MINT 709, Capstone Project

High Intensity Light Emitting Diodes in an Underwater Environment

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Abstract

The <u>V</u>ictoria <u>E</u>xperimental <u>N</u>etwork <u>U</u>nder the <u>S</u>ea (VENUS) project will be deployed in three location by December 2006. This network provides telecommunication and internet access to the sea floor. It will be possible to connect a sensor network to a VENUS node in order to access data measured by the sensor network. An undersea sensor network could use acoustic or optical transmission. This paper investigates the use of high intensity light emitting diodes as a transmission source for such a network. The criteria tested are energy conservation, path loss, viewing angle and minimum pulse width. The paper also provides a discussion of penetration by light in turbid coastal waters and a discussion of the potential for mutipath fading by transmitted light in sea water.

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1. Introduction

Sensor networks have several applications including scientific research. Sensor networks are made up of several sensors units (sometimes referred to as motes). Each sensor must provide communications using transmission and reception, some signal processing capability and a protocol used to network the data between sensors. Historically these sensor networks provide wireless communication. Undersea sensor networks must use another form of communication. This communication may be either optical or acoustic.

1.1. The Venus Project

The <u>V</u>ictoria <u>E</u>xperimental <u>N</u>etwork <u>U</u>nder the <u>S</u>ea (VENUS) provides a means of monitoring the ocean environment. It provides telecommunications and internet access to instruments on the ocean floor. [1] Conceived and funded in 2001, the VENUS project is intended to provide real time access to data on the sea floor.



Figure 1 Locations of Project Venus Arrays [1]

By December 2006 project Venus will be deployed in three locations – the Saanich Inlet, the Strait of Georgia and the Fraser Delta, as shown in Figure 1 above. Each array has five elements: [2]

- o Arrays of scientific instruments and vertical profiling instrument packages;
- Electro-optical cables on the sea floor;
- Shore station interfaces for power and two-way communication to the instruments;
- A data management, archive and distribution centre;
- An operations centre to monitor and control all subsea and shore station elements.



Figure 2 The Electro-Optical Cable [1]

The instruments (this could be a sensor network) are connected to a node. The node, as shown in Figure 3, in turn is interfaced to the main cable which provides power and fibre optic connectivity to the surface.



Figure 3 VENUS Node [1]

Figure 4 is a graphical representation of the VENUS System. Below the surface the instrument package is interfaced to the VENUS Node through the Scientific Instrument Interface Module (SIIM). The VENUS Node is connected to the main cable for power and to allow the flow of data to the surface. The Network operations centre then oversees the flow of data to the Data Management and Archive system and out to the internet.



Figure 4 The Venus Architecture [1]

As previously stated, the instrument package could be an ad-hoc sensor network in which one node (not to be confused with the VENUS Node) of the network could be cabled to the VENUS Node.

1.2. Sensor Networks and Their Weaknesses

"A sensor network is a computer network of many, spatially distributed devices using sensors to monitor conditions at different locations, such as temperature, sound, vibration, pressure, motion or pollutants. Usually these devices are small and inexpensive, so that they can be produced and deployed in large numbers, and so their resources in terms of energy, memory, computational speed and bandwidth are severely constrained. Each device is equipped with a radio transceiver, a small microcontroller, and an energy source, usually a battery. The devices use each other to transport data to a monitoring computer."[3]

The sensor nework, in Figure 5 consists of a number of nodes (sometimes referred to as motes) that may be deployed from an airplane, a boat, or any number of such conveyances. The nodes in the sensor field then collect data and communicate with each other using an appropriate protocol. The network is infracstuctureless and uses multiple hops to route the data through the sink to the task manager. When deployed in conjunction with the VENUS project this would be achieved through the VENUS Node.



Figure 5 A Sensor Network.[4]

The failure of a single node should not result in the failure of the sensor network. The network should adapt by rerouting the data through other sensor nodes, often requiring more hops.

A sensor node is a Single Board Computer (SBC) that must include:

- Processing and data storage;
- Data sensing capability, and perhaps analog-to-digital conversion (ADC);
- A transceiver;
- An on board power source; [4]

Figure 6 is a block diagram depiction of a sensor network node.



