five fixed co-efficient half band FIR filters, which allows interpolation and decimation factors of 1,2,4,8,16. Interpolation and Decimation allows the baseband to run at a lower data rate while still

running the data converters at higher sampling rates, enabling the quantization noise to be spread over larger frequency range. Automatic Gain Control is also implemented by the the TSP.

LMS7002M interfaces can be segmented into control interfaces and data interfaces. The control interfaces are used for initialization, calibration and on the fly reconfiguration of the LMS7002M parameters. The data interface is used for exchanging *In-Phase Quadrature.* (IQ) samples with the baseband modem. For the data interface, LMS7002M uses the LimeLight interface which implements a 12 bit JESD *Double Data Rate.* (DDR) interface for communicating with the baseband modem. The LMS7002M has a on-chip micro-controller which can be used for configuration and control of the LMS7002M chip. It also provides a *Serial Peripheral Interface.* (SPI) interface for offloading the control and configuration functionality to the baseband modem.

FPGA

Cypress FX3

2.2.2   LimeSDR USB dataflow.

- *TX Data Path:* Stream data from GNURadio is passed through Soapy drivers to the LimeSDR Streaming API. The API unwraps the data and the control flags and pushes it to the TX-FIFO. It also does the necessary data representation translation depending on the data format of the streamed data. For example, in case of complex data, it changes 32 bit I and Q value representation of GNU Radio to 16 bit I and Q values representation. The values are pushed to the respective TX stream channel buffers(TXFIFO). The connection stream initializes the TX buffers and fills them with data from the TXFIFO. The Write function structures the data into FPGA data packet structure((Figure 2.11)) and combines multiple such packets into predefined batch size(initially 4). The buffer is processed by libusb to create bulk transfer packet and finally streamed to output data endpoint.

- *RX Data Path:* The USB data is continuously streamed from the LimeSDR to the Connection stream buffers through libusb. The Read function waits for data to be available from a usb context for the endpoint it is listening to, then it transfer data from the endpoint, parses the FPGA packets (Figure 2.11) to collect the data and pushes them to the RXFIFO. If the rx stream is configured to have particular receive time, it checks if that condition is satisfied. The LimeSDR streaming API collects the data from the RXFIFO and does the necessary data interpretation translation (reverse translation to the TX Data Path), finally streams the data to GNURadio.
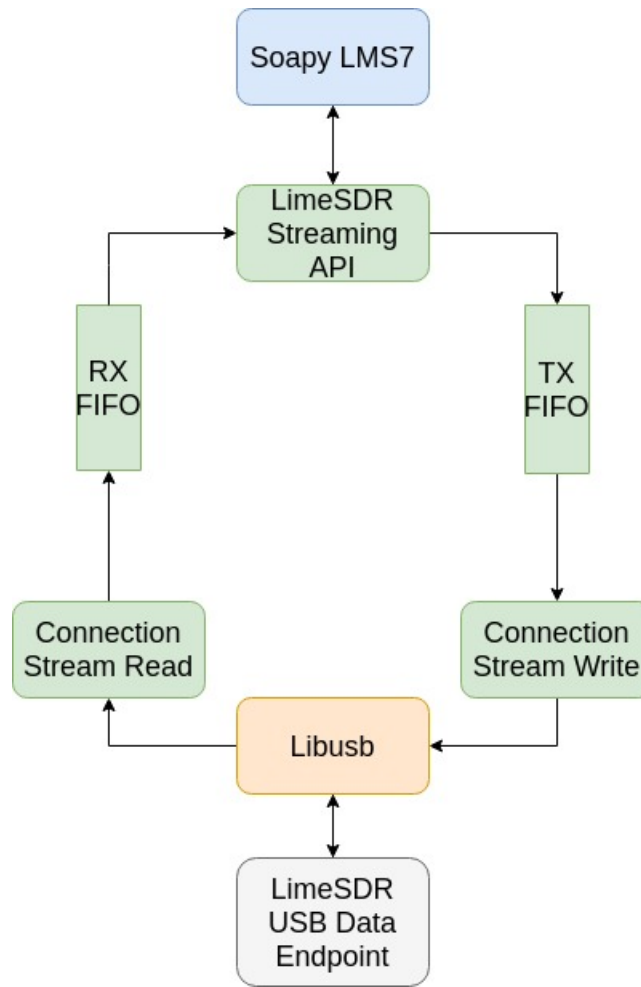
Figure 2.9: LimeSDR USB software architecture

LimeSDR USB packets and endpoints

LimeSDR uses four different endpoints for USB data transfer, these endpoints as Data Endpoint and Control Endpoint for both input and output directions. The control endpoints are used for configuring and retrieving data from the LMS7002M and NIOS Core on the FPGA. Data packets are used for the streaming data. It uses two differ-

Endpoint No.	Function
0x01	Stream Data Output
0x81	Stream Data Input
0x0F	Control Data Output
0x8F	Control Data Input

