Low-Power Ultrasonic Wake-Up and Communication through Structural Elements

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ABSTRACT

Research in ultra-low energy communication for wireless sensor networks mostly focuses on radio frequency (RF). Simple, low-cost, and low-power approaches for acoustic communication are typically not explored, although in a variety of applications acoustic communication using ultrasonic waves is preferable to RF. In others, motes are already equipped with sensors and actuators for acoustics. In this work, we present a method to communicate between motes on structural elements using piezoelectric discs. We demonstrate that data rates up to one kilobit per second are achievable with only minimal additional hardware. At the same time, the energy consumption for communication is reduced compared with popular RF methods.

CSCS CONCEPTS

• Hardware → Sensor devices and platforms; Wireless devices; Signal processing systems.

ACM Reference Format:


1 INTRODUCTION

Typical applications for wireless sensor networks (WSN) have to work on a minimal energy budget, e.g., because they are supplied by energy-harvesting or because battery size and weight are restricted.

Communication is often one of the most energy-demanding tasks in such applications, and hence, energy-conserving communication techniques are crucial for WSNs.

Radio-Frequency (RF) based communication is the de-facto standard for WSNs, and various techniques have been investigated to reduce its energy demand, e.g., backscattering [8, 14] and wake-up radios [4] (WuR). However, in some cases, RF is not favorable or even impossible. Such applications include sensors placed inside a metallic housing or in underwater or underground environments. Communication through compartments of naval vessels [11] and sensors within pressurized containers [2] are well-known scenarios.

Another field of interest, however, is structural health monitoring, where motes need to exchange data to synchronize measurements or to transmit results. On structures like bridges, the devices may be shielded, e.g., by metallic beams. For nondestructive testing techniques such as vibro-acoustic modulation [3], these motes are equipped with sensors and actuators for ultrasonic waves already. If ultrasonic communication replaces RF, the cost and size of motes decrease by reusing the existing components. Further, metals exhibit excellent conductance of acoustic waves and form a waveguide. Therefore, it might even be more energy efficient to exploit resonance effects in metallic structures with acoustic communication instead of RF.

While the possibility to transmit data across thin steel plates was already demonstrated [2, 11], we investigate acoustic communication techniques for longer distances, e.g., along metallic beams, particularly for ultra-low energy applications. Therefore, we transfer the concept of WuR from RF to ultrasonic communication. A WuR almost eliminates the receiver’s need for idle listening without introducing additional delays as in duty-cycling. The total energy demand for communication can thereby be reduced by several orders of magnitude [4] while still providing sufficient quality of service. More specifically, our contributions are:

• Development of an acoustic WuR that consumes only a negligible amount of energy during idle listening.
• Presentation of a simple communication method based on WuRs, that uses bursts of ultrasonic waves in metals and supports selective wake-up and data transmission.
• Analysis of the capabilities of this method on different specimens and analysis of the influencing factors on the achievable data rate and reliability of communication.
• Theoretical analysis of the energy demand for acoustic communication and comparison to standard RF-based methods.

2 RELATED WORK

To the best of our knowledge, no prior work exists, that matches our approach. The ultrasonic communication techniques described in the literature differ in one or more of the following criteria: They employ a) a high bit rate communication, which is not suitable to low-power motes, or b) an asymmetric architecture, where either sender or receiver is a high-power device, or c) ultrasonic communication through a different type of channel, or d) don’t support wake-up.

The acoustic communication methods investigated in [2, 11] and [5] focus on communication across a metal wall, where a much simpler and shorter channel is encountered.
When using acoustic waves in metals, resonance effects are far more significant than in classical RF communication. The main reason for this is that the metallic structure acts as a waveguide. The waves are nearly entirely reflected at the interfaces between metal and the surrounding air due to the vast difference in acoustic impedance. Therefore, the choice of the frequency of the sinusoidal burst is strongly affecting the signal strength at the receiver.

