A Compact Hard Real-Time Operating System for Wireless Sensor Nodes

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Abstract—The paper shows a compact hard real-time operating system for wireless sensor nodes called PAVENET OS. PAVENET OS provides hybrid multithreading: preemptive multithreading and cooperative multithreading. Both of the multithreading is optimized for two kinds of task on wireless sensor networks, and the kinds are real-time tasks and best-effort tasks. PAVENET OS can efficiently perform hard real-time tasks that cannot be performed by TinyOS. The paper demonstrates the hybrid multithreading realizes compactness and low overhead, which are comparable to those of TinyOS, through quantitative evaluation. The results show PAVENET OS performs 100-Hz sensor sampling with 0.01% jitter while performing wireless communication tasks, whereas optimized TinyOS has 0.62% jitter. In addition, PAVENET OS has a small footprint and low overhead (minimum RAM size: 29 bytes, minimum ROM size: 490 bytes, minimum task switch time: 23 cycles).

I. INTRODUCTION

Wireless sensor networks (WSNs) have a number of potential fields of application, including habitat monitoring, military applications [21], wildland fire monitoring [12], volcano monitoring [24], and structural monitoring [16], [25], [15]. Each application has different requirements for communication protocols and sensing tasks, and sensor nodes have very limited physical resources because of their design requirements, namely, low power, low cost, and small size. In some cases, sensor nodes must perform hardware-tightened tasks such as radio management, which must be completed by highly constrained deadline. Any operating system running on the sensor nodes should cover these requirements.

TinyOS [14] is a standard operating system for wireless sensor nodes. TinyOS takes up only 47 bytes of RAM and 473 bytes of ROM and switches tasks in several dozens of cycles. This excellent compactness is provided by the event architecture of TinyOS. In the event architecture, only one main loop executes event handlers according to received events, and the handlers never preempt each other.

However, the event architecture causes difficulties in performing hard real-time tasks and high programming complexity. In a real-time system, a higher priority task must preempt other tasks, but the event architecture forbids preemption for its compactness and small overhead.

In the present paper, we show a compact hard real-time operating system called PAVENET OS. To realize the hard realtime feature, PAVENET OS is designed with a thread model and enabling preemption. The enabling preemption causes two problems. First, the preemption induces huge overhead for checking task priorities and saving CPU context. Second, the preemption induces a conflict management problem among tasks.

To reduce the preemption overhead, PAVENET OS uses a characteristic of wireless sensor nodes: tasks can be categorized as real-time tasks or best-effort tasks. PAVENET OS provides two kinds of multithreading, which are preemptive multithreading and cooperative multithreading. The preemptive multithreading is optimized for the real-time tasks with a CPU specific design, and the cooperative multithreading is optimized for the best-effort tasks. To mitigate the conflict management problem, PAVENET OS uses another characteristic of wireless sensor nodes: most conflicts occur between communication layers. PAVENET OS provides a wireless communication stack for hiding the exclusive controls to users.

The hard real-time feature can perform 100-Hz sensor sampling while performing radio management tasks with 0.01% jitter, whereas optimized TinyOS has 0.62% jitter. Additionally, PAVENETOS realizes compactness and low overhead that are comparable to those of TinyOS. For example, PAVENET OS can implement *Blink*, which is a sample program in TinyOS [1], on 63 bytes of RAM and 1,183 bytes of ROM, whereas TinyOS implements *Blink* on 44 bytes of RAM and 1,428 bytes of ROM. PAVENET OS also can switch tasks in 23 cycles minimally.

The present study is not intended to show that PAVENET OS is the best operating system. In fact, in contrast to highly portable TinyOS, PAVENET OS sacrifices portability because PAVENET OS has a design specific to Microchip PIC18. Lack of portability is a significant problem. However, the results of the present study imply a better CPU design and operating system design may exist for future wireless sensor networks.

The remainder of the present paper is organized as follows. In the following section, we present the motivation for this research and discuss the difference between the event model and the thread model. In Section III, we provide the implementation details for the PAVENET OS in three parts: a hard realtime task scheduler, a best-effort task scheduler, and a wireless communication stack. Section IV presents an evaluation of the performance of PAVENET OS. Section V reviews related research, and conclusions are presented in Section VI.