Table 2.3: LimeSDR USB transfer endpoints

ent packet structures for the LMS7002M Control Packets and the Stream Data Packets. Depending on the control command, different number of bytes are packed into one

data element and the maximum number of blocks in a single packet is defined. One LMS64C protocol packet (Figure 2.10) is maximum 64 bytes, if the data to be sent is larger than that then the data field is segmented into several packets. The block count gives the number of data element in a single packet. The FPGA contains 4080 bytes of data along with 8 bytes of counter data that can be used for timestamps on the TX packets. The Lime driver uses synchronous bulk transfer for LMS Control packets and asynchronous bulk transfers for the FPGA packets.
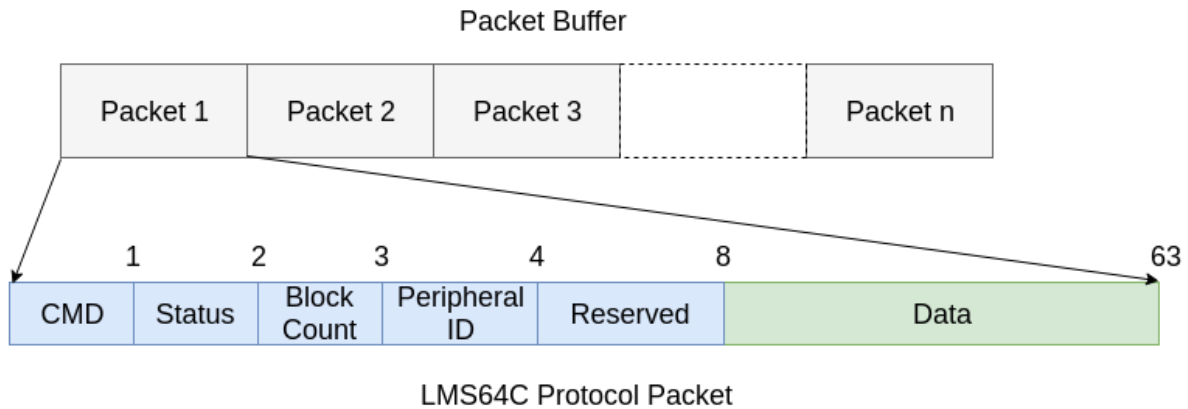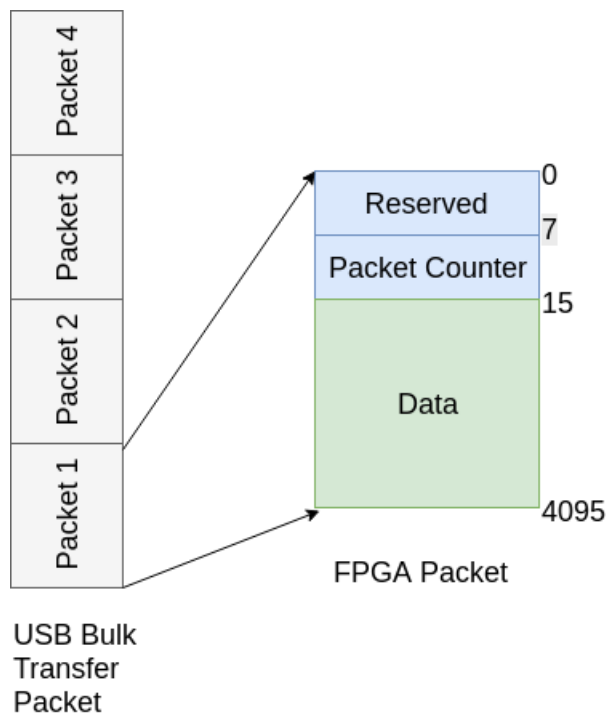

Figure 2.10: LMS Control Packet Structure

Figure 2.11: FPGA Packet Structure

URB Tag	Timestamp	Event Type	Address	URB Status
ffff8fbdbbae4000	2942307806	S	Bo:3:008:15	-115

Data Length	Data Tag	Data
64	=	21000100 00000000 002a0484 00000000 000000

Table 2.4: Text USB Trace Example.