Reverberation can be beneficial since it allows us to use a small excitation at the sender piezo and still generate a strong signal at the receiver due to the positive interference of reflections. The sending power required to generate a detectable signal at the receiver can thereby be reduced.

Figure 2 shows the voltage at the receiver piezo when a 300 µs burst with a frequency of 207 kHz is introduced into a specimen. We describe the detailed experiment setup in Section 4. Note that the voltage amplitude at the receiver is delayed significantly due to the positive interference of reflections. The sending power required to generate a detectable signal at the receiver can thereby be reduced.

The carrier frequency for the bursts resulting in the highest output voltage at the receiver piezo for a given input excitation depends on many factors: The piezo discs work most efficiently in a specific frequency range, but also the geometry and material of the structure play an important role. Finally, the placement of the piezo discs, i.e., the distance between the piezo discs and how they are attached to the surface, can also influence the resonant frequency. Therefore, we chose to empirically identify the resonant frequency for the combines system of the sender, specimen, and receiver by systematically sweeping over a range of frequencies and choosing the one yielding the highest peak amplitude at the receiver piezo.

3.2 Demodulator

The demodulator depicted in Fig. 3 has been developed to detect the sinusoidal bursts in the structure at the receiver. The voltage over the piezo disc is rectified using a bridge rectifier. On the occurrence of a burst, capacitor \( C_1 \) is charged. The capacitor \( C_{pd} \) and the Diode \( D_{pd} \) form a peak detector so that \( V_{pd} \) follows \( V_1 \) and poses a dynamic threshold. \( R_1 \) has been introduced to ensure quick discharge of \( C_1 \) when a burst is over so that the demodulator can detect the next burst, while \( R_{pd} \) should slowly discharge \( C_{pd} \) to lower the threshold when no bursts occur over time.
If $V_1$ is considerably higher than the threshold $V_{th}$, it is likely that a burst has occurred, while the other way round implies, that the voltage produced by the piezo is decreasing, hence a burst has just ended. In an idle state, $V_1$ and $V_{th}$ are close to equal. We use the STMicroelectronics TS882 comparator to generate a binary signal, our baseline, from these voltage differences. This comparator is the only active device in this circuit and hence has to be powered externally. However, its typical current consumption is only about 220 nA [13] and is therefore negligible compared to typical MCUs in sleep mode.

The parameters of this circuit need to be adjusted carefully to achieve an appropriate balance of sensibility, specificity, and transmission speed. Sensibility, in this case, means that the demodulator can already detect short and low-energy pulses, which reduces the necessary sender power. Specificity, on the other hand, means that the demodulator should not be triggered easily by noise. These two properties mainly depend on the capacitance of $C_1$. The demodulator has to return to a logic 0 quickly and reliably after detecting a burst so that it can distinguish the next pulse from the previous one at high data rates.

To find a good set of parameters, we performed a mix of simulation and experimental testing. We sent a series of short bursts through a steel beam, each 400 μs long, and observed $V_1$, $V_{th}$, and the comparator output with an oscilloscope. The results for our chosen set of parameters are shown in Fig. 4. Note that every spike of $V_1$ produces a distinguishable pulse that the comparator can detect. However, the pulses are not regular: When the charge on $C_{pd}$ is low at the start of a burst, the time until $V_1$ drops below $V_{th}$ is considerably longer than with a high $V_{th}$ at the start of a burst. The maximum pulse duration directly yields the minimum time between two adjacent pulses, so that they are distinguishable for the receiver. In this case, it must be at least 1 ms.

### 3.3 Challenges

In a real-world application, depending on the target structure, there might be many sources of noise introducing unintended bursts of energy into the structure. Therefore it is highly desirable to not only send a single burst as a wake-up signal but a predefined preamble, which reduces the amount of false-positive wake-ups. Selective wake-up can also be achieved by assigning identifiers to the nodes and sending the addressee’s identifier following the preamble. Then, the receiver can reduce overhearing to only a few hits.