II. REQUIREMENTS

Some applications in wireless sensor networks need to obtain data of sufficient quality to have real scientific value,

and the applications include earthquake monitoring [22], volcano monitoring [24], and structural health monitoring [16], [25], [15]. The applications require high fidelity sampling. For example, earthquake monitoring requires precise timesynchronized 100-Hz sampling, and tasks are periodically executed with strict deadlines [16], [22]. In addition, based on the success of TinyOS which is an event driven operating system, we know that compactness is an important factor when covering wide-area applications for wireless sensor networks because compactness is strongly related to power consumption over the entire sensor network.

The advantages of using either the event model or the thread model have been discussed thoroughly [17], [20], [23], [14], [5]. It is difficult to strictly categorize all operating systems as event models or thread models, and there are many variations in programming style among models. To simplify the discussion herein, we define an event model in the manner of TinyOS [14], [9] and a thread model as traditional time-sliced multithreading, such as the POSIX thread. The event model has only one execution stream and forbids preemption among tasks: an event loop waits for events, an event invokes a handler, and the event handler is executed in run-to-completion. The thread model has multiple independent execution streams, shared states, preemptive scheduling, and synchronization schemes such as locks and conditions.

A. Event Model

In wireless sensor network research, a number of operating systems have been implemented with the event model, including TinyOS [14], SOS [11], Contiki [5], and protothreads [6]. The event architecture has two advantages. First, the user need not be concerned with conflict management because all event handlers execute in a run-to-completion manner and do not preempt each other. This feature also reduces context switch overhead because all task switches are realized by function call. Second, event models can be implemented using limited resources because of their simple structure, which consists of a memory stack, an event loop, and event handlers. This simplicity also allows portability of the system.

However, this simplicity causes two problems. First, the event model cannot perform hard real-time tasks. To support hard real-time tasks, the system must allow preemption. However, the event model does not allow preemption because the advantages are strongly related to the absence of preemption. For example, earthquake monitoring requires radio physical layer tasks and exact 100-Hz sensor sampling [16], [22]. The radio physical layer task has a 26- μ s deadline and cycle, and a 12.5- μ s computation time. The precise 100-Hz sensorsampling task has a 10-ms cycle, a $2.2 - \mu s$ computation time, and a 3.2- μ s deadline. While TinyOS is performing a radio physical layer task, the sampling task cannot be executed until the radio physical layer task is finished. In fact, Kim et al. [15] struggled with temporal jitter caused by logging interferences in sampling. They succeeded to reduce the jitter with Micro-Timer and turning off all unnecessary components on TinyOS. We note that the MicroTimer breaks the simplicity of the

event model because the MicroTimer is implemented inside an interrupt handler. The implementation causes resource conflict problems.

Second, the event model has high programming complexity because the event model has to divide a sequence of tasks into multiple event handlers. With the words of Dunkels et al. [6]: "an event-driven model does not support a blocking wait abstraction. Therefore, programmers of such systems frequently need to use state machines to implement control flow for high-level logic that cannot be expressed as a single event handler." The following code is Blink, which is a TinyOS sample program that toggles an LED every one second [1].

```
[Blink.nc]
```

```
configuration Blink {
}implementation {
  components Main, BlinkM, SingleTimer, LedsC;
  Main.StdControl -> BlinkM.StdControl;
  Main.StdControl -> SingleTimer.StdControl;
  BlinkM.Timer -> SingleTimer.Timer;
  BlinkM.Leds -> LedsC;
}
[BlinkM.nc]
module BlinkM {
  provides {
    interface StdControl;
  uses {
    interface Timer;
    interface Leds;
  }
}
implementation {
  command result_t StdControl.init() {
    call Leds.init();
    return SUCCESS;
  command result_t StdControl.start() {
    return call Timer.start(TIMER_REPEAT, 1000);
  }
  command result_t StdControl.stop() {
    return call Timer.stop();
  event result t Timer.fired() {
    call Leds.redToggle();
    return SUCCESS;
  }
}
```

The user has to write this redundant code, even for a simple task such as making an LED blink. This redundancy causes difficulty in understanding the code and debugging. To reduce the programming complexity, Dunkels et al. [6] proposed a programming abstraction for the event model called protothreads. Protothreads makes it possible to write an event model in a thread-like style. However, protothreads still does not support hard real-time tasks.