2.2.3 USBMon

It is kernel facility provided to collect I/O traces on the USB Bus[10]. USBMon reports the requests made to and by the USB Host Controller Drivers(HCD). It provides two kinds of API's : binary and character. The binary API is accessed by character devices located in the /dev namespace. The character API provides human readability and uniform format for the traces.The kernel data from the USBMon text data is made available to the userspace using debugfs[2] utility.
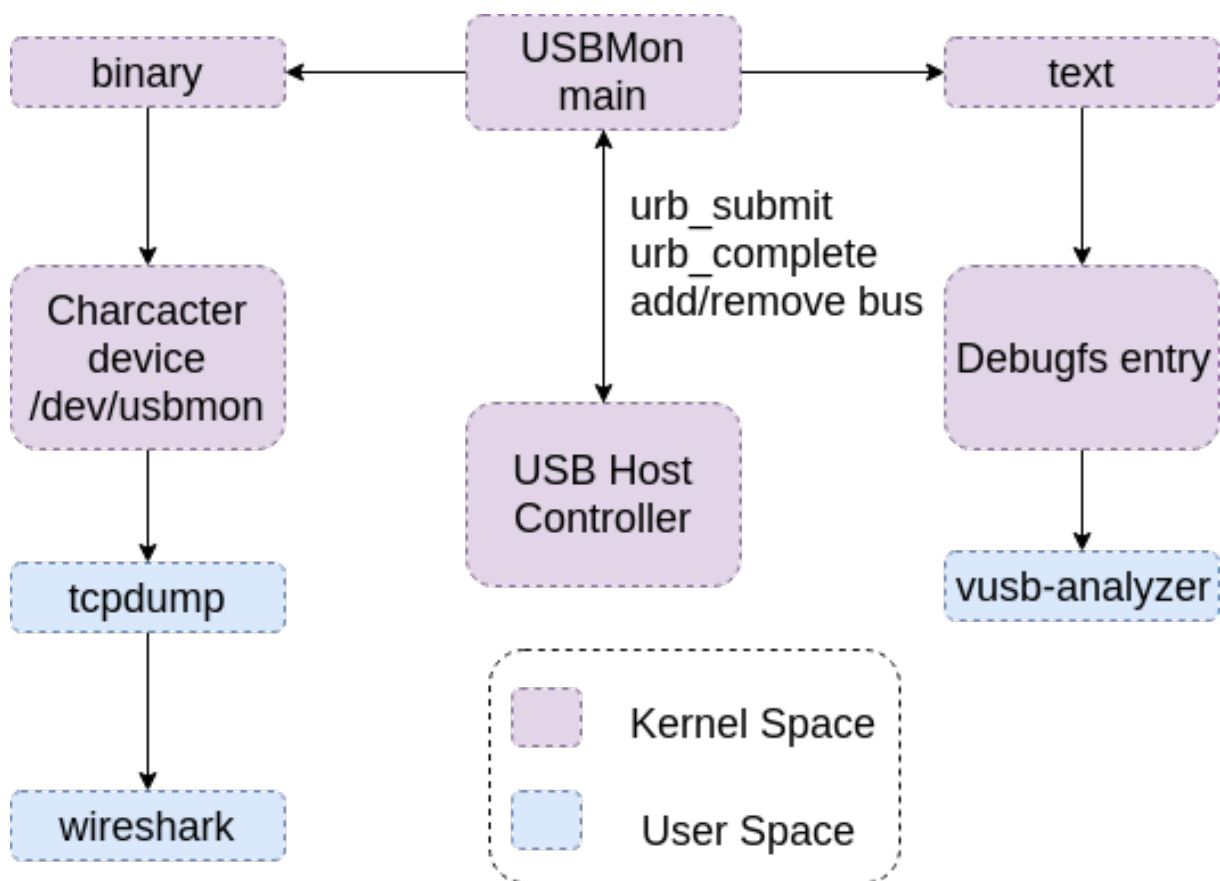

Figure 2.12: USBMon Architecture(Adapted from [1]).

Text Data Format

- *URB Tag:* URB Identification number, it is usually the in kernel adress of the URB structure.

- *Timestamp:* The timestamp for the URB event at the HCD in microseconds. It is measured by the usbmon main utility using *gettimeofday()* function of *time.h*.

- *Event Type:* It specifies the event type of the HCD event. S - Submission C - Complete E - submission error.

- *Address:* It consists of four fields separated by colons. The URB type and direction, bus number, device number, endpoint number. The URB type and direction specifies the type of USB transfer(can be both synchronous and asynchronous).

Bi	Bo	Bulk Input and Output.
Ci	Co	Control Input and Output.
Ii	Io	Interrupt Input and Output.
Zi	Zo	Isochronous Input and Output.

Table 2.5: URB Type and Direction.

The USB device transfers data through a pipe to a memory buffer on the host and endpoint on the device. The type of data transfer depends on the endpoint and the requirements of the function. The transfer types are as follows[8]:

- **Control Transfers:** It is mainly used for configuration, command and status operations.

- **Bulk Transfers:** Bulk Transfer are used for bulky,non-periodic non time-sensitive burst transmissions.

- **Interrupt Transfers:** It is used for mainly sending small amounts of data infrequently or asynchronously.

- **Isochronous Transfers:** Isochronous transfers are mainly used for periodic, continuous streams of time sensitive data.

USB endpoint as explained by [9] , refers to the buffers on the USB device. The host computer irrespective of the host operating system can communicate by reading and writing to these buffers. They can be data endpoints and control endpoints.Data endpoints are used for transferring data whereas the control endpoint is used for configuration and device specific control.

- *Data Length:* For urb_submit it gives the requested data length and for callbacks it is the actual data length.