Figure 6 Block diagram of a sensor network node. [4]

The processing and data storage function contains the communications protocol used for the scattered network. A second processor, often a microcontroller, may be used to process some of the data prior to transmission.

The data sensing function is the scientific package. It is used to gather the required observed data. As discussed previously a microcontroller may contain all of the functionality needed for this task.

The transceiver is used to communicate with other nodes in the network. Typically sensor networks make use of Radio Frequency (RF) communications; however, this project will focus on optical communications beneath the water.

The power source must be small and as a result will have a limited life span. It is the power source that is the most critical point of failure. Once the sensor nodes have been deployed it is not practical to replace the power source (usually a battery) when failure occurs. When the power source in a node fails the node is lost to the network. Power consumption may be reduced by using low power components and by choosing power-aware protocols and algorithms. Power is consumed by the data sensing devices, the processor and communications [4]. This project will focus on communications.

2. Optical Penetration in Turbid Saline Water

Many factors, including particulate matter, composition, salinity, temperature, and others, affect the transmission of light through water. The attenuation coefficient $K(\lambda)$ is a measure of the light loss as a result of the combined effects of absorption and scattering [5]. The attenuation coefficient is measured in units of m⁻¹ (or cm⁻¹). This coefficient is a function of the wavelength (λ) of the light being transmitted. "*The coefficient K depends mainly on the absorption of light in water and to a lesser extent on scattering*."[6]

A simple observation of the colour of the ocean at various locations around the world leads one to the sense that visible light in the violet (380 nm < λ < 455 nm), blue (455nm < λ < 492nm) and green (492nm < λ < 577nm) spectrum will make the best penetration.

Absorption occurs when radiant energy is converted to some other form of energy, such as heat or chemical energy. Scattering occurs when the direction of the photon transport is changed without changing the wavelength. [5].

Several studies have been undertaken to determine the irradiant energy of light as it penetrates downward into seawater. This may be calculated as [7]:

 $E_0(z) = E_0(0)e^{-Kz}$ (1) $E_0(z) \text{ is the irradiance at depth } z.$ z is the depth in the water. $E_0(0) \text{ is the irradiance at the surface}$ K is the attenuation coefficient. The attenuation coefficient may be calculated using [8]:

$$K(\lambda) = \frac{-\ln\{E_d(\lambda, z_1)/E_d(\lambda, z_2)\}}{z_2 - z_1}$$
(2)

 $K(\lambda)$ is the attenuation coefficient at wavelength λ . $E_d(\lambda, z)$ is the downward irradiance at wavelength λ and depth z.

The attenuation coefficient will vary depending on water conditions. Turbid coastal waters are much different than clear ocean water. In Figure 7, values of attenuation coefficients may be estimated. For example, given a wavelength of 490 nm, the attenuation coefficient in clear ocean water is approximately 0.02 m^{-1} , while in turbid coastal water at the same wavelength the attenuation coefficient is approximately 0.65.



Attenuation Coefficient $K(\lambda)$ as a Function of wavelength (λ) in Clear Ocean Water and in Turbid Coastal Water [6]

There is a correlation between K(490) and K(λ), i.e., the attenuation coefficient at 490 nm and the attenuation coefficient at other wavelengths. These attenuation coefficients may be calculated using [8]:

K(412) = 1.441K(490) + 0.022	$\gamma^{2} = 0.991$	(3)
K(443) = 1.364K(490) + .0007	$\gamma^2 = 0.997$	(4)
K(510) = 0.897K(490) + 0.011	$\gamma^{2} = 0.999$	(5)
K(555) = 0.629K(490) + 0.046	$\gamma^{2} = 0.985$	(6)
K(665) = 0.627K(490) + 0.404	$\gamma^{2} = 0.956$	(7)

The best correlation in the above calculations occurs for $\lambda = 510$ nm, while for $\lambda = 665$ nm the poorest correlation is indicated.

Based on the previous estimate of $K(490) = 0.65 \text{ m}^{-1}$ and applying equations (1) to (7), Table 1 is a summary of attenuation coefficients and percent irradiance from the initial transmission location at distances of 0.01m, 0.05m, 0.1 m, 0.5m,1m, 5m and 10m.