B. Thread Model

The thread model can support hard real-time tasks because it allows preemption. Allowing preemption is not a sufficient condition, but a necessary condition, to support hard real-time tasks. For example, MANTIS is a time-sliced multithreading operating system for wireless sensor networks, but does not support hard real-time tasks [4]. In the thread model, the user

TABLE I Event model vs. thread model

| | event model | thread model |
|------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| compactness | 0 | × |
| low overhead | 0 | × |
| conflict management | 0 | × |
| hard real-time support | × | 0 |
| programming complexity | × | 0 |

can also understand the control flow easily because he/she can code tasks as if they dominate a CPU. Consider the implementation of *Blink* with the thread model. The program is as follows:

```
void thread(void)
{
    while(1) {
        toggle_led();
        sleep(1);
    }
}
```

Compare this code to the TinyOS source code in Section II-A. The thread model can implement this program with a smaller code size than the event model, even if the codes represent the same task.

However, in contrast to the event model, the thread model does not have a simple structure, and the user must consider conflict management with shared data, and the task switch overhead is high because the thread model operating system has to save the CPU context at every preemption point. In addition, a memory stack is required for each execution stream. These features increase the memory consumption of operating systems. For example, MANTIS occupies less than 500 bytes of RAM and approximately 14 KB of ROM [4]. This is natural because the thread model provides an intermediate layer between the hardware and the software, whereas the event model is placed directly on the hardware.

We conclude the discussion about the event model and the thread model to Table I. Both models have advantages and disadvantages. The event model is compact, low overhead, and need not manage resource confliction. However, the event model cannot handle hard real-time tasks and has high programming complexity. The thread model can support hard realtime tasks, and has lower programming complexity. However, the thread model is not compact, has high overhead, and need manage resource confliction among tasks. The challenge is to develop an operating system that has the following features:

- hard real-time support
- compactness
- low overhead
- low programming complexity

III. PAVENET OS

We design a compact hard real-time operating system called PAVENET OS with enabling preemption. As mentioned in Section II-B, the preemption induces preemption overhead and a conflict management problem.

To reduce the preemption overhead, we use characteristics of tasks in wireless sensor networks: tasks can be categorized as real-time tasks or best-effort tasks. PAVENET OS provides two kinds of multithreading: preemptive multithreading for real-time tasks and cooperative multithreading for best-effort tasks. Both of the multithreading is optimized for the tasks. To mitigate the conflict management problem, PAVENET OS also provides a wireless communication stack. The wireless communication stack hides exclusive controls between layers in wireless sensor networks.

A. Hard Real-time Task Scheduler

PAVENET OS provides a hard real-time task scheduler for real-time tasks, and the real-time tasks have a task priority and preempt lower priority tasks. The real-time tasks include radio management, sensor sampling, and media access control. Although the task priority and the preemption causes task scheduling/switching overheads, PAVENET OS performs realtime tasks in low overhead because PAVENET OS aggressively uses functions of PIC18, namely, dynamic priority levels and a fast return stack.

PIC18 is a microcontroller developed by Microchip and has several interrupt sources, e.g., timers, external ports, a Master Synchronous Serial Port (MSSP), and a Universal Synchronous Receiver Transmitter (USART). Each source is dynamically assigned to a high priority level or a low priority level. High-priority interrupt events can interrupt any low-priority tasks and best-effort tasks. Low-priority interrupt events can interrupt any best-effort tasks. PIC18 also has a fast return stack, which automatically saves the CPU context when an interrupt occurs. In control registers, each interrupt has three bits to control their operation: a flag bit, an enable bit, and a priority bit. The flag bit indicates whether an interrupt event has occurred. The enable bit allows the program to execute an interrupt when the flag bit is set. The priority bit selects high priority or low priority. For example, a timer0 interrupt has TMROIF as a flag bit, TMROIE as an enable bit, and TMROIP as a priority bit.

In PAVENET OS, each real-time task corresponds to each interrupt vector. Therefore, there are no software transaction in task switching and task scheduling. PAVENET OS decides priority of real-time tasks according to their deadlines, and multiple tasks can have same priority: the low priority tasks must not have smaller deadline than high priority tasks. The real-time task scheduling is categorized to deadline-monotonic scheduling [18], [3]. Deadline-monotonic scheduling can assign optimized priority to guarantee a deadline in a single CPU [18].