- *Data tag:* If this field is '=' then data words are present.

- *Data:* The data words contains in the USB transfer packet.

Raw Binary

The overall data format is same as the text data, the data is available in raw binary by accessing character devices at /dev/usbmonX. The data can be read by using *read* with *ioctl* or by mapping the buffer using *mmap*. The usbmon events are buffered in the following format:

```
struct usbmon_packet {
        u64 id;                 /*  0: URB ID − from submission to callback */
        unsigned char type;     /*  8: Same as text; extensible. */
        unsigned char xfer_type; /*   ISO (0), Intr, Control, Bulk (3) */
        unsigned char epnum;    /*     Endpoint number and transfer direction */
        unsigned char devnum;   /*     Device address */
        u16 busnum;             /* 12: Bus number */
        char flag_setup;        /* 14: Same as text */
        char flag_data;         /* 15: Same as text; Binary zero is OK. */
        s64 ts_sec;             /* 16: gettimeofday */
        s32 ts_usec;            /* 24: gettimeofday */
        int status;             /* 28: */
        unsigned int length;    /* 32: Length of data (submitted or actual) */
        unsigned int len_cap;   /* 36: Delivered length */
        union {                 /* 40: */
                unsigned char setup[SETUP_LEN]; /* Only for Control S−type */
                struct iso_rec {                /* Only for ISO */
                        int error_count;
                        int numdesc;
                } iso;
        } s;
        int interval;           /* 48: Only for Interrupt and ISO */
        int start_frame;        /* 52: For ISO */
        unsigned int xfer_flags; /* 56: copy of URB's transfer_flags */
        unsigned int ndesc;     /* 60: Actual number of ISO descriptors */
};
```

2.2.4   pidstat

2.2.5   802.15.4

Chapter 3

Methods

This chapter introduces the system architecture followed by the experimental designs for the quantitative analysis. The system architecture describes the GNU Radio flow-graph description and the software and hardware used in this project. The experiments are presented in chronological order. In the first experiment, the performance of the system is measured with respect to broader parameters like sampling rate, data payload size and the number of message sent per second. The second experiment was designed was look at the impact of these parameters on the the different subsections of the data path. Then, the experiments are more focused on the USB Bus transfer. In experiment 3, the project looks at the impact of the size of the bus transfer on the overall delay. Finally the modifications introduced in hardware and software are introduced. It is followed by the the experimentation on the impact of finer bus transfer size and the GNU radio buffer sizes on the overall round trip times and how the process utilizes the system resources.

3.1   System Architecture

The experimental system is primarily based on the WIME project implementation of 802.15.4 protocol. It is adapted to use the LimeSDR board instead of USRP as the SDR platform. The adaptations can be grouped as

1. GNU Radio blocks

2. 802.15.4 PHY layer

3. Periodic Message Source

GNU Radio Blocks   For using the LimeSDR platform the USRP Sink and Source blocks are replaced by the grlimesdr project source and sink blocks. Another alternate used in this project is the gr-osmosdr project sink and source blocks which used soapysdr to access the Lime API. The former was chosen as it directly interacts with the LimeAPI without using the adaptation layer presented by the soapysdr project. This

gives much better control of the board control parameters and also saves subsequent memcpy operations used by the soapysdr glue layer. (**Maybe present the RTT values for using the two different blocks and show that the limesdr block is better.**)

802.15.4 PHY layer   The WIME project PHY layer has been designed to only work with 4 MHz as the sampling rate, in this project, the PHY layer has been modified to accommodate different sampling rates. **Describe the change**
Describe the timing probe

Periodic Message Source   A periodic message source block was implemented in the GNU Radio, it takes in the message length and time period as parameters. Figure 3.2.1 shows the working of the message source with respect to time. The data length controls the duty cycle of the signal by varying ΔT_{tx}, which is the time is requires to transmit the message through USB.

The block notes down the global system time as T_1 when it publishes a message to its output port. When the block receives the message the time T_1 is written to a file for analysis with the reception time measured in the PHY layer. As only valid messages are received by this block writing T_1 only on valid receive helps in measuring the time delay only for valid data points.