Tooution ut distances indicated.								
Wavelength (nm)	Attenuation Coefficient (m ⁻¹)	Percent Irradiance at distances shown						
		0.01m	0.05m	0.1m	0.5m	1m	5m	10m
412	0.95865	99.05	95.32	90.86	61.92	38.34	0.83	0.007
443	0.8873	99.12	95.66	91.51	64.17	41.18	1.18	0.014
409	0.65	99.35	96.80	93.71	72.25	52.20	3.88	0.15
510	0.59405	99.41	97.07	94.23	74.30	55.21	5.13	0.26
555	0.45485	99.55	97.75	95.55	79.66	63.45	10.29	1.06
665	0.81155	99.19	96.02	92.21	66.64	44.41	1.73	0.03

Table1 Attenuation coefficients and percent irradiance from the initial transmission location at distances indicated.

3. Multipath Fading

Is multipath fading a potential consideration for an optical undersea sensor network? Before addressing this question, a review of the concept of multipath fading is in order.

Multipath fading is a problem encountered in mobile communication environments. The phenomenon of multipath propagation results from signals following different paths from a transmitter to a receiver. Signals may follow a line of sight path (LOS), or they may follow a path resulting from reflection, or from diffraction or due to scattering.

Reflection occurs when a signal encounters an object that is large compared to its wavelength. In mobile radio applications this could be a large object such as the side of a building. Reflected waves undergo a 180° phase shift.

Diffraction occurs in mobile communication when a signal encounters an edge of a large object. The signal will then propagate in a different direction. A positive effect of diffraction is that a signal can be successfully sent from a transmitter to a receiver even if there is no line of sight path.

Scattering occurs when an object that is in the order of a wavelength of the signal is encountered. The result is that the signal may be scattered into several smaller signal following different paths.

The negative impact of multipath propagation is that the received signal may be affected by the simultaneous arrival of signals that may have followed different paths. Two signals arriving, one as a result of a reflected path and the other following a line of sight may destructively interfere with each other as the reflected wave undergoes a 180° phase shift. Also, due to the differing propagation times for multiple paths, signal may overlap causing intersymbol interference (ISI). ISI may effect both the amplitude of the received and combined pulse, as well as the pulse width of that received pulse.

"When a signal leaves the transmitting antenna, it gets reflected, scattered, diffracted, or refracted by various structures in its path."[10] The presence of these obstacles may result in signal loss or fluctuation. If the signal loss is deterministic in nature and becomes random in time and space then it may be described in terms of fading. [10] "Fading may described in terms of the primary cause (multipath or Doppler), the statistical distribution of the received envelop (Rayleigh, Rician or lognormal), the duration of fading (long-term of short term), or fast versus slow fading."[10]

"In free-space optical communications links, atmospheric turbulence causes fluctuations in both the intensity and the phase of the received light signal impairing link performance. The turbulence induced fading impairs free-space optical links in much the same way that flat multipath fading impairs radiofrequency wireless links."[11] Inhomogeneities in the temperature and and pressure of the atmosphere lead to variations in the refractive index along the transmission path.

It is reasonable to assume that the sea bottom is not uniformly flat. In addition there is sea life (including reefs). These obstructions could easily present reflection and diffraction to the signal path within an optical sensor network. In addition, variations in temperature and turbulence within the water may result in similar effects to the observed free-space atmospheric turbulence effects that have been previously discussed. In addition, the turbidity of the sea water will likely result in scattering of the optical signal.

Diffraction of light can be caused by acoustic waves. This was first predicted by Brillouin in 1921. [12] Acoustic waves are accompanied by waves of refractive index variations. Light passing through these waves will be diffracted. Again, this could result in a similar effect to fading.

4. Performance

In order for an optical undersea network to be viable, the transmitting devices (Light Emitting Diodes) must be able to operate in the presented environment. The criteria for these diodes are:

- The electrical power needed to power each sensor unit is limited, and once depleted cannot practically be replaced. As a result, the power used by the light emitting diode must be kept as small as possible.
- It is not possible to predict the locations of each sensor unit in the network. Therefore, it is not possible to accurately aim the diodes at the detectors in other sensor units. To overcome this problem the viewing angle from the lens of the diode must be as wide as possible.
- The range of transmission will dictate how scattered the network can be. The irradiance of each diode must be as high as possible in order to keep the range as large as possible.
- The data transmitted by each sensor unit will be digitally encrypted (ie., pulses). It is important to understand the minimum pulse width available from each diode.