We can test the sufficient condition of the schedulability with deadline monotonic scheduling [18], [3]. The following is a schedulability test presented in [3].

All tasks are characterized by

$$C_i \le D_i \le T_i$$

where C_i is the computation time, D_i is the deadline, and T_i is the period of task τ_i . In addition, task τ_1 represents the highest priority task and τ_n represents the lowest priority task. Then, schedulability test is given by:

$$\forall i : 1 \le i \le n : \frac{C_i}{D_i} + \frac{I_i}{D_i} \le 1 \tag{1}$$

where I_i is a measure of higher priority tasks interfering with the execution of τ_i :

$$I_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \left\lceil \frac{D_i}{T_j} \right\rceil C_j.$$
⁽²⁾

If a task τ_i satisfies equation (1), the task τ_i is schedulable.

In Equations (1) and (2), the scheduler has n priority levels and each priority corresponds to a task. However, PAVENET OS has only two priority levels and can assign multiple tasks to a priority level. Therefore, the schedulability test for PAVE-NET OS is as follows.

Suppose there are n high-priority tasks. The schedulability test for high-priority tasks is given by:

$$\frac{C_i}{D_i} + \frac{I_i}{D_i} \le 1 \tag{3}$$

where I_i is a measure of tasks having the same priority interfering with the execution of τ_i :

$$I_{i} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \left\lceil \frac{D_{i}}{T_{j}} \right\rceil C_{j}\right) - \left\lceil \frac{D_{i}}{T_{i}} \right\rceil C_{i}$$
$$= \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \left\lceil \frac{D_{i}}{T_{j}} \right\rceil C_{j}\right) - C_{i}.$$

Therefore, Equation (3) is:

$$\frac{C_i}{D_i} + \frac{I_i}{D_i} = \frac{C_i}{D_i} + \frac{\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \left\lceil \frac{D_i}{T_j} \right\rceil C_j\right) - C_i}{D_i} \\
= \sum_{j=1}^n \left\lceil \frac{D_i}{T_j} \right\rceil \frac{C_j}{D_i} \le 1.$$
(4)

If a task τ_i satisfies equation (4), the task τ_i is schedulable.

Next, we show the schedulability test for low-priority tasks τ_k . When there are *n* high-priority tasks and *m* low-priority tasks, the schedulability test is given by:

$$\frac{C_k}{D_k} + \frac{I_k}{D_k} \le 1$$

where I_k is a measure of all tasks interfering with the execution of τ_k :

$$I_{k} = \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n+m} \left\lceil \frac{D_{k}}{T_{l}} \right\rceil C_{l}\right) - \left\lceil \frac{D_{k}}{T_{k}} \right\rceil C_{k}$$
$$= \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n+m} \left\lceil \frac{D_{k}}{T_{l}} \right\rceil C_{l}\right) - C_{k}.$$

TABLE II TASK CONTROL BLOCK. A TASK CONTROL BLOCK IN PAVENET OS USES ONLY 40 BITS PER THREAD.

| name | size | meaning |
|------------|--------|-----------------|
| tid | 8 bit | thread ID |
| state | 8 bit | thread state |
| pc | 16 bit | program counter |
| sleep_time | 8 bit | time to wake |

TABLE III TASK CONTROL FUNCTIONS. PAVENET OS PROVIDES SEVEN SYSTEM CALLS FOR TASK MANAGEMENT.

| transaction | setting state |
|---------------------------|---|
| add task to scheduler | execute |
| yield control | execute |
| sleep time sec | sleep |
| wait signal | wait |
| let <i>pid</i> to wait | execute |
| let <i>pid</i> to execute | execute |
| let pid to be dead | execute |
| | transaction add task to scheduler yield control sleep <i>time</i> sec wait signal let <i>pid</i> to wait let <i>pid</i> to execute let <i>pid</i> to be dead |

This gives a schedulability constraint of:

$$\frac{C_k}{D_k} + \frac{I_k}{D_k} = \frac{C_k}{D_k} + \frac{\left(\sum_{l=1}^{n+m} \left| \frac{D_k}{T_l} \right| C_l\right) - C_k}{D_k} \\
= \sum_{l=1}^{n+m} \left\lceil \frac{D_k}{T_l} \right\rceil \frac{C_l}{D_k} \le 1.$$
(5)

If a task τ_k satisfies equation (5), the task τ_k is schedulable.