Since the time noted should be compared with those from usbmon, *gettimeofday* was selected as the preferred method. The time period was set such that the transmitted message is received before sending the next message.
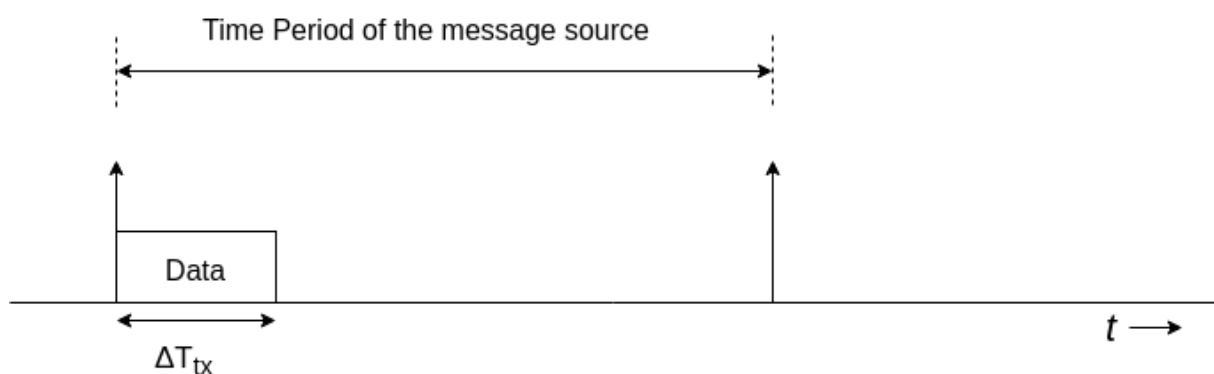
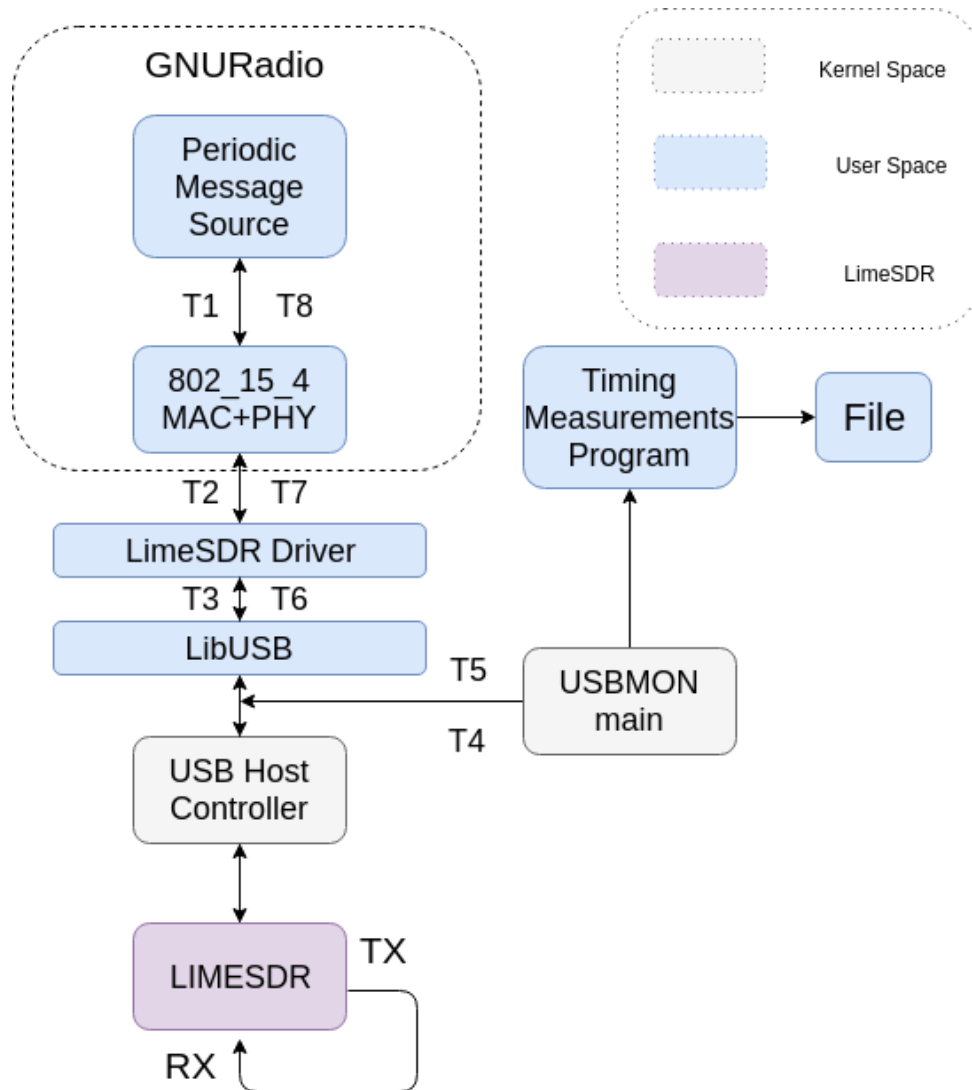

Figure 3.1: Periodic Message Source

Figure 3.2: System Description

3.1.1   System Description

3.1.2   Software Description

3.1.3   Hardware Description

3.2   Timing Analysis

The project uses the Wime Project implementation of 802.15.4 MAC and PHY layers in GNU Radio. For the purpose of measurement of round trip latency, a loop back experimentation setup(Figure 3.2) was implemented. A periodic message source generates messages and notes down the time T1. It is then processed and modulated by the 802.15.4 MAC and PHY respectively and sent through the OSMOCOM transreceiver

USB Transfer Direction	Threshold Value
|I| TX	0.8
|I| RX	0.2

Table 3.1: Transfer Direction and Threshold Value

to the LimeSDR. The RX and TX ports of the LMS7002M has been shorted and hence the original sent message loopbacks through the FPGA and comes back to the GNU Radio and is demodulated and processed by the PHY and MAC blocks respectively and is ultimately received by the periodic message source and the time is noted as T4.

