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# Introduction

This document has been prepared by group 732. It's purpose is to document the design of the hardware to the On Board Computer system (OBC) of the Cubesat. This document contains the detailed plans on how to build the hardware, and also algorithms for the driver software.

# OBC Hardware

**Description:** This document describes how the OBC has been designed. First an introduction is made to what is to be done, then requirements for the OBC is investigated. A description of how components were chosen is included hereafter. The design includes besides the hardware of the computer system, also address decoding mechanism, communication with payload which includes DMA for this and also hardware level descriptions on several special features like flashing memory and taking picture.

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# Chapter 1

## OBC Hardware documentation

### 1.1 Word abbreviation

ACS	Attitude Control System
$\overline{BHE}$	Byte High Enable
CCL	Camera Control Unit
CS	Chip Select
MCU	Micro Controller Unit
NMI	Non Maskerale Interrupt
DCL	Decoding Control Logic
I <sup>2</sup> C	Interconnected Integrated Circuit
$\overline{LB}$	Lower Byte
OBC	On Board Computer
OS	Operating System
OTP	One Time Programmable
PROM	Programmable ROM
PSU	Power Supply Unit
RAM	Random Access Memory
ROM	Read Only Memory
$\overline{UB}$	Upper byte
PCB	Printed circuit Board
DMA	Direct Memory Access
CDH	Control Data Handling

Table 1.1: List of words.

## 1.2 Determination of OBC HW functions

In order to desing the HW (hardware) of the OBC (On Board Computer), it is vital to determine its HW functions. The OBC HW consists of a minimum computer system; a main processor, RAM, PROM, flash memory, I<sup>2</sup>C bus interface and external logic to control the memory modules and the camera.

The main function of the OBC HW is to create a physical platform for the data handling system and ACS (Attitude Control System), is also to create an interface to the other subsystems in the satellite. The OBC hardware should, beside being capable of handling the I<sup>2</sup>C bus, also be capable of :

1. Reading and writing to RAM (4MB).
2. Read PROM and read/write to flash memory (256kB).
3. Addressing and decoding for selection of chips.
4. Bus arbitration on parallel bus, when grabbing data from camera.
5. Automatic reset of MCU if latchup or other single upset event has stopped MCU.

## 1.3 Overview of Cubesat hardware architecture

Before explaining how the OBC works in detail, an overview of the hardware architecture of the Cubesat is explained. A simplified model can be seen in figure 1.1.

As it can be seen, the OBC hardware consists of the main MCU, PROM (holding the basic program), Flash ROM (holding updated software) and RAM (stack, picture etc.). Besides that it also contains logic to control the memory, that is, chip selecting, timing signals etc. This is done in cooperation with the CCL (Camera Control Logic), because the camera needs DMA (Direct Memory Access) to RAM. The reason for this, is because data from camera comes out in a stream, so timing and hardware DMA is required, which is done by the CCL. This is actually not a part of the OBC, but since it works closely together with the decoding logic, it has been implemented in the same chips as this.

The external parts, as PSU (Power Supply Unit), Communication Unit etc. has been connected via the I<sup>2</sup>C bus. This makes it easy for testing on a PC later on. The communication unit, has also been connected to the main MCU through a special communication bus. This is not explained further in this document. For programming, both during developing phase and in the

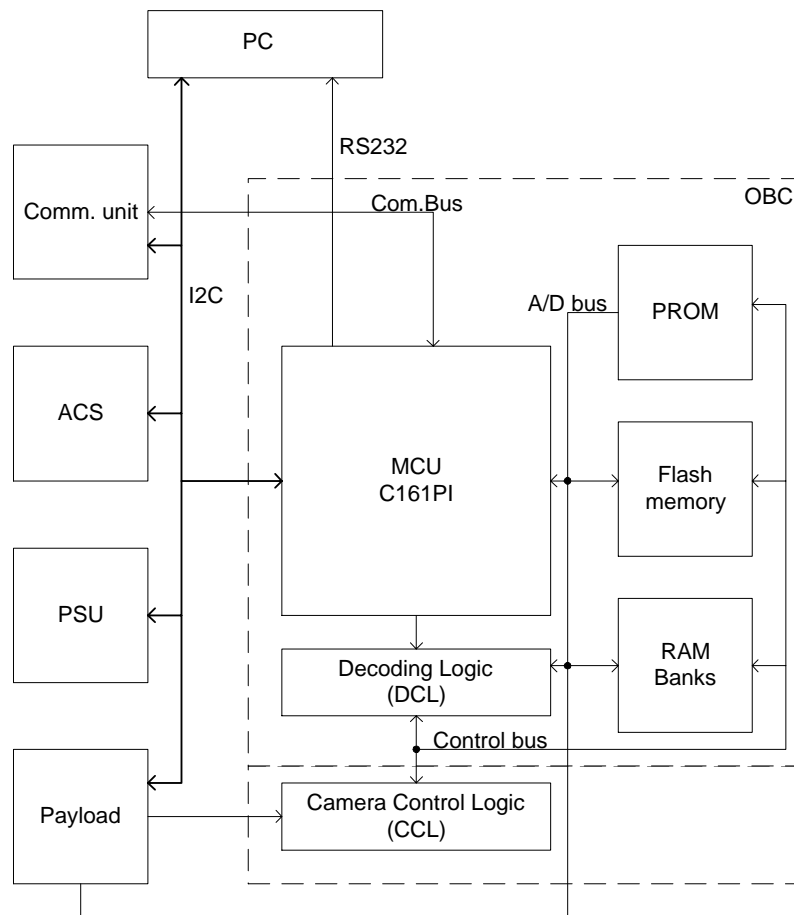


Figure 1.1: Overview of the architecture of the hardware in Cubesat.



end phase, a serial interface has been implemented to a PC, via the RS232 serial interface.

## **1.4 Choice of components**

This section describes the considerations we have made when choosing components for the on board computer. These components are the MCU, external memory and control logic.

Since space is a rough environment we have to select components capable of withstanding radiation bombardment, out gassing and extreme changes in temperature. This document describes the demands for each part and how they are met.

### **1.4.1 The temperature**

The difference between cold (shade) and warm (illuminated) is very large when not protected by the atmosphere (app. between  $-40$  and  $80^{\circ}$  C). Therefore we have to choose components capable of working in a wide temperature range. An advantage (when in shade) is that the only way the components get chilled is by radiation. Since heat radiation is a slow heat conductor and the components generate heat them self we do not expect that the components will be exposed to a rapid temperature change when moving into shade. When illuminated the satellite will be exposed to  $1300\text{W}/\text{m}^2$  from the sun. We expect the temperature on the sides of the satellite that faces the sun to be app.  $80^{\circ}$  C. Inside the satellite temperature changes will be considerably slower, because of internal mechanical structures, but it still have to be taken into consideration. We have therefore limited the components to those qualifying for industrial temperatures ( $-40$ - $85^{\circ}$  C).

### **1.4.2 Power consumption**

Because of the limited amount of power available ( $<500\text{mW}5\text{V}$ ) to the OBC the power consumption of each component has to be taken into consideration. Since the power consumption, in general, follows the frequency and we only need to run the MCU at  $12,5\text{Mhz}$  when the picture is taken, we will decrease the frequency of the OBC when not taking a picture. We have also considered using  $3.3\text{V}$  components because of the lower power consumption but we had to give up on the idea. A system based on  $3.3\text{V}$  components would be more sensitivity to noise and it has shown that it is practically impossible to find these components capable of industrial temperatures.

### 1.4.3 Radiation

When not protected by Earth's magnetic field the satellite will be exposed to high level of radiation. When electronics is exposed to radiation three things will happen:

- Slowly the chip will degrade until finally not working.
- Bit errors occurring when a bit flips.
- Latch up resulting in a short circuit.

Since it is extremely expensive to buy special radiation hardened electronic parts we have chosen to solve the radiation problem in a different way. By using code correction (e.g. Hamming) and outer protection (e.g. metal protection) we minimize the amount of problems due to radiation without the cost of special space approved components. Further some technology are preferable to others for example CMOS/HCMOS seems to be able to withstand radiation for a long period of time.

### 1.4.4 Size

Since we are limited in weight and volume we will try to use compact SMD components.

### 1.4.5 Availability

Obtaining components with industrial specification in small numbers has turned out to be difficult. Therefore we are using standard components during the designing and development phase. When construction the engineering model and the flight model we are going to exchange all the components with industrial components.