B. Best-effort Task Scheduler

PAVENET OS performs hard real-time tasks with preemption, as described in Section 3.1, and other tasks are performed with a best-effort task scheduler. The best-effort tasks include hop-by-hop routing, delay writing to flash memory, and replying to sensor data query.

We develop the best-effort task scheduler with the thread model and add three limitations for compactness and low overhead to the threads. First, these threads only switch context cooperatively. Cooperative task switching eliminates the need for conflict management and only preserves a program counter as CPU context. Second, these threads can only yield the top level of a function. Although we can yield anywhere in the function if the scheduler preserves the entire call stack, we do not use this approach because it consumes a great deal of memory and computation time. Third, these threads do not use stack memory. Because of this limitation, CPUs need not have a stack memory, and a heap memory is assigned to variables at compilation time. Because of these limitations, these threads forbid reentrance and duplication.

Table II represents a task control block on the best-effort task scheduler. tid is the thread identifier, which the scheduler allocates to a thread when the thread is created. state is the state of the thread. These threads have four states: dead, execute, sleep, and wait. These states are transited with task management functions as shown in Table III. pc is a program counter at the current executing thread. sleep_time represents a time to wake. PAVENET OS ticks jiffies, and the scheduler increments jiffies every 100 ms.

Table III lists the task management functions. Since PAVE-NET OS has the limitations mentioned above, tasks can be switched with very simple code:

```
void os_yield(void)
{
    pcounters[current_task] = TOS;
    asm("pop");
}
```

where TOS is the program counter.

C. Wireless Communication Stack

To reduce user fatigue caused by conflict management, we use a characteristic of wireless sensor nodes: most conflicts occur between communication layers. For example, when a physical layer receives a packet, the physical layer accesses a receive buffer in a media access control (MAC) layer, and the MAC layer also accesses the receive buffer to run a MAC protocol. PAVENET OS hides these exclusive controls in the wireless communication stack, and the user need not consider conflict management. The wireless communication stack also realizes modularity at each communication layer, and the user can easily develop various communication protocols according to application demands.

To efficiently exchange data among layers, PAVENET OS provides a buffer management mechanism called pbuf, which is a lightweight version of BSD mbuf. Since the pbuf assigns a small identifier to a buffer, each layer only needs to copy small identifiers. Pbuf also provides APIs, which hides exclusive controls for the buffer management in pbuf.

IV. EVALUATION

To evaluate PAVENET OS, we compare the precision of the hard real-time task scheduler, the compactness, the execution overhead, and the programming complexity to those of TinyOS 1.10 running on MICA2 [13]. PAVENET OS is implemented with the HI-TECH PICC-18 compiler and run on PAVENET modules.

Table IV lists the specifications of PAVENET modules and MICA2, and PAVENET modules are shown in Figure 1. PAVENET modules and MICA2 have the same level of

TABLE IV Evaluated sensor nodes

| | PAVENET module | MICA2 |
|------------------------|----------------|------------|
| CPU | PIC18LF4620 | ATmega128L |
| frequency | 20 MHz | 7.4 MHz |
| instruction per second | 5 MIPS | 7.4 MIPS |
| wireless module | CC1000 | CC1000 |
| wireless frequency | 315 MHz | 315 MHz |
| wireless modulation | FSK | FSK |
| power voltage | DC3V | DC3V |
| current (receiving) | 30 mA | 30 mA |
| current (sleep) | $0.3 \mu A$ | $30\mu A$ |
| communication rate | 38.4 kbps | 19.2 kbps |



Fig. 1. PAVENET modules

equipment. PAVENET modules have PIC18LF4620 as a CPU and TI CC1000 as a radio module. The operating frequency of the CPU is 20 MHz, but the number of instructions-per-second is 5 MIPS because PIC18LF4620 performs an instruction per four clock cycles. The wireless communication speed of PAVENET modules is 38.4 kbps, but we changed it to 19.2 kbps in order to allow fair comparison with MICA2. MICA2 has Atmel ATmega128 as a CPU and CC1000 as a radio module. The operating frequency of the CPU is 7.4 MHz, and the number of instructions per second is 7.4 MIPS because ATmega128 performs one instruction per one clock cycle. Although ATmega128 and PIC18LF4620 have different architectures, they target the same application area. We note that TinyOS can port to PAVENET modules, but PAVENET OS cannot port to MICA2 because of its CPUspecific architecture.