The usbmon kernel utility continuously monitors bus activity between the LimeSDR USB driver and USB Host Controller. It timestamps the transfers and generates event queues to be accessed from the user space. The timing measurements program parses the event queue to find the relevant packets and notes down their usbmon timestamps as T3 and T4 for transmit and receive packets respectively.

3.2.1   Message Source

3.2.2   Timing Measurements Program

The timing measurements program uses ioctl to access the /dev/usbmonX character device. This allows the program to access the usbmon kernel utility event queue. The events are filtered to find packets with **0x01** & **0x81** device endpoints. The data streams are parsed to find the relevant data fields from FPGA packets(Figure 2.11), following that the data is converted from integer representation to complex floating point representation. The modulus of In Phase Sample's amplitude is used to determine if the data contained in the packet is useful or not.

Analyzing the samples in the data stream, the samples threshold for actual data packets to as shown in Table 3.1. Once the packets have been analyzed, the sequence of events was studied to generate a state machine representation for the timing functionality.

The sequence follows the structure shown in figure 3.3 if the condition mentioned about the time period in 3.2.1 is satisfied. Since we want to measure the round trip delay, the time instant of the first TX and last RX packet as noted by T2 and T3 respectively needs to be measured. The difference between them gives the Kernel round-trip delay as measured by usbmon.

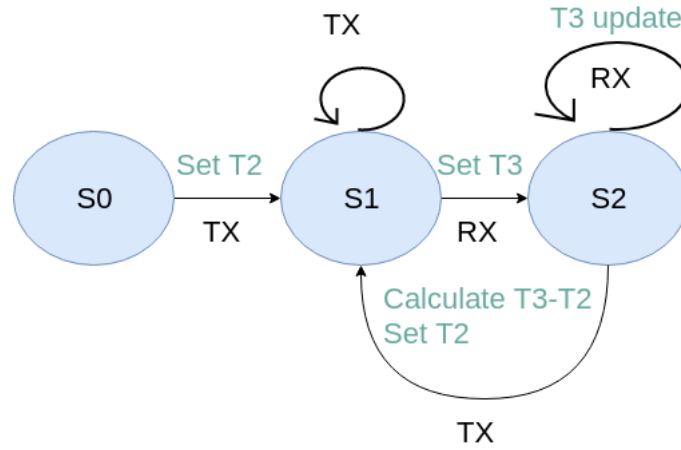Figure 3.3: Sequence of valid data packet with time

Figure 3.4: State Machine

State Machine shown in Figure 3.4 controls the timing measurement function. It starts with state S0 and when it receives a TX event it sets T2 and moves to S1, further TX events don't update the value of T2 as we want the first TX event time. The state machine moves from S1 to S2 on a RX event, it sets the value of T3, further RX events updates the value of T3 as we want the time instant of the last RX event. On receiving TX event when at S2, it moves to S1, calculates $T3 - T2$ and sets the value of T2.

3.2.3   Results Correlation Method

All the time instants are stored in Unix Time Format, a python script stores the values in separate arrays t1, t2, t3, t4 for GNU Radio Transmit Time, Kernel Transmit Time, Kernel Receive Time and GNU Radio Receive Time respectively.

Algorithm 1 Time Data Correlation

$T \leftarrow$ Time Period of Message Source
$l \leftarrow$ min(length of time arrays)
$i \leftarrow 0$
for $i < l$ **do**
    if $(t1[i] > t2[i]$ or $t3[i] > t4[i])$ **then**
        delete $t1[i], t4[i]$
    else if $(t2[i] - t1[i]) > T$ **then** delete t2[i]
    else if $(t4[i] - t3[i]) > T$ **then** delete t3[i]
    else $i \leftarrow i + 1$
        $l \leftarrow$ min(length of time arrays)
    end if
end for

Once the arrays have been compared to remove corrupt data, the mean and standard deviation of the respective arrays are found.

Chapter 4

Results and Analysis

4.0.1 Analytical Method

The 802.15.4 PHY layer expands 1 byte of message data to 128 bytes, so the maximum packet length of 127 bytes becomes produces sample data of size $127 * 128 = 16256 bytes = 15.875 KB$
. The FPGA packet format adds 16 bytes overhead for every 4080 bytes so the overhead for 16256 bytes would be 64bytes. So the overall transfer size would be 16320 bytes. This would require four FPGA packets so the actual size of the USB transfer would be 16384 bytes Now for sampling rate of 1MHz $\equiv$ 1MSPS, the actual data transfer is 1.5 MBps since the LMS7002M has 12 bits ADC and DAC.