Unfortunately, Fig. 2 shows that reverberation is considerable. While the first peak’s amplitude is about 700 mV, the first echo peak still reaches about 600 mV. The echoes persist within the specimen for several milliseconds after the burst has stopped, which leads to inter-symbol interference if the symbol period is not chosen long enough and therefore reduces the achievable data rate.

Reverberation can also be seen when inspecting $V_1$ in Fig. 4: directly after a burst, it is not just spiking once and then dropping smoothly. These echo spikes sometimes can—depending on the exact situation (pulse strength, charge level on $C_1$ and $C_{pd}$)—push $V_1$ over $V_{th}$ multiple times during one symbol time. Therefore, to obtain reliable communication, the time between subsequent sender pulses should be chosen long enough to avoid inter-symbol interference by echoes.

A typical technique to mitigate reverberation with OOK is frequency hopping, which would require multiple burst frequencies and the possibility to filter at the receiver. Because of the strong dependence of frequency on the received signal strength in this case, and because of the focus on simplicity, we did not consider frequency hopping here.

### 3.4 Communication Protocol

In Section 3, we have described how a short burst of an acoustic wave can be detected with low-power hardware so that a microcontroller can be woken up. Now, we will design a protocol, in
which several of these pulses are chained to transmit a message from one sensor node to another. Our primary requirement is a simple, low-power decoding mechanism. To achieve this simplicity in sender and receiver implementation, we have decided to employ OOK. Each symbol is a single bit, where a burst during the symbol time encodes a logic one, and the absence of a pulse encodes a logic zero.

The full transmission consists of a preamble, an address, and a payload (see Fig. 4). The receiver can use the preamble to distinguish a valid message from a pulse produced by other sources such as noise. After the preamble, a four-bit node address is sent to identify the receiver of the wake-up, followed by the payload.

Unlike in classical OOK, the duration of the pulses that are generated by the comparator varies. The initial pulses are rather long, but once \( C_{pd} \) is charged, the pulse duration shrinks. Additionally, multiple short pulses may appear during one symbol time due to echoes. Here, the timing of the rising edges can be controlled much more precisely by the sender than the timing of the falling edges. Therefore, a decoder implementation must synchronize the start of the symbol periods using the rising edges in the preamble.

### 4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

In this section, we show a setup to evaluate the presented communication method. We have conducted test runs showing bit error rates (BER) for different specimens and different parameters of the sender and receiver. We examined three specimens on which the piezo discs were attached to the surface using an epoxy adhesive. They differ in dimension, geometry, and material. The details are shown in Table 1. For both materials, we have measured the speed of sound. In aluminum, the signal travels with \( c = 4794 \text{ m s}^{-1} \), and in the steel specimen, it travels with \( c = 4538 \text{ m s}^{-1} \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec.</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Width</th>
<th>Height</th>
<th>Distance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Steel</td>
<td>1000 mm</td>
<td>20 mm</td>
<td>10 mm</td>
<td>885 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Aluminum</td>
<td>480 mm</td>
<td>71 mm</td>
<td>5 mm</td>
<td>374 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Aluminum</td>
<td>300 mm</td>
<td>20 mm</td>
<td>4 mm</td>
<td>61 mm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variable parameters are the symbol duration \( T_s \), the amplitude of the sinusoidal burst generated by the sender \( V_b \), which is given as peak voltage, the duration of bursts \( T_b \) and the frequency of the burst \( f_b \).

A decoder on an STM32F446 development board has been implemented, with an ARM Cortex M4. The decoder is in sleep mode until a GPIO interrupt from the bitline of the demodulator triggers a wake-up. At this moment, a timer is configured to trigger a regular interrupt after every \( T_s \). At the same time, rising and falling edges are counted also using interrupts. After each \( T_s \), the decoder performs a bit decision: The bit is a zero if no rising edges have been counted during this \( T_s \), or a one if one or more rising edges have been counted. Only when the first four bits—the preamble—have been detected successfully, the decoder reads a message of a fixed, pre-configured length. In our tests, we have arbitrarily chosen a packet length of 25 Byte, or 200 Bit, respectively.