## 1.5 Choice of component parts.

When selecting the components it was needed to do some compromises. The most important demands was the extended temperature ranges all parts meet these demands. If all parts could work at a 3.3V power line the power consumption would be smaller but this was not possible to get every part compatible with 3.3V. Instead of the power voltage is 5V and then the MCU frequency is decreased and only when the picture is taken the frequency is set to 12.5MHz. It's almost impossible to get particular radiation hardened

components by the distributors so we have to do other things to meet the radiation problem. There might be a problem with erasable memory units like EEPROM etc in radiation environment since this will be erased by time. Therefore there must be a non-erasable ROM on board satellite. We have not done other hardware precautions to avoid radiation problem. Almost all parts are available as SMD components so that's what we have selected.

### 1.5.1 MCU

The MCU will be running most of the time and it is therefore especially important to limit the power consumption here. This is done by choosing a low power MCU with the option of saving even more power by lowering the frequency. Besides low power consumption it is necessary that the MCU support a large amount of memory and has an I<sup>2</sup>C hardware bus interface. Besides this we would like a couple of A/D-converters (for thermal measurement e.g.)

### 1.5.2 RAM

It has been particularly difficult finding RAM with industrial specifications and that is why we ended up using 8 modules of each 512kb. Since RAM is especially sensitive to radiation we have to take special care. We are planning to deal with this problem by protecting the RAM modules with a metal reinforcement and implementing an error correcting code. In the end we have decided to use standard static RAM with industrial specifications. A major compromise was made here, since the found RAM consumes a lot of power compared to all other components found. The major reason why the clock frequency is lowered, is because of the RAM's since it consumes 55mW/MHz.

### 1.5.3 ROM/PROM/Flash memory

The boot software is going to be placed in a memory device capable of storing data even if powered down. We have chosen to use flash memory for this task because it enables us to upload new software to the satellite. Since this type of memory might be exposed to bit flips due to radiation we are going to implement the original software in a PROM. Since PROM is one-time programmable (fused) it's very difficult for it to be corrupted in space.

### 1.5.4 Logic

On basis of recommendations from ESA and Terma we have decided to use an FPGA (fused based) as programmable logic. This logic is going to ensure RAM chip select. This has the advantage of saving power compared to using PEEL and counters for CCL and DCL (see later in document).

## 1.6 Designing PCB

Like the other parts in the AAU CubeSat the print has to work in space and therefore the material has to be taken into consideration when choosing. As mentioned before, space is a vacuum environment where the temperature vary between -40 and 85 Celsius degrees. Furthermore radiation will affect the print board so it is not only a question to get the right material, but also to make it radiation protected.

Before making the final print, it has been decided to make a prototype print in order to verify that the electronic circuits works properly. Therefore the prototype print is not going to fulfill the demands for space described above. To verify that the electronic works properly the print has to consist of only two layers in order to measure all points in the circuit. The final print is possibly going to consist of more than two layers if all the wires are going to be on one print, which has the size of approximately 90x90mm to fit the CubeSat.

At Aalborg University at the department of Telecommunication, they are able make a print with two layers and a minimum width constraint of 0.3mm. With this size it is impossible to make a PCB on a square of 90x90mm as it has to be on the final print, but for the test print, this is acceptable. Therefore the prototype is made at Aalborg University.

To make the print layout, the program Design Explorer 99 SE from Protel is used. It has a trial period for 30 days, so the print board is finish within that period of time. Things like redundancy and radiation protection is important, but the size of circuit we are working with, has certain difficulties in fitting a large print board. So there is no room for hardware redundancy on the prototype print board and as regarding radiation protection, we use the rules Protel has build in when making the print. Protel could make a print board at the square size of 150x200mm.

When the circuit on the prototype print board has been tested completely, the

final print is going to be made by the company GPV. They have the facility to make a print board, which fulfill the demands for industrial specification described above. Only a vacuum test is needed to ensure that the PCB does not degass in space. From Design Explorer 99 SE it is possibly to make the print-board-files, which GPV can make print from. After GPV has made the final print we hope to get Terma to mount the components on the board, so it is ensured that it is done the right way.

### 1.7 Basic configuration of the MCU

The Infineon C161PI can be configured in many ways, but it has been chosen to use the following configuration :

- Base oscillator frequency is chosen to 5MHz. This is normal operation frequency, but while taking a picture 12,5MHz is used.
- Databus is pure 16 bit, which takes up port 0
- Addressbus is set to 20 bit, which means it can see blocks of 1Mb. How it handles the 4Mb needed for the image is explained later.
- For uploading it has been chosen to use the ASC0 (Serial Channel 0) as default channel. This is explained later.
- As I<sup>2</sup>C interface, it has been chosen to select Line 1 with 7 bit addressing mode, and the MCU as master.
- Port 5 uses all its analog inputs for temperature sensors connected to components within the OBC. This is for housekeeping, and temperature warnings/failures etc. inside the OBC system.

Figure 1.24 in the end of this document, there is detailed block diagram of the OBC HW, and how it is connected.

## 1.8 Memory management by the MCU

### Description of memory

The C161PI addresses its memory linearly, and can address up to 16MB. The main memory of the OBC consists of several types. The two major types, are internal and external memory.

The on chip memory consists of RAM only, which are split into two types: 1kb IRAM (Internal RAM) and 2kb XRAM (External RAM). IRAM is RAM that lies next to the CPU, and is therefore extremely fast, and therefore it is used as stack for the CDH. XRAM is RAM that lies on the same sillicium chip, but has been put on the external address/databus which means that the cpu accesses it as if it where ordinary external RAM. It is often used for holding variables. The gain of using XRAM, is only speed, because it resides on the same sillicium chip as the rest of the MCU.

The external memory is normal RAM, ROM and other peripherals mapped onto the memory map.

### Memory map of the system

It is chosen to store the image from the camera in RAM. Since 4Mb is needed for holding the image, at least 8 chips must be used when each holds 512kb. Besides RAM, the MCU also have at least 256kb of PROM for holding the software. Beside this, it has been decided to implement extra 256kb of flash memory above the PROM in order to be able to update application software later on. This gives the following memory map shown in figure 1.2.

Due to easy implementation of the camera later on, it is chosen to use the upper segment 8 as User RAM. The  $\overline{CS}$  signals that selects individually two segments at a time, are generated by the microcontroller. The C161PI offers the oportunity to map 5 chipselects onto its memorymap. This has the advantage that, once programmed, it becomes transparent to the user, hence the chip selecting requires much less external hardware. Signal  $\overline{CS0}$  is always low whenever the other signals are not set low, which means that if an error occurs and a read or write function is performed on addressed above 0x47FFFF, an illegal bus trap will happend, which software must take care of.

### 1.8.1 Byte access to memory

The data bus is 16 bit wide, while the address bus is 20 bit wide. This means that the MCU can address a whole segment directly at a time. This also means that decoding each RAM chip is much more simple, which is

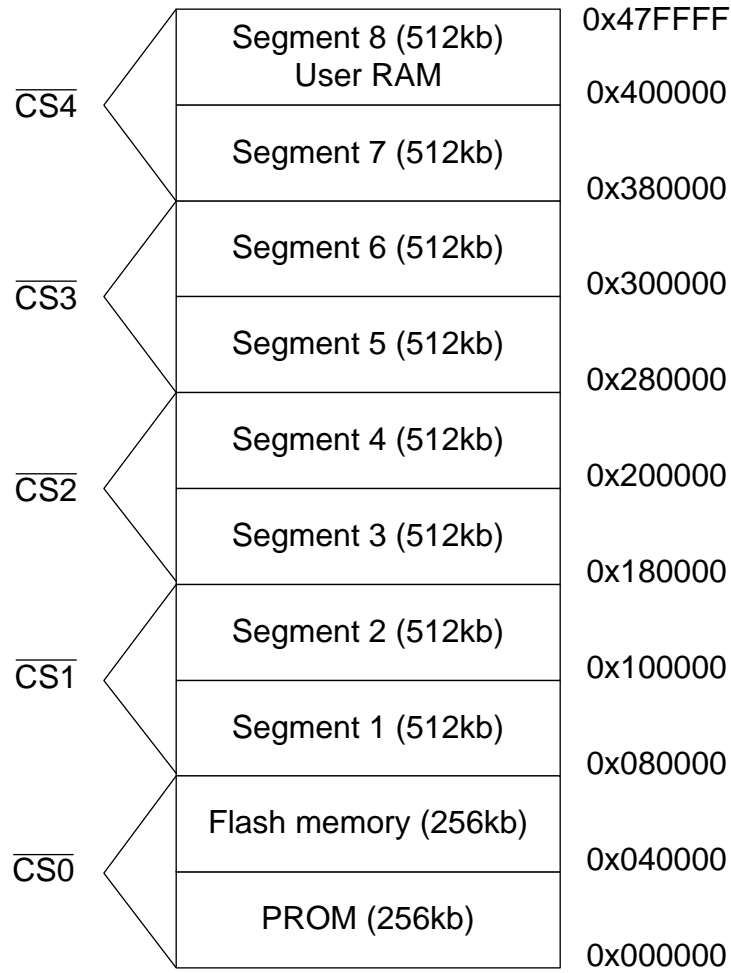


Figure 1.2: Memory map of the C161PI main MCU

described later in this section.