Sampling Rate	USB Transfer delay
5 MHz	4369.07 μs
10 MHz	2184.53 μs
15 MHz	1456.35 μs
20 MHz	1092.27 μs

Table 4.1: Analytical USB Transfer Delay

4.0.2 Experimental Results

Figure 4.1 shows the different terminology used in the results, with the TX & RX software delay is the delay caused by the GNU Radio and LimeSDR driver processing, the Kernel RTT Time includes the buffer delay in the LimeSDR and the USB communication delay. Total RTT Time = Kernel RTT Time + TX Software Delay + RX Software Delay. All the timing measurements are done on Lenovo Thinpad X240 with Dual-Core Intel® Core™ i5-4300U CPU @ 1.90GHz and 4GB RAM. The setup use Limesuite version 17.12.0 and gateware version 2.12.
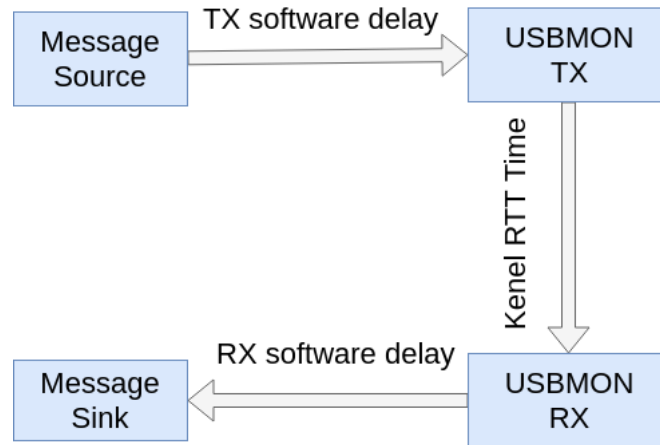
Figure 4.1: Results Setup

Sampling Rate(MHz)	5	10	15	20
Total RTT mean (μs)	5360	3606	3065	4485
Total RTT std deviation (μs)	326	472	262	1273
Kernel RTT mean (μs)	4113	1937	1354	762
Kernel RTT std deviation (μs)	1201	330	232	298
TX chain mean (μs)	470	675	831	1586
TX chain std deviation (μs)	60	1165	186	860
RX chain mean (μs)	1100	1122	871	1769
RX chain std deviation (μs)	472	1764	262	1036

Table 4.2: Experimental results

4.0.3   Analysis

- The results show a monotonic drop in the kernel USB timings with increase in sampling rate and monotonic increase for RX and TX delay (Exception: 15 MHz). This indicates with increase in sampling rate, the buffers are getting overloaded and hence an increase in processing delay compared to bus communication delay.

- Another thing that I noticed was at high sampling rate the round trip time increases with time, again pointing to buffer delay on the RX chain.

- My measurement program becomes highly unstable at higher sampling rates, for example for 20MHz, I captured 610 packets of which I could correlate only 160 packets. This is mainly because the usbmon event queues overflow and hence my timing measurement program misses some relevant events and reports wrong timing information. One method I plan on using is flushing the buffers before the message source generates the message since each measurement is independent of the previous in a TDMA protocol.

- The analytical values for the RTT time(Table 4.1) is more than the actual value that usbmon reported(Table 4.0.2), my hypothesis is that this happens due to my assumption that all the data in the LimeSDR TX buffer is popped before the relevant RX data is popped back in the RX buffers on the LimeSDR side. But in actual operation even before all the TX data has been popped, the loopback data is being pushed to the RX buffers. This is demonstrated using figure 4.2 where its shows the state of the RX and TX buffers with respect to time. *t1* shows the instant when all the relevant data has been popped from the TX buffers and *t2* shows the instant when the relevant RX data is popped from the buffers. For my assumption *t1* should be equal to *t2*, but here $t2 < t1$ hence the reported values are less than those of the analytical model. With increase in sampling rate the difference between t2 and t1 increases. There is a need to address this issue to ensure reliability of the measurement method.
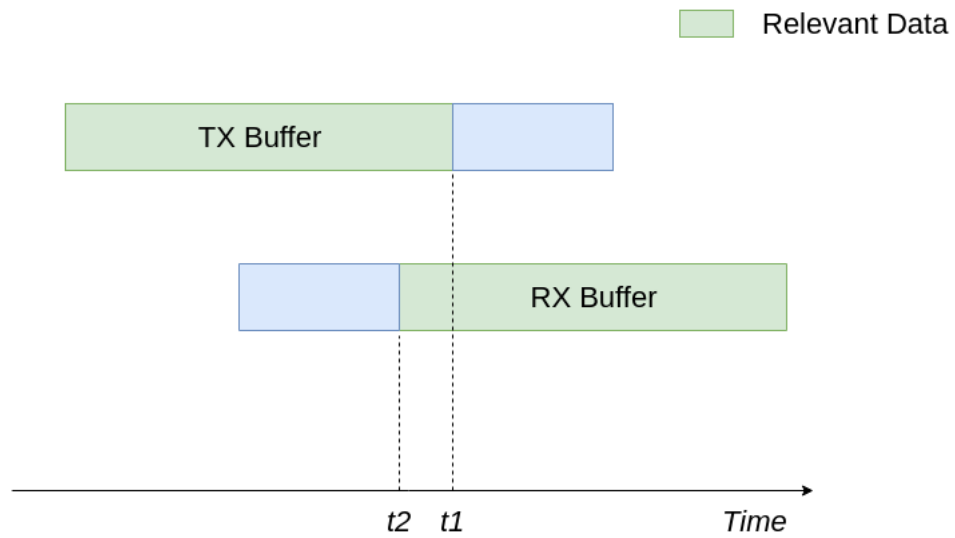
Figure 4.2: Overlapping of buffers on LimeSDR