We made two implementations of the sender. One implementation is also using an STM32F446 microcontroller as sender MCU. It precomputes the samples for a sine wave for the onboard digital to analog converter (DAC) with a given \( V_b \) and \( T_s \) and stores them in a buffer. The MCU can remain in sleep mode most of the time and only wakes up every \( T_s \). Then, if the current bit is a one, it uses the DAC to produce a burst and then goes back to sleep mode. Unfortunately, the DAC can not use its full voltage range with such high frequencies. Therefore, \( V_b \) is limited to lower amplitudes.

For evaluation purposes, we implemented an alternative sender using a USB function generator. The function generator has the advantage that it is more flexible and can produce a broader range of voltages and frequencies than the MCU-based sender.

#### 4.1 Communication Method

For assessment of the reliability and robustness of the proposed communication method, packets of fixed length with randomly generated content were sent through the metal specimen to the receiver with different sets of parameters. Later, we calculated the BER from the received messages. In case the receiver can not detect the preamble and hence does not record a message, all bits of the message are considered wrong. These missed packages lead in some cases to a BER higher than 0.5.

Expectations for the parameters are that an increase in \( V_b \) or an increase in burst duration \( T_b \) reduces BER since more energy is used to transmit the signal. Further, we would expect an increase in symbol duration \( T_s \) also to lower the BER because of reduced inter-symbol interference. The following evaluation has been made using the USB function generator as sender. However, we have also verified the same experiment with the MCU implementation of the sender within the feasible voltage range (\(< 1 \text{ V amplitude}\)). These results were consistent with the results from the function generator implementation.

#### 4.1.1 Influence of Sender Parameters

Figure 6 shows an evaluation of the BER in specimens 1, 2, and 3 at different \( V_b \), \( T_b \), and \( T_s \). Here, it can be seen, that a low burst voltage and a short burst duration (bottom left corner of each heatmap) lead, independent...
of the symbol time, to a BER close to one. This observation is not surprising since the bursts are so weak that the receiver can not even detect the preamble.

However, with a low $V_b = 0.5\, \text{V}$, BERs of zero can be achieved, if only the burst duration is increased. At the same time, with a short burst duration, a low BER can be achieved by increasing $V_b$. Note that further increasing $V_b$ or $T_b$ does not necessarily lead to a lower BER. Especially in case of a short symbol time (left column), it instead leads to a higher BER. Much likely, this is an effect of increased inter-symbol interference: The echoes also scale with the increasing energy of the original bursts. Hence, this effect diminishes with longer $T_b$, because then there is enough time after a burst for the echoes to fade out before the next symbol is sent.

These results show that when choosing a low data rate, ultrasonic communication is reasonably robust: Most combinations of burst voltages and durations work well and produce BERs close to or equal to zero. However, if a higher data rate is desired, $T_b$ must be small, $V_b$ and $T_b$ need to be chosen carefully to achieve reliable communication.

### 4.1.2 Influence of Specimen Dimensions

Figure 6 (top) shows the BERs for specimen 1. Compared to the other two specimens, BERs close to zero can not be achieved for $T_b = 1\, \text{ms}$. Also for $T_b = 1.5\, \text{ms}$, only very few parameter sets perform well. For specimen 1, the biggest one, we can also observe that a higher burst voltage or longer burst durations are needed for the receiver to detect the preamble at all.

At this time, we can not say with certainty, how specimen dimensions and data rates are related. The number of specimens under test vary in all three dimensions and even in the material. Since steel and aluminum exhibit different damping properties on acoustic waves, the material also influences reverberation. As a next step, a theoretical analysis of the types of the excited waves and their behavior in the specimen will allow more insight.