Since the RAM is 16 bit accessible it can cause a lot of wasted space if byte access is required. The chosen RAM has a possibility to address byte wise, and also the MCU supports this method on a 16 bit data bus. The RAM has two pins to enable upper and lower byte, and if both pins are low, a whole word is read. These pins are called  $\overline{UB}$  and  $\overline{LB}$ . The MCU has a special pin called  $\overline{BHE}$  that enables the upper byte, when necessary. Together with A0, this makes it possible to get a flexible byte access, without to much logic. A0 enables the lower byte, and  $\overline{BHE}$  enables the upper byte. This means that words always are written on even byte addresses.

PROM and flash memory is done nearly the same way, but since these devices are only 8 bit, a device is selected to hold the upper byte, and another device holds the lower byte. The result is, that for the MCU, it looks if the two devices were one with the same capabilities as the RAM.

Since the camera returns 10 bit data, these will be stored as words in RAM. Therefore when taking a picture, it will be necessary to enable both upper and lower byte. This means that the logic shown in figure 1.3 is needed to control  $\overline{LB}$  and  $\overline{UB}$  on RAM.

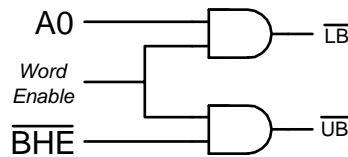


Figure 1.3: *Byte access control, including word enable from CCL.*

Signal *Word Enable* is created from CCL (Camera Control Logic), which is explained later. This signal, of course, enables both bytes during data transfer.

### 1.8.2 Decoding system

#### Determination of CS window

The register that programs the chip select lines are build up like shown in table 1.4.

The address start bit field, controls the upper 12 address bit, of where the  $\overline{CS}$  should be active. The lower four bits sets the length of the memory window where the signal is active. For further information please read the



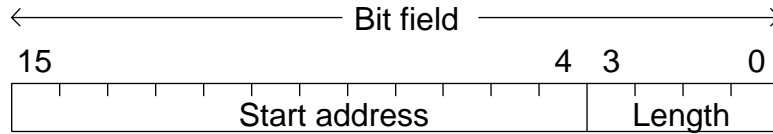


Figure 1.4: The register ADDRSL that controls  $\overline{CS}$  windowing

user manual for the C161PI, where other features with this mapping methods are explained in details.

### Chip selection within CS window

Since A0 is used for determination of low byte access, the address lines from the MCU to RAM starts from A1-A18, and for PROM/flash memory A1-A17. RAM has 18 bit address bus (A0-A17), which leaves 1 bit (A18) to determine which chip is to be selected within the CS window. For both ROM types, the chip within its CS window, is selected by A18. If, for instance, flash memory is to be selected, then  $\overline{CS0}$  goes low, and A18 on the address bus goes high. These two signals leads to the following boolean equation, that selects the RAM chip (remember that chip select on any chip is always active low)

$$Flashmemory = CS0 + \overline{A18} \quad (1.1)$$

and for PROM

$$PROM = CS0 + A18 \quad (1.2)$$

By inspection in a truth table, it can be shown that only an OR gate and a XNOR gate is needed to decode. The truth table is shown in table 1.2

CS1	A18	Gate	PROM	CS0	Gate	Flash memory
0	0	OR	0	0	XNOR	1
0	1	OR	1	0	XNOR	0
1	0	OR	1	1	XNOR	1
1	1	OR	1	1	XNOR	1

Table 1.2: Truth table for decoding address signals.

This means that an OR gate and a XNOR gate are needed to decode the memory map for each segment.

This is shown in figure 1.5.

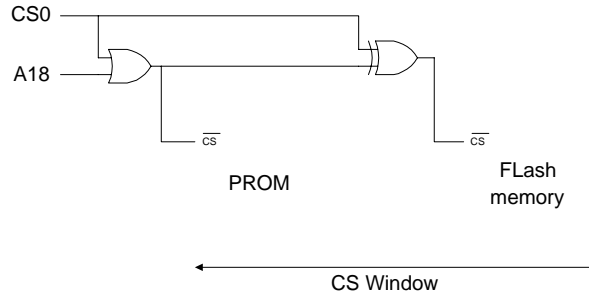


Figure 1.5: Realisation of the general decoding mechanism.

For most of the RAM chips, it works nearly the same way. Since the camera grabbing logic has to chip select the RAM's as well, a slight change is introduced with these chip selects. This is shown in figure 1.6.

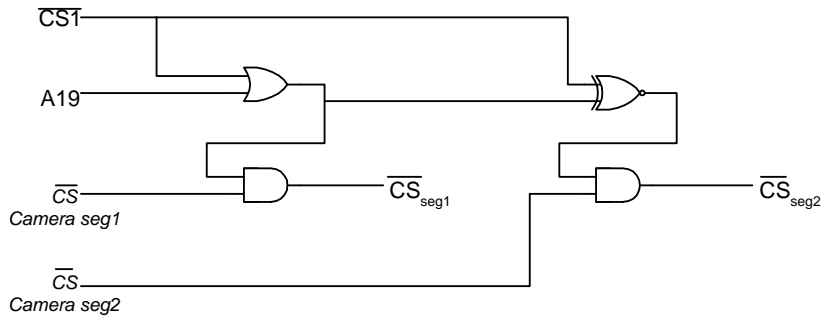


Figure 1.6: Realisation of the decoding mechanism of the RAM circuits.

Whenever either the MCU or the CCL tries to access a RAM chip, it brings one of the inputs low to the respective AND gate, which makes the output go low, and therefore selects the chip. The signals *CS Camera Seg x* comes directly from a decoder system within the CCL. This is explained later.

The decoding system is implemented on a PEEL chip, and the system requires 5 input lines (CS0,...,CS4,A18,A19) and 11 output lines (PROM,flash memory,RAM1,..RAM8).

Reading from a device is done by pulling  $\overline{OE}$  low on all chips, then output will be enabled by the chip select.

Writing is done the same way, just with the  $\overline{WR}$  signal. Writing to flash memory also utilizes the  $\overline{WR}$  signal strobe, but in the end product, the OTP only need writing once, and therefore a jumper will connect this line to the PROM's write pin while programming.

Further time analysis is not performed for the MCU, since RAM and ROM are much much faster than the MCU clock frequency, which will be 5-6MHz (see section 1.13 for further details on this).

## 1.9 Controlling the Flash memory in the OBC

The OBC must be able to flash/burn the program itself. This can be done in two ways. The first method, the boot strap programming, is done when flashing/burning brand new software, and is only ment to be used during development and when programming the PROM. The advantage is that it is easy to use and you can programme the OBC directly from a PC through a RS232 interface. This, of course, requires extra components for voltage adaption.

The second method is used when CDH is already running on the OBC. This method is ment to be used, when Cubesat is in orbit and new software is required.

### 1.9.1 Boot strap programming

Boot strap programming is an already build in feature in the C161PI. To enter this mode, it requires an external pull down on P0L4 during a reset. This is, for simplicity done by a jumper and a resistor. Besides this, a serial connection to a PC is done through the MCU's asynchronous channel 0 (ASC0). This channel must be connected to a MAX232 device, in order to ensure RS232 voltage levels.

From here a program can control the programming. After reset a 32 byte long boot strap loader is loaded into the memory of the MCU. This loader now handles the byte writing to the flash memory. When done, a reset can be performed without the jumper on P0L4, and the program will run, if successfully flashed/burned. A sequence diagram for inline programming is shown in figure 1.7

As it can bee seen from the figure, there's a lot of things happening automatic, which means that with a minimum of effort the ROM can be programmed. For security reason a jumper can be used to wire the WE pin on the PROM while burning the system software. In this way, it is ensured, that reprogramming of try of reprogramming PROM (since this may cause errors) only is done when it is intended. The WE pin, should therefore be tied high by a resistor, when not used.