4.1. Performance Tests

The equipment used for performance testing is shown in Figure 8.



Figure 8 Test Equipment for Performance Testing of the Light Emitting Diodes

Key to the measurement is the Newport Model 841-P-USP virtual optical power meter. This was, conjunction with the 818 photodetector was used for irradiance (optical power) measurements. The default wavelength for the meter is 960 nm, however the desired wavelength may be chosen as a menu setting. This selection provides a correction factor to the power meter software. The 841-P-USP power meter together with the 818 photodetector is shown in Figure 9.



Figure 9 Newport Model 841-P-USP Virtual Power Meter and Model 818 Photodetector

4.1.1. LED Input Power versus Irradiant Output Power

In order to determine the lowest input power needed to illuminate the diodes, the irradiance of the diodes were measured as the current through the diodes was reduced. The results were plotted both as Output Power (Irradiance) versus Diode Current and as dB (using the output power at maximum current as a reference) versus Diode Current. Included in the plot was Diode Voltage versus Diode Current, and the "Dropout Current" (the current level at which the diode is no longer conducting sufficient current to illuminate). An example of the plots is shown in Figure 10(a). Three maximum diode currents were used as per the specifications of the diodes. These were 20 mA, 120 mA and 350 mA. Figure 10(b) shows the schematic diagram of the circuit used to obtain these results. Note that the value of R was 1 k Ω for 20 mA maximum current, 11 Ω for a maximum current of 120 mA and 3.9 Ω for a maximum current of 350 mA.



Figure 10

(a) Example of Diode Irradiance versus Diode Current Graph, (b) Schematic Diagram of the Circuit used to obtain the Diode Irradiance versus Diode Current Data

4.1.2. Diode Path Loss

The determination of path loss for each diode was achieved by setting the diode current to a maximum value and measuring the irradiance at distances from the diode. The result was plotted in two forms; Output Power versus Distance and dB (using the output power directly in front of the diode lens as a reference) versus Distance. The circuits used to perform these measurements are the same as those shown in Figure 10(b). Examples of these graphs are shown in Figure 11(a) and 11(b).



Figure 11

(a) Example of Diode Irradiance (in Watts) versus Distance from the Diode, (b)Example of Diode Irradiance (measured in dB referenced to irradiant power at the lens of the diode) versus Distance from the Lens of the Diode

4.1.3. Diode Irradiant Output Power over a Viewing Angle

Using the data gathered in the path loss measurements, a distance from the diodes was chosen so that the irradiant power was large enough to have minimal interference from ambient light conditions. For each diode the irradiant power was measured, then at progressively larger angles from the lens the distance from the lens was measured where the same power level was achieved. The same circuit as that shown in Figure 10(a) was used for these measurements. The result was then graphed as a polar graph to show the transmission lobe. Figure 12 shows an example of the graph resulting from these measurements. The wider the lobe, the greater the viewing angle for each diode.



Figure 12 Example of a Graph Showing Distance from the Diode at Increasing Angles in Order to Measure a Constant Value of Irradiant Power

4.1.4. Diode Minimum Pulse Width

Measurement of minimum pulse width for the Light Emitting Diodes was accomplished using the circuits shown in Figure 13. For low current LED's the circuit in Figure 13(a) was used. For higher currents a transistor was used, as shown in Figure 13 (b), as a driver in order to avoid loading of the function generator with an internal impedance was 50 Ohms. The input pulse and resulting pulse across the diodes was measured using a Tektronix model TDS210 Oscilloscope. This Oscilloscope has a USB interface to the computer. The computer was loaded with Wavestar for Oscilloscopes software which allowed for the capture of the waveforms.