A. Hard Real-time Tasks

To evaluate hard real-time tasks, we assume tasks in earthquake monitoring [16], [22] as an actual application for wireless sensor networks. Earthquake monitoring requires sampling at precisely 100 Hz with radio communication because each sampling must be synchronized among sensor nodes.

Table V shows evaluation results. 'Sampling' is the sensor node performing only a 100-Hz sampling task, and 'Sampling + RF' is the sensor node performing a 100-Hz sampling task while receiving packets from another node, which sends a packet every 50 ms. All of the packet loss rates were 0%. 'TinyOS (default)' uses the Timer component [2] for sampling, and 'TinyOS (optimized)' uses the MicroTimer. The optimized TinyOS assumes a same setting with [15]. As mentioned in Section II-A, the use of the MicroTimer breaks simplicity of the event model. To sample at precisely 100 Hz, the sensor node must generate precise 10 ms intervals. We measured the intervals 2,000 times and obtained a maximum value, a minimum value, and a jitter.

The results indicate that PAVENET OS realizes 100-Hz sampling much more precisely than TinyOS, as shown in Table V. The default TinyOS cannot perform precise 100-Hz sampling, even if performing only the sampling task. The Timer component on TinyOS adjusts the timer firing timing between

TABLE V Hard real-time performance

| | PAVENET OS TinyOS (default) | | PAVENET OS | | TinyOS (default) | | Tin | yOS (optimize | ed) |
|---------------|-----------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------------|----------|-----------|---------------|----------|
| | max | min | jitter | max | min | jitter | max | min | jitter |
| Sampling | 10.001 ms | 10.000 ms | 0.001 ms | 9.764 ms | 9.763 ms | 0.001 ms | 10.003 ms | 10.000 ms | 0.003 ms |
| Sampling + RF | 10.001 ms | 10.000 ms | 0.001 ms | 11.735 ms | 7.794 ms | 3.941 ms | 10.062 ms | 10.000 ms | 0.062 ms |

TABLE VI Kernel footprint

| module | RAM (byte) | ROM(byte) |
|------------------------------|------------|-----------|
| task scheduler | 29 | 490 |
| wireless communication stack | 628 | 930 |
| total | 657 | 1,420 |

 TABLE VII

 FOOTPRINT SIZE ON THE SAMPLE APPLICATIONS

| | PAVENET OS | | Tin | yOS |
|------------------------|------------|--------|-----|--------|
| | RAM | ROM | RAM | ROM |
| Blink (byte) | 63 | 1,183 | 44 | 1,428 |
| BlinkTask (byte) | 64 | 1,271 | 45 | 1,452 |
| CntToLeds (byte) | 64 | 1,209 | 46 | 1,570 |
| CntToRfm (byte) | 676 | 11,336 | 388 | 9,918 |
| CntToLedsAndRfm (byte) | 676 | 11,366 | 388 | 10,096 |

9-10 ms. Therefore, when the default TinyOS samples with radio communication, the sampling error becomes significant because the adjustment is tumbled by the radio communication tasks. The optimized TinyOS can perform precise 100-Hz sampling at 0.003 ms or 0.03% jitter, if performing only the sampling task. The jitter becomes significant at 0.062 ms or 0.62%, when the optimized TinyOS performs the sampling task with radio communication. On the other hand, PAVENET OS can always sample at precisely 100 Hz, even with radio communication, and the jitter is much smaller at 0.001 ms or 0.01%.

B. Compactness

We show that PAVENET OS has compactness comparable to that of TinyOS. To evaluate the compactness, we measure the RAM sizes and ROM sizes of PAVENET OS and TinyOS.

First, we measure the footprint of the scheduler and the wireless communication stack, as shown in Table VI. The task scheduler occupies 29 bytes of RAM and 490 bytes of ROM when there are no connected libraries and the maximum number of tasks is five. As extra 5 bytes of RAM per task is required when the user needs to increase the maximum number of tasks. Typically, the thread model has a smaller number of tasks than the event model, because the user uses one task for a sequence of tasks in the thread model. According to [14], TinyOS requires 47 bytes of RAM and 473 bytes of ROM when there are no connected modules. Therefore, the PAVENET OS scheduler footprint is as small as that of TinyOS. The wireless communication stack consumes 628 bytes of RAM and 930 bytes of ROM. The consumed RAM

size is not small because the wireless communication layer has many buffers for receiving and sending in the physical layer, pbuf, and queues in the layers, which consume a great deal of memory.