### 1.9.2 Software controlled programming

As a way to secure properly working software it may be needed to upload new application software. The system will in its boot sequence look if any application software is located in the flash memory. If yes, the application will be started from there, other vise it will run the standard modules from

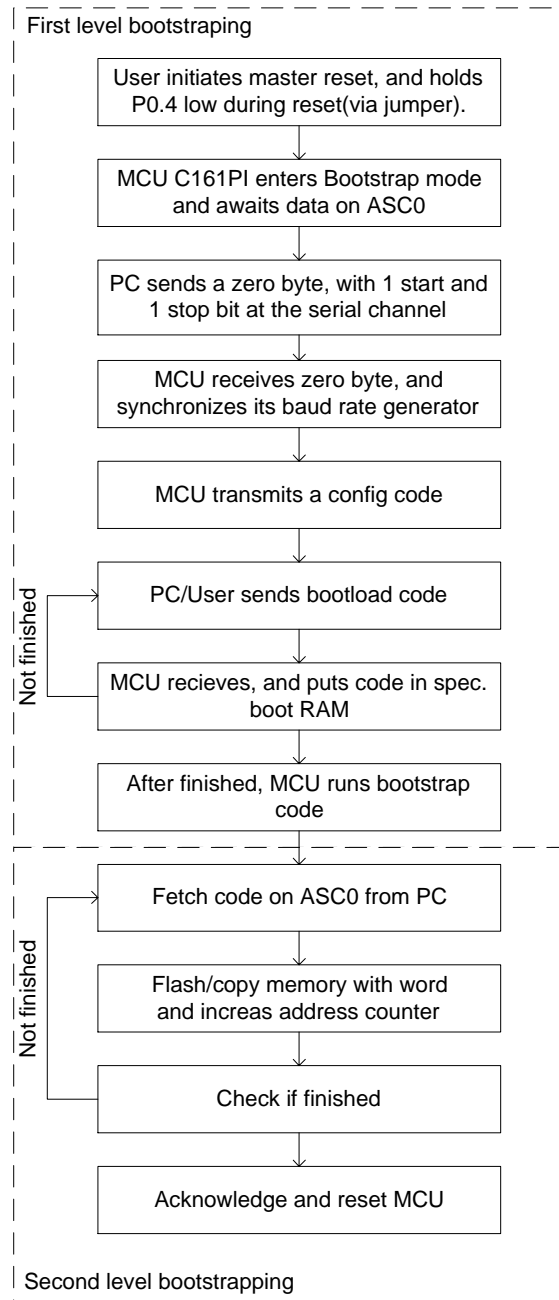


Figure 1.7: *Bootstrap sequence for flashing/burning software.*

the PROM.

The software controlled reprogramming method is to run a small program from XRAM, that moves data uploaded from ground, to the Flash memory. This has the advantage that new program data, is protected by the already defined protocols.

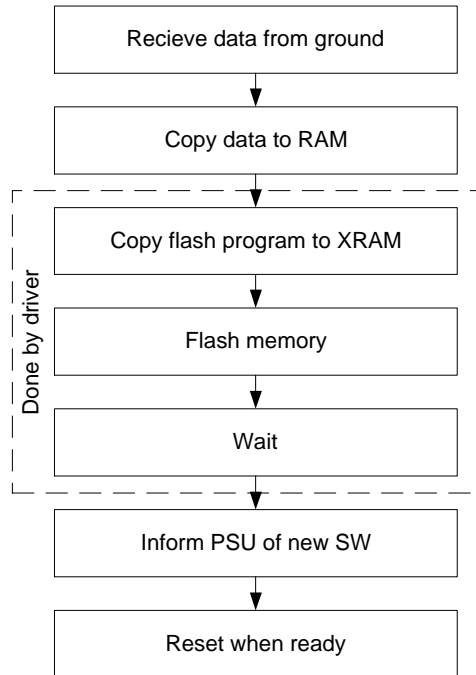


Figure 1.8: *Procedure to flash memory. Procedure is called from CDH.*

Figure 1.8 shows how the external software experiences flashing of the memory. Receiving and copying program data is done by other, and when ready the driver software will copy this into ROM. When done, the system will go back in normal operation mode. During this process, the CDH will be disabled, due to hard real time requirements from the hardware. As a requirement from the flash memory, no code must be executed from it, when being flashed. Reading from the device, and therefore running code from it, while trying to flash the device, is simply not possible.

### 1.9.3 Low level algorithm for flash/burn ROM

Actually no extra hardware is required in order to flash or burn the onboard memory. The reason for this, lies in the way it is flashed. If the  $R/\overline{W}$  line from the MCU is connected to the WE pin on the flash memory, it can be

written to nearly the same way as to RAM. The only difference, is that, for each byte written at a random address, three codes on both the address and databus must be written, in order to enable the flash capability in the flash memory. From the software programmers view, this looks like writing a specific byte to a specific address in that memory area, before writing the actual byte. This sequence can be seen in figure 1.9.

This algorithm also apply for the boot strap method, but since only 32 bytes of code is available, it may be necessary to skip the retry part, and just reply to the PC that an error occurred. User must then try again. In table 1.3 it is shown how the command sequences are, for the M29F010B chip.

Command	Adr.1	Data1	Adr.2	Data2	Adr. 3	Data3	Adr.4	Data4
Program	555	AA	2AA	55	555	A0	PA	PD

Table 1.3: Command sequence for PROM. All numbers are in hex code.

PA is the program address, and PD is the program data. The only difference between the PROM and the Flash ROM lies in the address space. When programming the PROM the addresses shown in the table is used. When flashing the both lower and upper byte of the memory, addresses must be added  $40000_h$  accordingly to the memory map. The data must also be doubled in order to flash upper and lower device at the same time, i.e. write  $0xAAAA$  at addr.  $40555$  for the first part.

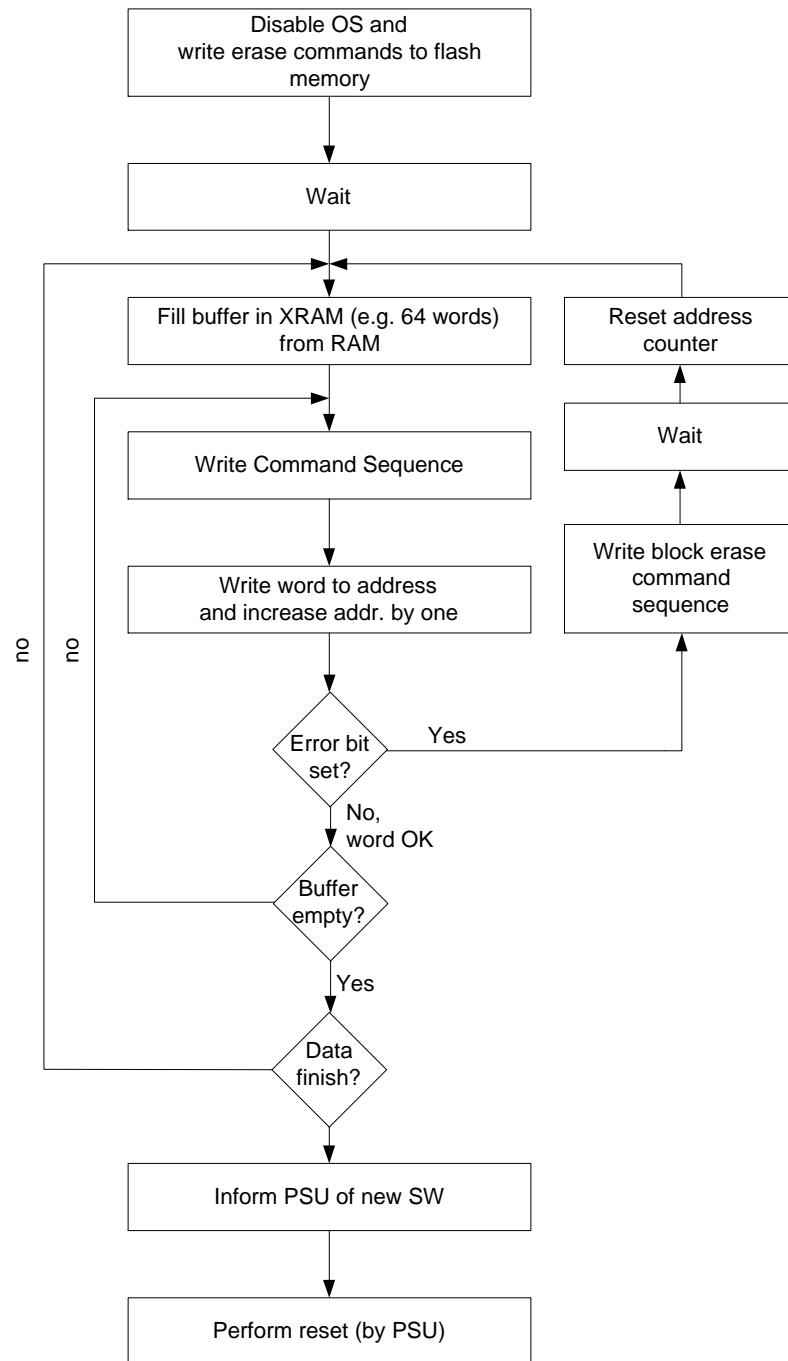


Figure 1.9: *Low level procedure to flash ROM.*



## 1.10 The Camera Control Logic (CCL)

In order to design the hardware control logic for the camera, it is important to look at how the camera and the RAM works. A timing sequence analysis is done in the following. Figure 1.10 shows what happens when a picture is taken.