### 4.2 Energy Considerations

In this section, we present an estimation of the energy demand for acoustic communication and compare it to the energy demand of established techniques of RF communication. Since this work’s main goal is to explore the general feasibility and limitations of acoustic communication in the context of WSNs, our choice for the MCU, the STM32F446 was motivated by its ease of use and flexibility.

However, using the knowledge gained, we perform a theoretic estimation about the energy consumption with an ultra-low energy MCU that is sufficient to perform the sending and receiving tasks. A good option for an MCU is the PIC12LF1552 [7] also used in [4] for a similar task. This 8-bit MCU, clocked with 8 MHz, consumes $P_{MCU} = 36\, \text{nW}$ in sleep mode and $P_{MCU_{a}} = 432\, \mu\text{W}$.

For the estimation, we assume that a message with 64 bytes payload is sent from sender to receiver node. As sender parameters, we assume $T_p = 1\, \text{ms}$, $f_b = 200\, \text{kHz}$, $T_b = 100\, \mu\text{s}$, and $V_b = 1\, \text{V}$. With these parameters, the reception of a package including preamble takes $T_{pkg} = 516\, \text{ms}$.

#### 4.2.1 Burst Generation and Sending

During the generation of a burst, the power used to drive the piezo disc has to be considered. For the specimen and piezo discs in use, we have measured the current draw during a burst at $V_b = 1\, \text{V}$ and $f_b = 200\, \text{kHz}$ by measuring the voltage drop over a 10 $\Omega$ resistor in series with the piezo. The result is an effective current of $I_{p,b} = 605\, \mu\text{A}$ resulting in a power of $P_{p,b} = 428\, \mu\text{W}$.

Due to the mainly capacitive nature of piezos, $P_{p,b}$ increases quadratically with $V_b$. We observe in Section 4.1.1 that a stronger signal at the receiver can not only be generated by increasing the voltage at the sender, but also by increasing the burst duration. Since a prolonged burst does not change the power and increases the burst energy linear, it is preferable to increase burst duration rather than sending voltage to achieve a low energy demand.

The sender needs to be able to generate a sinusoidal burst, which requires, that the sender MCU has a DAC or an external function generator. In our implementation, we noticed that frequencies in the range of 200 kHz, which have shown to work best, can only be generated with a powerful MCU, that can generate several megasamples per second on its DAC. Such an MCU, however, needs much energy. A better option could be, to use a dedicated function generator IC, such as the Analog Devices AD9837, in combination with a low-power MCU.

According to its datasheet [6], the function generator uses about $P_{FG} = 8.5\, \text{mW}$ when active. In total, the energy demand for sending a standard package is then given by the energy demand in sleep
mode plus the energy used for burst generation. We assume the average packet to have equally distributed ones and zeros as bits. Therefore the number of bursts $N_b$ is half the number of bits per packet. This results in a sending energy per packet of

$$E_{\text{send}} = T_{\text{pkg}} P_{\text{MCU},a} + N_b T_{\text{b}} \cdot (P_{\text{FG}} + P_{\text{p,b}}) = 230 \, \mu J.$$  \hfill (1)

4.2.2 Receiver Requirements. The decoding of the received signal is relatively simple. No active sampling and no complex computations are involved. The receiver MCU can stay in a low-energy sleep mode while no message is transmitted and wait for a GPIO interrupt on the bitline. During the reception, it needs to count rising edges on the bitline and perform a bit decision based on the presence of rising edges every $T_c$. Both tasks can also be achieved using GPIO and timer interrupts, while the MCU remains in sleep mode most of the time.

In addition to the MCU power consumption, the comparator used in the demodulator, an STMicroelectronics TS882, typically needs $P_c = 396 \, \text{nW}$ [13].