Figure 13

 (a) Schematic Diagram of the Circuit used for Minimum Pulse Width Measurements for Low Current Diodes, (b) Schematic Diagram of the Circuit used for Minimum Pulse Width Measurements for High Current Diodes

Figure 14 shows an example of the captured input pulse (a) and the resulting output pulse (b). In addition the Wavestar software allows for the capture, in tabular form, of the details about any measurement. This was used for further data about the diode waveform. Figure 15 is an example of this table which is associated with the waveform shown in Figure 14 (b).



Figure 14 (a) Example of an Input Pulse to a Diode Circuit, (b) Example of a Diode Pulse

	🚽 🗸 S210].Data.Waveforms.C				
Measurement Method	Auto	matic			
Measurement	Value	Units			
Frequency	N/A	N/A			
Pos. Pulse Width	124.67n	S			
Neg. Pulse Width	N/A	N/A			
Rise Time	28.133n	S			
Fall Time	154.60n	S			
Pos. Duty Cycle	N/A	N/A			
Neg. Duty Cycle	N/A	N/A			
Pos. Overshoot	0.0000	%			
Neg. Overshoot	0.0000	%			
Peak to Peak	2.9600	V			
Amplitude	2.9600	V			
High	3.0400	V			
Low	80.000m	V			
Maximum	3.0400	V			
Minimum	80.000m	V			
Mean	311.29m	V			
Cycle Mean	N/A	N/A			
RMS	473.43m	V			
BurstWidth	124.67n	S			
Period	N/A	N/A			
Energy	1.1202u				
CEnergy	N/A	N/A			
ACRMS	356.64m	V			
CRMS	N/A	N/A			

Figure 15 Details About the Waveform Shown in Figure 14(b)

The pulse width was reduced and the irradiant power monitored just before dropout occurred. The pulse width and irradiant power was then recorded.

4.2. Test Results

4.2.1. OVLFG3C7 [13]

Specifications

Colour	Wavelength	Luminou	is Inten	sity (Typ.)	Viewing Angle
	(nm)	mcd	@	If(mA)	(X2 Theta)
Green	525	5200		20	30 degrees



Using the Power Measured at Ten Centimeters From the OVLFG3C7 LED at Zero Degrees, This is a Plot of the Distance Required to Measure the Same Power Level at Angles around the LED





	📝 S210].Data.Waveforms.C			
Measurement Method	Auto	matic		
Measurement	Value	Units		
Frequency	N/A	N/A		
Pos. Pulse Width	124.67n	S		
Neg. Pulse Width	N/A	N/A		
Rise Time	28.133n	S		
Fall Time	154.60n	S		
Pos. Duty Cycle	N/A	N/A		
Neg. Duty Cycle	N/A	N/A		
Pos. Overshoot	0.0000	%		
Neg. Overshoot	0.0000	%		
Peak to Peak	2.9600	V		
Amplitude	2.9600	V		
High	3.0400	V		
Low	80.000m	V		
Maximum	3.0400	V		
Minimum	80.000m	V		
Mean	311.29m	V		
Cycle Mean	N/A	N/A		
RMS	473.43m	V		
BurstWidth	124.67n	S		
Period	N/A	N/A		
Energy	1.1202u			
CEnergy	N/A	N/A		
ACRMS	356.64m	V		
CRMS	N/A	N/A		

4.2.2. OVLGCOC6B9 [13]

Specifications

Colour	Wavelength	Luminous Intensity (Typ.)			Viewing Angle	
	(nm)	mcd	@	If(mA)	(X2 Theta)	
Blue-Green	505	8000		20	6 degrees	





Using the Power Measured at Ten Centimeters From the OVLGCOC6B9 LED at Zero Degrees, This is a Plot of the Distance Required to Measure the Same Power Level at Angles around the LED





4.2.3. OVLFB3C7 [13]





4.2.4. 67-1755-ND [13]





4.2.5. 67-1115-ND [13]





4.2.6. SSL-DSP5093USBC [13]





4.2.7. SSL-DSP5093UPGC [13]





4.2.8. RL5-V1015 [14]





4.2.9. RL5-B4630 [14]



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4.2.10. RL5-B5515 [14]



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4.2.11. RL5-A7032 [14]



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4.2.12. RL5-G7532 [14]



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4.2.13. RL5-G8045 [14]