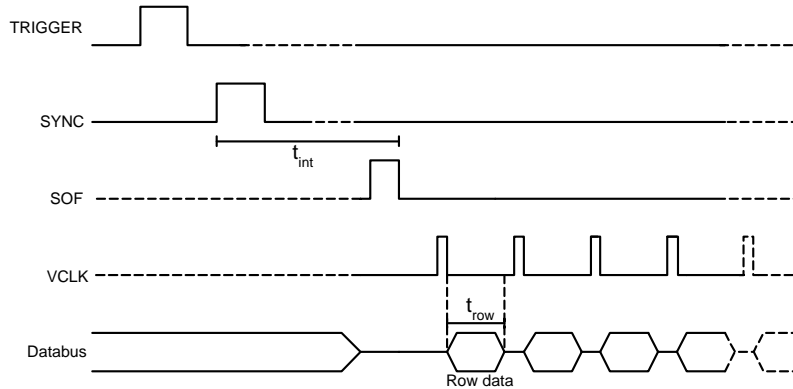


Figure 1.10: *Timing sequence of camera activity, during row transmission.*

The *TRIGGER* pin is pulled high by the MCU (only a pulse is needed). A synchronization pulse (*SYNC*) is created by the camera, when this starts to integrate the pixels. After the first pixels has been integrated, data starts to come out. A frame start signal, *SOF* (Start Of Frame), indicates that data starts to come out. After each row has been transmitted a signal, *VCLK* (Vertical Clock), synchronizes all external logic. During this period, no valid data is on the data bus. During data transmission an address counter must be implemented in order to store the data in the RAM. Other glue logic is also required to make it possible for both MCU and CCL to access RAM.

The time  $t_{row}$  it takes to transfer a row, can be calculated by ( $MCLK$  (Master Clock frequency) at 12,5MHz,  $vcwd$  means width of active window and is set to 1280 pixels). The following equations has been taken from the datasheet of the KAC-1310 chip.

$$t_{row} = (vcwd + 44) \cdot t_{MCLK} \quad (1.3)$$

$$= (1280 + 44) \cdot 80ns \quad (1.4)$$

$$= 106\mu s \quad (1.5)$$

With a total of 1024 rows, a total time of 106ms is needed to transfer the

picture to RAM. The integration time ( $t_{int}$ ) is calculated by ( $c_{int}$  is calculated by the length of the active window plus three, i.e.  $1024 + 3$ )

$$t_{int} = (c_{int_{dmin}} + 1) \cdot t_{row} \quad (1.6)$$

$$= (1027 + 1) \cdot 109\mu s \quad (1.7)$$

$$= 111ms \quad (1.8)$$

Hence, a total time of taking the picture, is approximately 217ms.

During row transmission, another synchronization is produced by the camera. Figure 1.11 shows these signals. The  $R/\overline{W}$  signal is the needed signal for the RAM, in order to fetch the data on the bus.

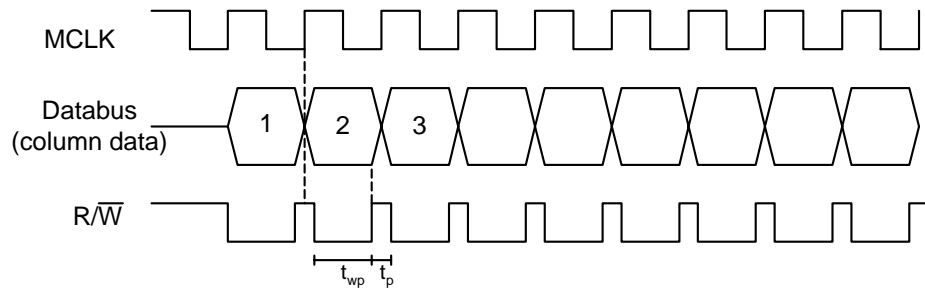


Figure 1.11: *Timing sequence of camera activity, during column transmission.*

Since data is written to RAM on rising edge of the  $R/\overline{W}$  signal, it is necessary that this signal pulses with the right timing, accordingly to the data being written onto the data bus from the camera. The RAM chips requires that the signal is low for at least 50ns, i.e. that  $t_{wp} > 50ns$ , this means that the high period  $t_p$  can be max. 30ns (with a MCLK at 12,5MHz). Because of the RAM, it is required, as seen on the figure, that the  $R/\overline{W}$  signal is pulsed between a shift on the master clock. The generation of this signal is done within the PEEL decoding chip, and a schematic of the gate logic is shown in figure 1.12.

Since the  $R/\overline{W}$  signal can be generated by the MCU also, it is necessary to gate the to sources together. This is done, for simplicity, with and AND gate in the end. If no units wants to write to any chips, both signals are held high, and thus, the chips are set to read.

The *delay and switching* circuit is done, both to delay the signal, for synchronization with the MCLK signal, and to enable/disable whenever the pulses are needed/not needed. This is done by OR'ing the delayed signal with the

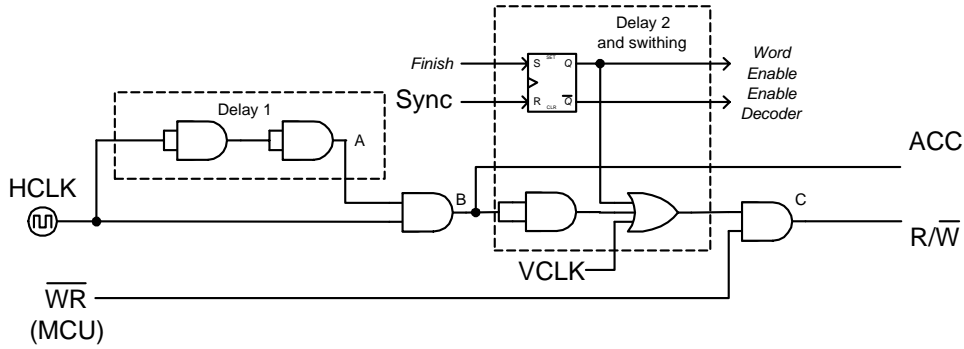


Figure 1.12: Gate logic for creating the  $R/\overline{W}$  signal.

vertical line sync (VCLK) signal and a synchronization signal, resetted by the cameras SYNC signal. This ensures that pulses only occurs when needed. The *delay* is done in order to delay the HCLK (Horizontal Synchronization signal), so the end pulse is shortened by the AND gate at point B, to  $t_p < 30ns$ , as required in the timing analysis.

To clock the address counter a delayed signal, ACC (Address Counter Clock) is taken from point B as shown. The total signal timing diagram for the circuit is shown in figure 1.13.

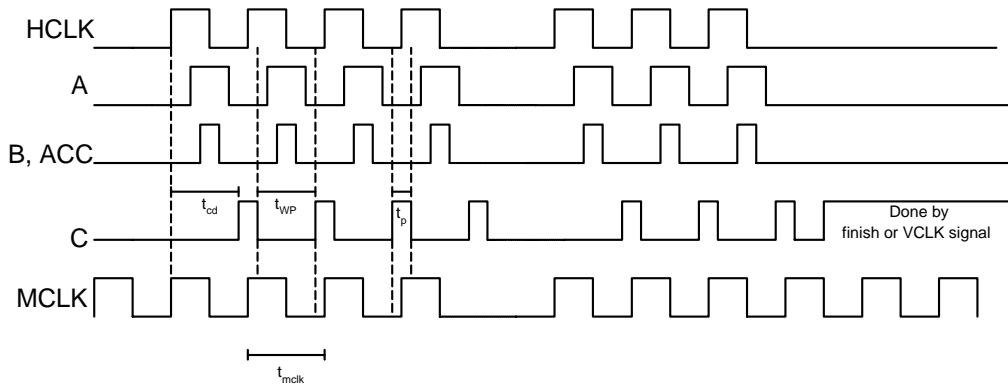


Figure 1.13: Timing sequence for the  $R/\overline{W}$  pulse gate logic.