Next, we measure the size of the footprint for sample applications. We implemented the applications provided by TinyOS, namely, Blink, BlinkTask, CntToLeds, CntToRfm, and CntToLedsAndRfm [1]. Blink and BlinkTask toggle an LED on the sensor node every second. The difference between Blink and BlinkTask is how the task is implemented. Blink implements timer handling and LED toggling in a single task. BlinkTask implements timer handling and LED toggling in two different tasks, and the timer handling task signals the LED toggling task. CntToLeds increments a counter and sends the counter value to the LEDs on the sensor node. CntToRfm increments a counter and sends the counter value via radio. CntToLedsAndRfm is the combination of CntToLeds and CntToRfm. CntToLedsAndRfm increments a counter, sends the counter value to LEDs on the sensor node, and sends the counter value to other sensor nodes via radio.

Table VII compares the RAM size and the ROM size for applications on PAVENET OS and TinyOS. The results indicate that PAVENET OS has comparable compactness to TinyOS. PAVENET OS uses more RAM and less ROM than TinyOS when the applications do not have radio communication, and the applications are Blink, BlinkTask, and CntToLeds. The reason for this is as follows. TinyOS divides one sequence of tasks to many small run-to-completion tasks. The division allows tasks to reuse the RAM area, but occupies more ROM area. On the other hand, PAVENET OS uses one task for a sequence of tasks, and this unification consumes RAM because tasks cannot reuse RAM. However, the unification saves ROM. When the applications have radio communication such as CntToRfm or CntToLedsAndRfm, PAVENET OS requires more RAM and more ROM than TinyOS because PAVENET OS has the wireless communication stack, as shown in Table VI.

C. Overhead

Figure 2 shows the task switch overhead for various tasks, and the tasks are the net task and the user task as best effort tasks, the mac task as a low-priority real-time task, and the phy task as a high-priority real-time task. The low-priority task can preempt best effort tasks in 66 cycles. The high-priority task can preempt best effort tasks or low-priority tasks in 23 cycles. When a best effort task yields the CPU, the best effort task switches to another best effort task in 92 cycles. Task switch overheads are relatively low. For example, MANTIS switches tasks in approximately 400 cycles [4], and TinyOS



Fig. 2. Task switch overhead

TABLE VIII AVERAGE EXECUTION CYCLES ON SAMPLE APPLICATIONS NOT INCLUDING RADIO COMMUNICATION

| | PAVENET OS | TinyOS |
|-------------------|------------|--------|
| Blink (cycle) | 8.5 | 19.5 |
| BlinkTask (cycle) | 134.5 | 123.5 |
| CntToLeds (cycle) | 147.0 | 155.5 |

switches tasks in 51 cycles [14].

PAVENET OS has low overhead, on the same level as TinyOS, when implementing the same sample applications provided by TinyOS. These applications are described in Section IV-B. First, we measured the average execution cycle from the timer being fired until the end of the sequence of tasks on *Blink*, *BlinkTask*, and *CntToLeds*, as shown in Table VIII. The average cycle was calculated from 100 execution cycles. We use "cycle" as the unit because PAVENET modules and MICA2 have different clock frequencies. In *Blink* and *CntToLeds*, PAVENET OS is slightly faster than TinyOS because TinyOS has small overhead at joints between modules. In *BlinkTask*, PAVENET OS is slightly slower than TinyOS and the result corresponds to the task switch overhead.

Second, we measured the average execution time from the timer being fired until the end of packet transmission on *CntToRfm* and *CntToLedsAndRfm*, as shown in Table IX. We use time, rather than cycles, as the unit because the execution time is strongly related to the packet length and communication overhead. Although PAVENET OS has the wireless communication stack and PAVENET modules run slower MIPS than TinyOS, the results are almost the same. The results represent the wireless communication stack on PAVENET OS has relatively low overhead.