4.2.14. 475-1126-1-ND [13]



Pos. Duty Cycle

Neg. Duty Cycle

Pos. Overshoot

Neg. Overshoot

Peak to Peak

Amplitude

Maximum

Minimum

BurstWidth

Mean Cycle Mean

RMS

Period

Energy

CEnergy

ACRMS

CRMS

High

Low



878.89m

121.11m

0.0000

0.0000

1.8800

1.8800

3.3200

1.4400

3.3200

1.4400

2.2420

2.7665

2.2586

194.00n

90.000n

5.0994u

701.12n

270.08m

2.7911

%

%

%

%

V

V

V

V

V

V

V

V

V

S

S

V

 ∇

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4.2.15. 475-1198-1-ND [13]



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4.2.16. 475-1199-1-ND [13]

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Automatic		
Value	Units	
11.308M	Hz	
74.800n	S	
13.633n	S	
11.200n	S	
N/A	N/A	
845.83m	%	
154.17m	%	
0.0000	%	
0.0000	%	
2.2000	V	
2.2000	\vee	
2.8800	V	
680.00m	V	
2.8800	V	
680.00m	V	
1.4531	V	
2.3209	\vee	
1.5039	V	
105.80n	S	
88.433n	S	
2.2610u		
497.84n		
386.81m	V	
2.3727	V	
	Auto Value 11.308M 74.800n 13.633n 11.200n N/A 845.83m 154.17m 0.0000 2.2000 2.2000 2.2000 2.8800 680.00m 1.4531 2.3209 1.5039 105.80n 88.433n 2.2610u 497.84n 386.81m 2.3727	

4.2.17. 441-1089-ND [13]

4.2.18. 441-1102-ND [13]

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4.2.19. 441-1092-ND [13]

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Period

Energy

CEnergy

ACRMS

CRMS

79.200n

5.9101u 579.04n

135.99m

2.7039

S

V

V

4.2.20. 441-1099-ND [13]

20099080

23

120

4.3. Performance Analysis

The most important performance specification for sensor networks is power conservation. The measure of input current versus irradiant power is the measure of the LED's use of energy. The diode with part number RL5-B4630 exhibited the highest irradiant power (15 mW) at maximum current of 20 mA. The diode with part number 475-1198-1-ND has a rated maximum current of 350 mA (at which current the irradiant power was 113 mW). This would appear to be a problem with respect to power conservation, however, with it's input current reduced to 20 mA, the irradiant power is still 15 mW (the same as for RL5-B4630). 475-1198-1-ND has an advantage over RL5-B4630 in that its viewing angle is much wider (120° as compared to 30°) so this diode, in fact, provides superior characteristics for both power conservation and viewing angle. The wavelength of 475-1198-1-ND is 465 nm (blue light) which has an attenuation coefficient of approximately 0.75 m⁻¹ in turbulent coastal waters (see Figure 7). This is close to the stated best attenuation coefficient K(490).

Path loss was higher than expected for all diodes. In many cases a 3 dB (half power) drop occurred in the first centimetre. Also in all cases irradiance had dropped to a level near ambient conditions at 35 cm making measurements very difficult beyond this range. These measurements were made in air. It is expected that in water, in particular in turbid sea water, that path loss would be even greater. The percent of irradiated power values in Table 1 could be used as a correction factor to predict an even greater loss. CSAIL [15] has deployed an undersea optical sensor network that claims a 320 kbps transmission rate optical communication over a maximum 2.2 m range.

The minimum pulse width measured from the diodes was approximately 80 ns for the low current diodes. The higher current diodes (including 475-1198-1-ND) operated to pulse widths as low as 20 ns. The minimum pulse width may have been even smaller for the high current diodes, however loading effects and limitations of the driving circuits seemed to interfere with the measurements.

5. Conclusions

Light emitting diodes working in the visible spectrum between violet and green may be used as transmitters for an undersea optical sensor network. These diodes must penetrate the water over a suitable distance in order to communicate with other sensor nodes. The diodes tested in this project were able to penetrate air over a range of approximately 35 cm. This distance is unlikely to be sufficient. A further search for light emitting diodes capable of longer range communication is warranted.