Depending on how fast the chosen PEEL chip is, additional or less delay gates can be put in the different functionality boxes. The expressions to calculate the different times are as follows (where  $t_d$  is the general propagation delay in the PEEL, and  $n1, n2$  is the number of delay gates)

$$t_p = 0,5t_{mclk} - n_1 \cdot t_d \quad (1.9)$$

$$t_{wp} = t_{mclk} - t_p \quad (1.10)$$

$$t_{cd} = (n_1 + n_2 + 3) \cdot t_d \quad (1.11)$$

$$(1.12)$$

With a 15ns PEEL chip, the following can be calculated

$$t_{cd} = t_{mclk} - 0,5t_p = 80ns - 0,5 \cdot 30ns = 65ns \quad (1.13)$$

$$n_1 + n_2 = 65ns - 3 \cdot 15ns = 20ns \quad (1.14)$$

$$(1.15)$$

This means that  $n_1$  must consist of one gate, and  $n_2$  should be non existing. With a delay of 15ns in the first block, the pulse width ( $t_p$ ) will be 23ns, which is enough to ensure a write period ( $t_{wp}$ ) on 50ns.

A total delay of 40ns ( $t_{ad}$ , address delay), counter delay is to be expected from the counter, which means that the ACC must go high about 36ns after the clock cycles positive edge. The signal at point B, is delayed approximately 30ns ( $t_B$ ), which means that a new valid address is available 70ns after clock cycle start. This timing sequence is shown in figure 1.14.

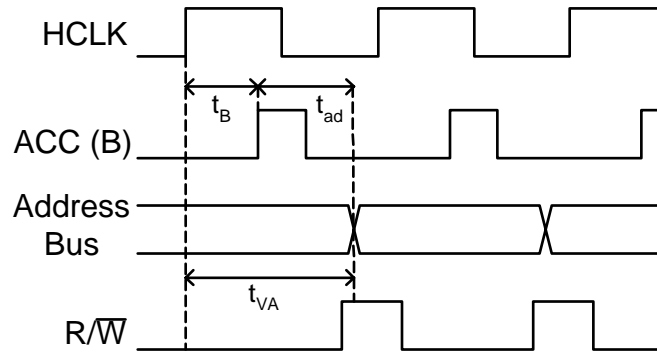


Figure 1.14: *Timing sequence for address counter.*

As it can be seen, the address then changes shortly after  $R/\overline{W}$  has gone high. Since there are no requirements from RAM about this time, except that,  $R/\overline{W}$  must go high before address change, there is no problem. To be more precisely there are 10ns between  $R/\overline{W}$  goes high, and address changes. This should be enough to ensure proper writing. The following equations, shows the calculations for this.

$$t_{VA} - t_{cd} = (n1 + 1) * t_d + t_{ad} - (n1 + n2 + 3) * t_d \quad (1.16)$$

$$= 30ns + 40ns - 60ns \quad (1.17)$$

$$= 10ns \quad (1.18)$$

In order to create address space for 1,3Mb that is needed for holding the image, a 21 bit counter is needed. This is clocked by the ACC pulse. The block diagram of this is shown in figure 1.15.

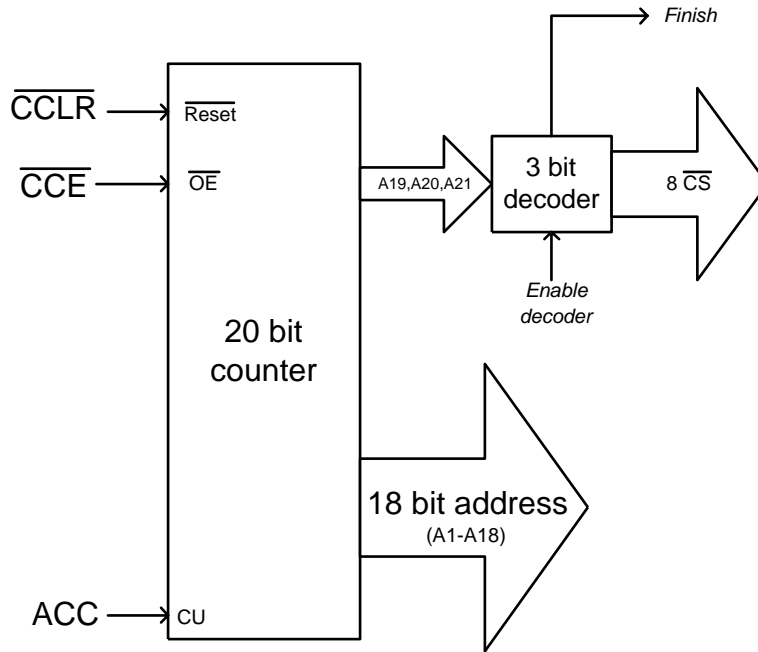


Figure 1.15: Blockdiagram for creating address and chip select signals.

The first 18 bit of the counter is used for creating the address on the selected chip. A18, A19 and A20 is connected to the PEEL chip and is decoded internally to create a chip select for the RAM chips. A signal *finished* is put high as soon the image has been transferred. This is used to ensure the  $R/\overline{W}$  signal stays high, and to wake the MCU up by doing an external hardware interrupt on pin EX7IN on the MCU.

The decoder is implemented in the PEEL chip as shown in figure 1.16.

The image takes up 1024x1280 (approximately 1.3 million) x 10 bit words, which uses exactly 5 RAM blocks. This means that when the counter switches to the 6th block, it will be finished transferring data. Hence, the *finish* signal is generated by the following equation

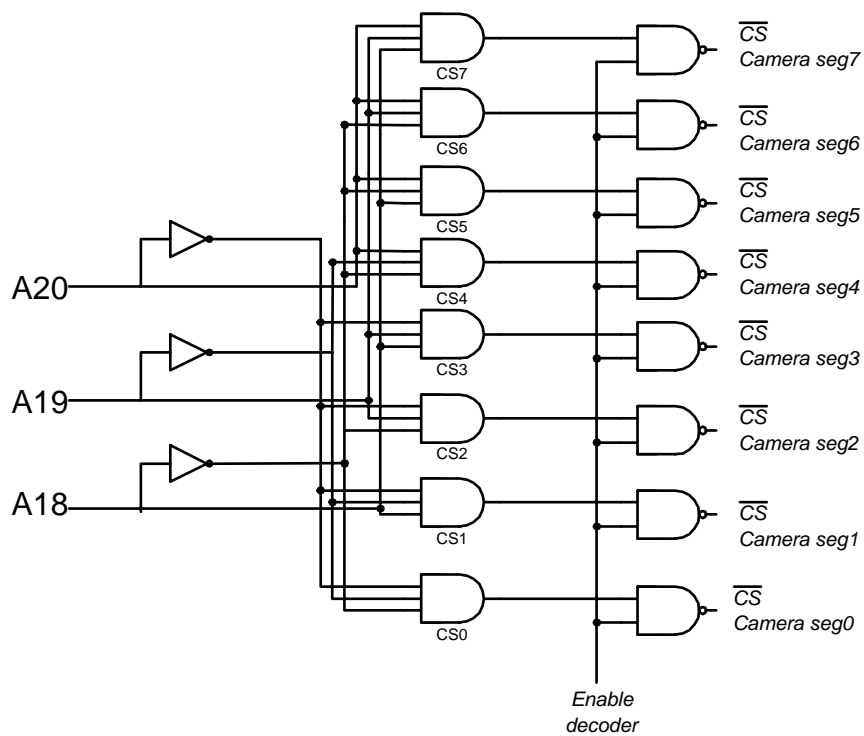


Figure 1.16: Decoder for chip selecting when camera is active.

$$finish = A20 + A19 + \overline{A18} \quad (1.19)$$

which is easily implemented in the PEEL.

The inputs and outputs, shown in table 1.4 must be handled and created. This can be achieved by 2 PEELs. By dividing the logic into two blocks, this is easily done.