V. RELATED RESEARCH

There are a number of operating systems for wireless sensor nodes, including TinyOS [14], [9], SOS [11], Contiki [5], Nano-RK [8], MANTIS [4], protothreads [6], and t-kernel [10]. Most of these operating systems are designed with the event model. As mentioned in Section II, the event model cannot support hard real-time tasks, and has high programming complexity.

TinyOS [14] is the de facto standard operating system for wireless sensor nodes. TinyOS was designed with the

TABLE IX AVERAGE EXECUTION TIMES ON SAMPLE APPLICATIONS INCLUDING RADIO COMMUNICATION

| | PAVENET OS | TinyOS |
|----------------------|------------|--------|
| CntToRfm (ms) | 17.0 | 17.1 |
| CntToLedsAndRfm (ms) | 16.9 | 17.2 |

event model, and so does not support hard real-time tasks and has high programming complexity. TinyOS attempts to reduce the programming complexity through a new eventdriven specific language called nesC [9], which enhances reusability of components. However, this solution means that the user has to learn a new language.

SOS [11] is another event model operating system. SOS has a loadable programming module feature, whereas TinyOS has a statically linked system image. The loadable module is lightweight and can be written in C. In SOS, the user can update modules after the sensor nodes are deployed. However, SOS cannot support hard real-time tasks and has high programming complexity.

Contiki [5] is an event model operating system. To reduce the programming complexity, as an option, Contiki can support time-sliced preemptive multithreading by assigning a memory stack to each thread. The memory assignment consumes computational resources. In addition, the threads destroy the simplicity of event models, e.g., the user must manage resource confliction. Moreover, Contiki cannot support hard real-time tasks even if the user uses the threads.

Protothreads [6] have an implementation similar to that of the cooperative task scheduler of PAVENET OS. Protothreads is an extension of the event model designed to reduce the programming complexity. The event model must divide a task into multiple run-to-completion functions. Protothreads provide a conditional blocking wait statement to the event model. The user can then write a program in a thread-like style. When using the conditional blocking wait, the user inserts PT_BEGIN and PT_END at the top and the bottom respectively, of the event handler. Protothreads reduce the programming complexity of the event model, but does not solve all of the problems in the event model. In particular, protothreads cannot support hard real-time tasks.

The Nano-RK[8] is the most closely related work to PAVENET OS. Nano-RK is a preemptive multitask operating system supporting real-time tasks. Additionally, Nano-RK is more portable than PAVENET OS. However, Nano-RK has more context switch overhead than PAVENET OS because Nano-RK has to preserve CPU context by software. Nano-RK needs several dozens of μ s for task switching whereas PAVENET OS needs several μ s.

Like PAVENET OS, MANTIS [4] is a thread model operating system. The difference between MANTIS and PAVENET OS is the implementation of the thread model. MANTIS uses time-sliced multithreading, whereas the threading of PAVENET OS is not time-sliced. To realize time-sliced multithreading, MANTIS assigns a stack memory for each task. Therefore, MANTIS consumes more RAM than PAVENET OS. Furthermore, MANTIS does not support hard real-time tasks.

T-kernel [10] is also a thread model operating system, and provides virtual memory and preemptive scheduling. Since the preemptive scheduling has 16 priority levels, the t-kernel might be able to support hard real-time tasks. However, [10] does not evaluate its schedulability, hard real-time performance, and overhead. In addition, t-kernel does not provide any mechanism to hide exclusive controls like the wireless communication stack on PAVENET OS.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present paper has described PAVENET OS, a compact hard real-time operating system for wireless sensor nodes. PAVENET OS can be implemented on the same amount of computational resources as TinyOS, and, unlike TinyOS, PAVENET OS supports hard real-time tasks and has low programming complexity. In addition, since a wireless communication stack is provided, the user need not consider the exclusive controls caused by hard real-time tasks. The results of the present study imply that hardware support by CPU can extend the functions of an operating system without a loss of compactness. For future wireless sensor nodes, it may be necessary to reconsider the balance between hardware and software.

We are currently working on the integration of a CPU design and an operating system design for ultra low-power wireless sensor networks[19]. Ekanayake et al. have already succeeded to implement an ultra low-power processor using software/hardware co-design based on the event model [7]. We believe that designing a CPU based on the thread model, such as a many-core design, also dramatically reduces energy consumption and covers a wider range of applications for future wireless sensor networks.

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