The important criterion of power conservation was investigated. Although the lower current diodes would appear to be the best choice in order to conserve power, in fact the higher current diodes used at lower power levels outperformed the low

current diodes. These high current diodes had wider viewing angles, better penetration and could be operated at narrower pulse widths.

6. **Recommendations**

The following are recommendations for further research:

- Detection devices and detection circuits need to be investigated. Detection devices such as PIN diodes, Avalanche Photo Detection diodes (APD's) and LED's may be suitable as detection devices.
- Transmitting high intensity light from the sea bed may have environmental implications. Such light may be hazardous to under sea life including fish, reefs or even divers. An environmental impact study would help to determine what, if any, negative impact may result from deployment of such a sensor network.
- It would be valuable to determine if fading is an issue. The effects of reflection, diffraction, refraction and scattering should be measured. In addition, an investigation of acoustic effects on optical transmission should be undertaken.
- A suitable MAC layer protocol needs to be determined. This should be an energy conservation protocol. Such protocols currently exist. It is important to investigate these protocol in order to determine if an appropriate protocol currently exist or if a new protocol needs to be developed for this application.

7. References

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DigiKey	www.ca.	digikey.co	m				
Part Number	Colour	Wavelength (mm)	Vf(V) typ	lf(mA) max	lo(mcd)		Viewing Angle (2xTheta)
67-1115-ND	Sup. Yellow	590	2.1	30		1000	30
67-1755-ND	Green	502	3.5	25	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1500	30
Part Number	Colour	Wavelength (mm)	Vf(V) min	LED Current (@1.5V)	Typ mcd @ 2V		Viewing Angle (2xTheta)
SSL-DSP5093UPGC							
Lumex Part No.	Green	525	1.5	2.5	3	3500	30
SSL-DSP5093USBC							
Lumex Part No.	Blue	470	1.5	2.5	2	2500	30
Part Number	Colour	Wavelength	Vf(V)	lf (mA) max	lo (mcd)		Viewing Angle
	Green	525	34	120		6.000	10
441-1003-ND	Blue	470	3.4	120	1	2 000	10
441-1099-ND	Green	525	3.4	120	1600		100
441-1102-ND	Blue	470	3.4	120	1600		100
				lf			
Part Number	Colour	Wavelength (mm)	Vf(V)	(mA)	Typ. mcd @ Current	(mA)	Viewing Angle (2xTheta)
475-1126-1-ND	True Green	520	3.8	500	10.000	350	120
475-1198-1-ND	Blue	465	3.8	500	2700	350	120
475-1199-1-ND	Verde Green	501	3.8	500	9000	350	120
Part Number	Colour	Wavelength (mm)			Luminous Intensity (Typ.) mcd @lf(mA)		Viewing Angle (2xTheta)
OVLFB3C7 TT Electronics Part No.	Blue	470			1350	20	30
OVLFG3C7 TT Electronics Part No.	Green	525			5200	20	30
OVLGCOC6B9	Plue Green	EOE			8000	20	6

Appendix A.	Light I	Emitting	Diodes	Investigated

Superbright LEDs Inc		www.superbrightleds.com				
Part Number	Colour	Luminous Intensity (mcd)	Viewing Angle	Wave Length (nm)		
RL5-B4630	Blue	4600	30	472		
RL5-B5515	Blue	5500	15	470		
RL5-G8045	Green	8000	45	525		
RL5-G7532	Green	7500	32	525		
RL5-A7032	Aqua	7000	32	507		
RL5-V1015	Violet	1000	15	420		

Appendix B. Circuit Designs

Figure 16 Unbuffered LED Circuit

Buffered LED Circuit

For the buffered diode driver circuit shown in Figure 17:

$$R_{C} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{Diode} - V_{CE}(SAT)}{I_{Diode}}$$

$$Use V_{CE}(SAT) = 0.3V$$

$$I_{B} = \frac{I_{Diode}}{\beta_{SAT}}$$

$$Use \beta_{SAT} = 50$$

$$R_{B} = \frac{V_{IN} - V_{BE}}{I_{B}}$$

$$Use V_{BE} = 0.7V, V_{IN} = 5V$$