Inputs	Outputs	Usage
HCLK	-	Generation of $R\overline{W}$ signal
$\overline{WR}$	-	Generation of $R\overline{W}$ signal
SYNC	-	Synchronization of $R\overline{W}$ signal
VCLK	-	Synchronization of $R\overline{W}$ signal
-	$R\overline{W}$	Enables RAM to write state
A17,A18,A19,A20	-	Chip select generation
CS0-5	-	Chip select generation (From MCU)
$\overline{BHE}$	-	Enables upper and lower byte
-	CS0-9	Chip selects
-	Finish	EX07IN interrupt wake up signal to MCU

Table 1.4: *Required inputs and outputs on the PEELs.*

## 1.11 Bus arbitration while storing data in RAM

When taking a picture of Denmark, and storing it into RAM, it is necessary to arbitrate the MCU from the parallel bus, since data and address signals can interfere with the writing sequence. No matter how much time it takes to store the data, the MCU must never write to either the data or address bus in that time. Therefore it is necessary to put the MCU in idle mode, while writing an image. It is also vital to put both address- and databus in a high impedance mode in order not to short circuits the ports.

This is a tricky situation, because high impedancing the MCU from the bus removes its possibility to fetch code data from ROM, and therefore to run software at all. However since the MCU is equipped with XRAM that lies on the same sillicium, and is accessed the same way as external memory, a tiny code can be executed from here and do the trick. The procedure for taking a picture is shown in figur 1.17.

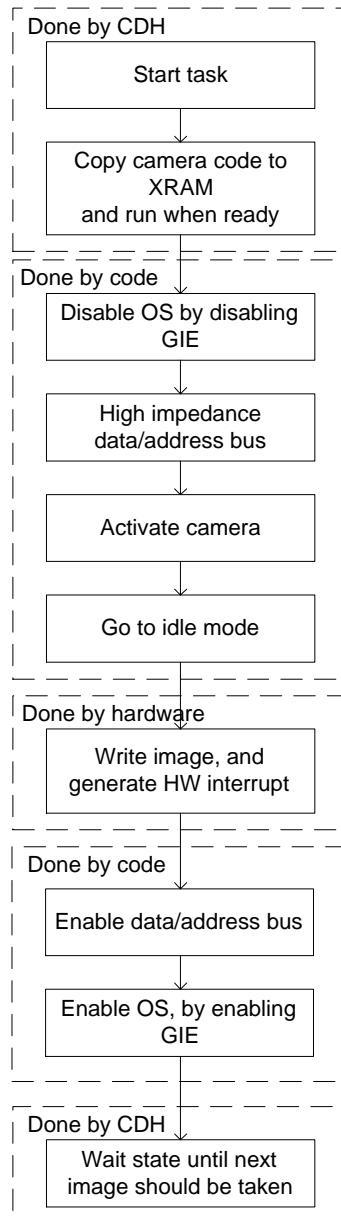


Figure 1.17: *Bus arbitration procedure done by software on the MCU.*



While the MCU is in arbitration mode (idle mode), the picture storing logic and the camera has the data/address bus for itself without any intervening from the MCU. When the image has been taken, a hardware interrupt on EX7IN is created by the CCL. This awakens the MCU from idle mode. By giving the EX7IN interruptlevel 0, it will only wake the MCU from Idle mode. No interrupt service routine is needed.

## 1.12 Hardware configuration

When resetting or setting power to the MCU, it must be hardware configured to the system. This is done by several pins on port 0 (which is also the data bus). External resistors on that port, or other units. Table 1.5 shows which polarity the pins have, and what configuration this makes.

Pins	Values	Configuration
P0.0	1	Not in emulation mode
P0.1	1	Not in adapt mode
P0.5-2	1,1,1,1	Standard startup sequence
P0.7-6	1,0	16 bit data bus demultiplexed mode
P0.8	1	Standard use of $\overline{WR}$ and $\overline{BHE}$
P0.10-9	1,1	Five chip select lines are necessary
P0.12-10	1,1	Enable address lines A17, A18
P0.15-13	0,0,0	Select PLL so $F_{CPU} = F_{OSC} \cdot 2, 5$
$\overline{RD}$	1	Enable watch dog timer

Table 1.5: Truth table for decoding address signals.

NB! Even though the base frequency is 5MHz times 2,5 (with PLL activated, which is 13MHz), software must lower this frequency when initialising. This is purely to save power, and still being able to run at 12,5MHz when taking a picture. It doesn't work the other way around!

Besides the hardware boot configuration, it is also necessary to initialize the MCU hardware registers, so it works as supposed in this system. This is done with a special initialization software that must be placed as the first code in the PROM.

## 1.13 Power budget

Because the system has a limit on how much power it can consume, a power budget must be made. In this section the total power dissipation is determined. The clock frequency can be used as a parameter to adjust the power. During camera activity the clock must be about 12,5MHz. Since not all components has been chosen (the PLD or FPGA still has to be chosen) this can influence in the power budget. As a starting point, data sheet for a PEEL 22CV10A (15ns) has been chosen. With this in mind, the following components, shown in table 1.6 is to be used.

Component	Name	Power consumption
1xRAM	TC554161AFT-70	1x55mW/MHz (active)
7xRAM	TC554161AFT-70	7x100 $\mu$ A (inactive)
2xROM	M29F010B	2x4mW/MHz* (active)
2xROM	M29F010B	2x0,325mW (inactive)
2xROM	M29F010B	2x100mW (Flash)
2xPLD	PEEL 22CV10A	2x75mW
1xMCU	C161PI	10mW/MHz
2xCounter	HC4020/24	0,8mW
1xCamera	KAC-1310	250mW

Table 1.6: Components accounted for in the OBC hardware.

*\*Note: This number has been derived with the assumption, that the power dissipated for this circuit is linear dependent of the frequency, as the other devices are.*

It should also be noted that these numbers may vary with the temperature, and that these are based on typical values for the components. Based on these figures, it is possible to sketch a power graph, based on the clock frequency of the system. Since the components follow the main MCU's clock frequency, this is the only parameter to control power consumption. This is also software controllable, which makes it easy to save power, even during flight. Figure 1.18 shows the power consumption in two situations, namely in normal mode, and when flashing new software into flash memory.

With a simple calculation, by adding the power from active components in camera mode, it can be shown from table 1.6 that the power consumed in this mode is 1084mW. Since this mode only lasts for approximately 200ms (see section 1.10 in this document) this should not be a problem for the batteries to supply.

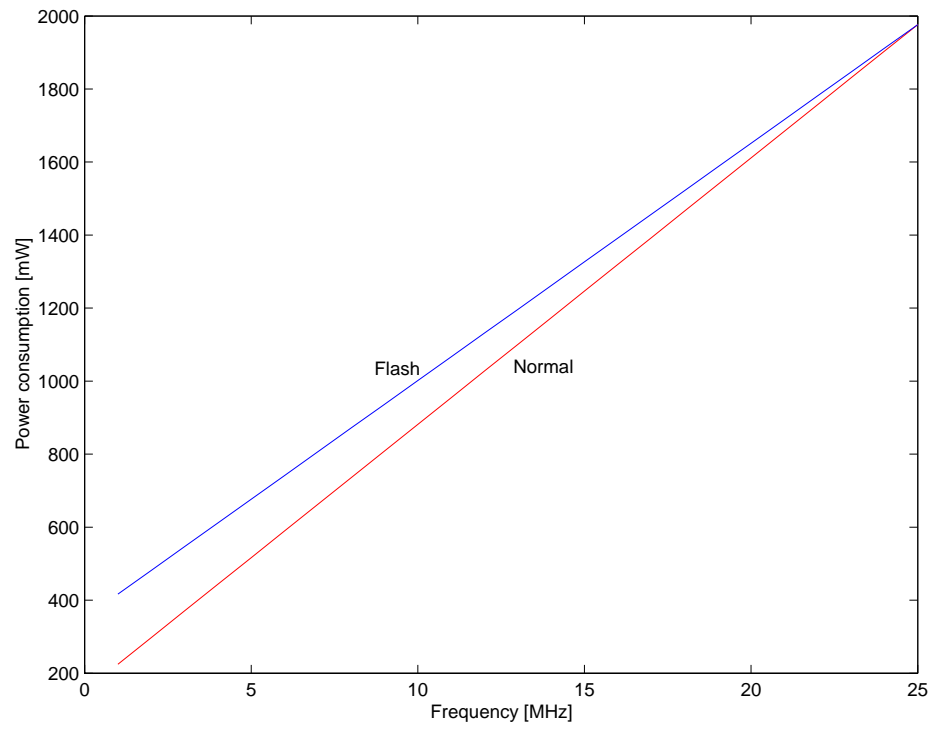


Figure 1.18: *Power graph of OBC hardware in two situations.*

## 1.14 Weight budget

A weight budget must be setup, in order to determine the final weight of the OBC hardware.