Chapter 5

What's next

The project plan is presented in Gantt Chart format in figure 5.1. According to my estimate I am one week behind the project plan.

- Timing Analysis:

  - More data points to pinpoint the buffer delays.
  - Off-line processing of the USB data to pinpoint the time instant of maximum correlation between RX and TX data
  - Make individual measurements independent.
  - Solve the buffer overlap problem.

- Enabling deterministic timing: A key element for enabling TDMA protocols would be deterministic send and receive time of packets. So I would look at possible strategies.

- Evaluation: Since I am looking at compression algorithms, it would be essential to find the compression ratio I am able to achieve with lossy and lossless compression. Also, I should concentrate on figuring out how these compression algorithms affect the performance of SDR systems. The strategies for deterministic timing needs to be evaluated for jitter to actual TDMA schedules.
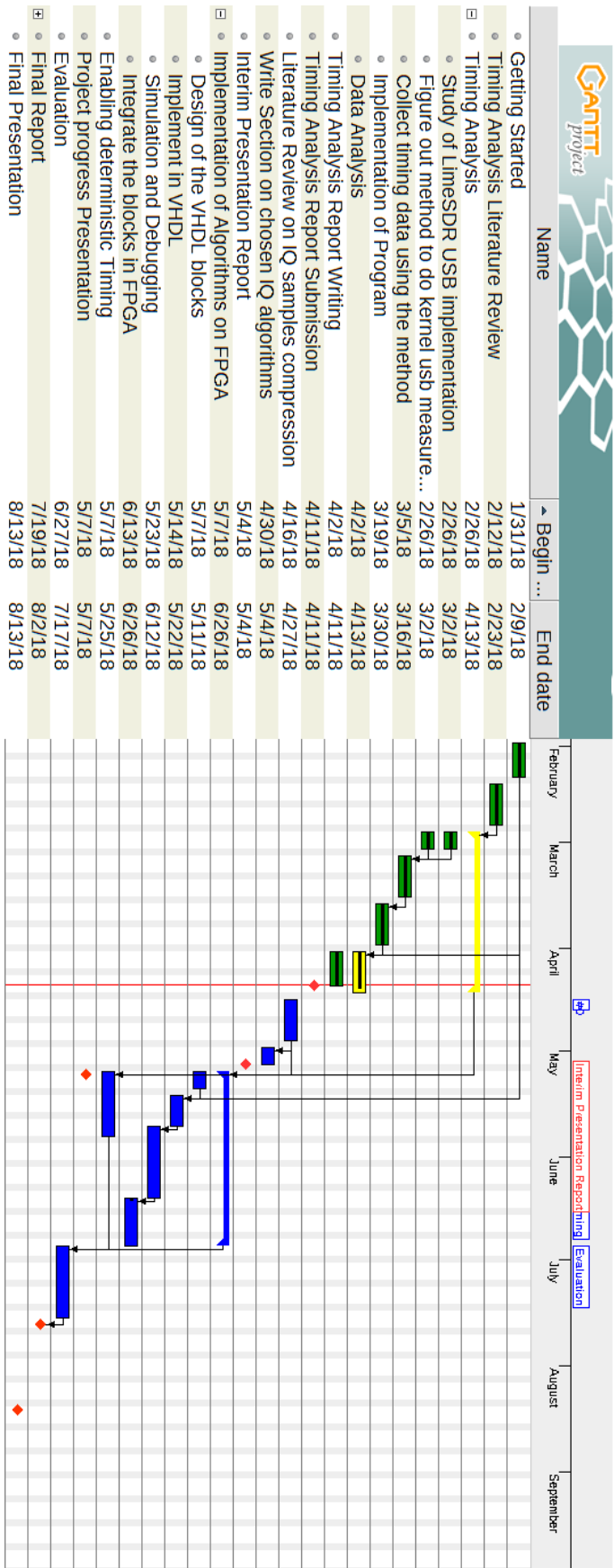
Figure 5.1: Project Plan

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