When using the proposed ultra-low power MCU, even if we assume that the MCU is active during the whole reception time, the receiver would need

$$E_{\text{rec}} = T_{\text{pkg}} \cdot (P_{\text{MCU},a} + P_c) = 222 \, \mu J.$$  \hfill (2)

5 DISCUSSION

According to the measurements from [10], we calculated the raw energy demand of an off-the-shelf IEEE 802.15.4 transceiver at 0 dB sending power. The reception of an equally sized 64 bytes package would need 450 $\mu J$ while the transmission needs 366 $\mu J$. In sum this yields about twice as much energy demand as our estimation of what acoustic communication would need if implemented with low-power MCUs. Although the comparison is not entirely fair—the transceiver also performs higher layer protocol functions, e.g., CSMA—these results show that the energy demand of a prototype for acoustic communication is already in the same order of magnitude as highly optimized RF technology.

While this analysis shows only the energy need for the transmission of a single package, an immense advantage of the presented method is the wake-up functionality. In [4], an RF-based WuR has been implemented, and its energy consumption within a network has been analyzed. Compared to state-of-the-art duty cycling approaches, the energy consumed by the network could be reduced by several orders of magnitude, especially when the interval between messages is long ($> 10$ s). The same advantage over classical, duty-cycling based communication systems can be achieved using the presented acoustic WuR.

When it comes to data rate and latency, the presented method shows clear disadvantages over state-of-the-art RF standards. Based on the limitations of the speed of sound in metals and the low achievable data rates, the transmission of a 64 bytes package takes roughly 0.5 s, while in IEEE 802.15.4 the same packet can be transmitted in about 3.5 ms. The range can not be compared at this stage since tests on bigger structures yet have to be performed.

The prototype shows, that low-power acoustic communication is possible and therefore enables communication for WSNs in environments unsuitable to RF. Moreover, the results show that acoustic communication is a promising alternative to RF in WSNs with matching requirements on data rates and latencies. Further, it permits reuse of available vibration sensing and generating hardware for communication and hence enables cheaper and smaller motes with only minimal additional hardware needed for demodulation.

6 FUTURE WORK

Based on the positive results from the demonstrated prototype, the acoustic WuR triggers exciting new research opportunities to improve performance in terms of data rate and to research applicability in real-world structures.

Mitigating the effect of reverberation can increase the data rate. Software-based filtering results in much higher hardware and energy requirements and is therefore not considered. A promising option is to perform active noise canceling at the sender, as shown in [11]. This method, however, requires characterization of the specimen’s transfer function, which is then employed to calculate the optimal pulse for canceling the echoes.

Fortunately, in the targeted application scenario, the structure and the position of the sensor nodes do not change over time. Hence, optimal sender parameters and cancellation pulse need only be computed once during deployment. In the same way, also the best burst frequency or even multiple resonant burst frequencies can be precomputed. The latter case would even enable frequency hopping.

As demonstrated, the described method, if performed on ultralow energy MCUs, can be more efficient than standard RF techniques. However, we will implement a real solution using such devices to validate the theoretical advantages in a real-world experiment. Furthermore, we have produced the results presented in this work on rather simple geometries and limited dimensions of specimens. Tests on real-world structures have to be carried out to assess the method’s practical applicability. Further, the influence of noise, e.g., induced by traffic on a bridge, is yet unclear.

7 CONCLUSION

The motivation of this work was to explore the possibilities and boundaries of using acoustic communication through structural elements for wake-up and data transmission in WSNs. We have demonstrated, that a standard MCU using the on-chip DAC can generate an acoustic signal strong enough to wake up another node. We have shown that it is generally possible to compensate for a low sending voltage by sending longer bursts and by using resonance effects. We presented a demodulator with ultra-low power usage, that can wake up a microcontroller and demodulate a signal without actively sampling. Transmission of data with up to one kilobit per second through a steel beam over a distance of about one meter was achieved.

Further, we analyzed the influences of different factors, such as dimensions of the beam and sending voltage on the signal transmission and estimated the energy demand of the communication method, where we have shown, that the presented method can be implemented in a more energy-efficient way than standard IEEE 802.15.4 RF communication.

REFERENCES