This will come as soon we know exactly how the HW is going to be.

## 1.15 Physical connections of the C161PI

This section describes how the pins will be connected on the C161PI. Table 1.7 shows this.

Pin	Name	Con	Note (Alt.func)
1-2	P5.2-3	NC	Analog Signals
3	T4EUD	NC	-
4	T2EUD	NC	-
5	V <sub>ss</sub>	GND	-
6	XTAL1	Crystal	See manual for con.
7	XTAL2	Crystal	-
8	V <sub>dd</sub>	+5V	-
9-16	P3.0-7	Par.Data Bus to Comm. unit	
17	P3.8	NC	MRST
18	P3.9	NC	MTRSR
19	P3.10	RS232 Transmit	TxD0 (ASC0)
20	P3.11	RS232 Recieve	RxD0 (ASC0)
21	P3.12	NC	$\overline{BHE}$
22	P3.13	NC	SCLK
23	P3.15	Camera Clock in	$f_{cpu} = 12,5\text{MHz}/5\text{MHz}$
24	V <sub>ss</sub>	GND	-
25	V <sub>dd</sub>	+5V	-
26	P4.0	Address Bus	A16
27	P4.1	Address Bus	A17
28	P4.2	Address Bus	A18
29	P4.3	Address Bus	A19
30	P4.4	NC	A20
31	P4.5	Write F.ROM1	-
32	P4.6	Write F.ROM2	-
33	$\overline{RD}$	$\overline{OE}$	Con. on all chips
34	$\overline{WR}$	Peel ( $\overline{WR}_{MCU}$ )	-
35	$\overline{READY}$	NC	Ready from Ext.Mem.

Pin	Name	Con	Note (Alt.func)
36	ALE	NC	Used only in muxed bus mode, or as sync External Access
37	$\overline{EA}$	GND	-
38	V <sub>ss</sub>	GND	-
39	V <sub>dd</sub>	+5V	-
40-47	P0L.0-P0L.7	Data bus	D0-D7
48	V <sub>ss</sub>	GND	-
49	V <sub>dd</sub>	+5V	-
50-57	P0H.0-P0H.7	Data bus	D8-D15
58	P1L0	Address 0, RAM (LB), ROM (LB)	-
59-65	P1L.1-P1L.7	Address Bus	A1-A7
66	V <sub>ss</sub>	GND	-
67	V <sub>dd</sub>	+5V	-
68-75	P1H.0-P1H.7	A8-A15	-
76	V <sub>ss</sub>	GND	-
77	V <sub>dd</sub>	+5V	-
78	$\overline{RSTIN}$	PSU	HW Reset, tied high by resistor
79	$\overline{RSTOUT}$	NC	Sync. Reset
80	$\overline{NMI}$	NC	Non Maskable Interrupt
81-85	P6.0-4	PEEL ( $\overline{CSx}$ )	$\overline{CSx}$ lines
86	P6.5	SDA1	I <sup>2</sup> C data line 1
87	P6.6	SCL1	I <sup>2</sup> C clock line 1
88	P6.7	NC	SDA2
89	P2.8	Comm. Interrupt	EX0IN
90-95	P2.9-14	Comm. unit	Comm.Control Bus (CCB)
96	P2.15	PEEL (finish)	Finish interrupt from (CCL)
97	V <sub>Aref</sub>	+5V	ADC reference voltage
98	V <sub>aGND</sub>	GND	ADC ground
99-100	P5.0-1	Temperature sensors	Analog Signals

Table 1.7: Pin connections on the C161PI microcontroller.

## 1.16 System Block Diagram

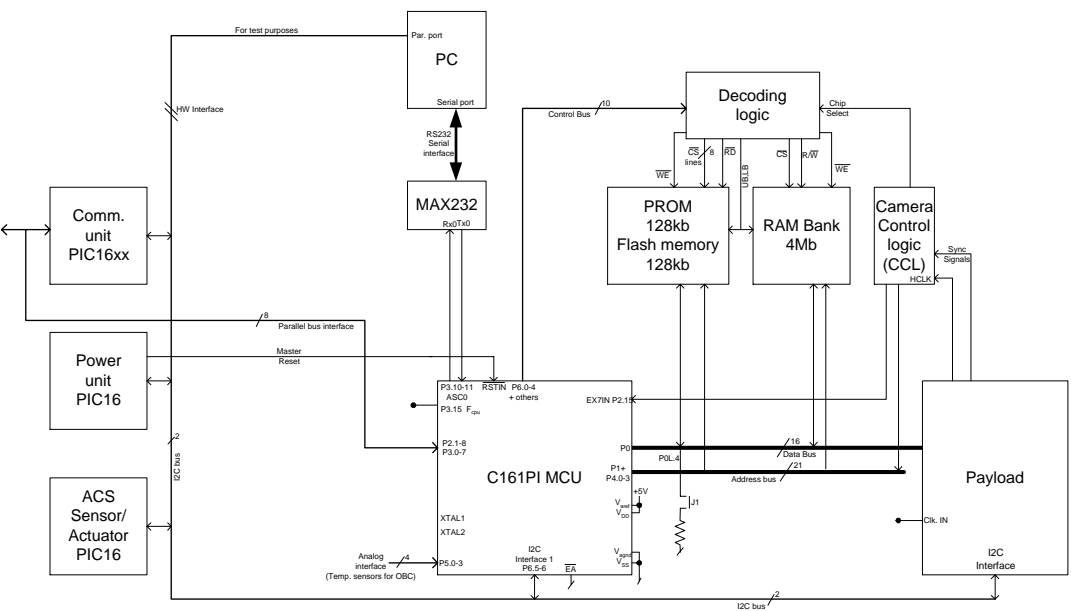


Figure 1.19: Structure of OBC hardware.



## 1.17 Diagrams of the OBC

The OBC hardware diagrams, has been divided into four blocks, each contains details on how the OBC on AAU Cubesat works on hardware level. The four blocks, and its bus connections, are shown in figure 1.20.

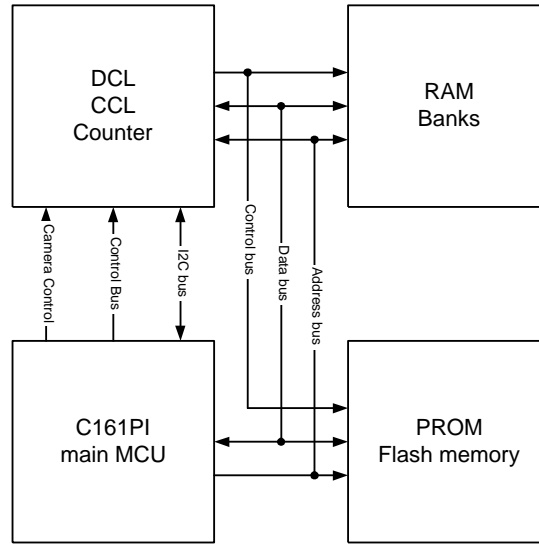


Figure 1.20: *Dividing of OBC hardware diagrams.*

The following tables contains valuable information when reading the diagrams.

Line nr.	Value	Meaning
0	IRQ	Interrupt request line from modem.
1	A0	Low bit address for modem.
2	A1	High address for modem.
3	PTT	Push to Talk
4	$\overline{CE}$	Chip Enable for modem.
5	$\overline{RD}$	Read byte.
6	$\overline{WR}$	Write byte.

Table 1.8: Communication Control Bus (CCB[0..6]).

Line nr.	Value	Meaning
0	$\overline{CS0}$	Chip Select 0
1	$\overline{CS1}$	Chip Select 1
2	$\overline{CS2}$	Chip Select 2
3	$\overline{CS3}$	Chip Select 3
4	$\overline{CS4}$	Chip Select 4
5	$\overline{RD}$	Read enable
6	$R/\overline{W}$	Write enable
7	$\overline{BHE}$	Byte High Enable

Table 1.9: Control bus (CB[0..7]).

Line nr.	Value	Meaning
0	$\overline{PROM - LB}$	PROM Low Byte enable
1	$\overline{PROM - UB}$	PROM High Byte enable
2	$\overline{FROM - LB}$	Flash ROM Low Byte enable
3	$\overline{FROM - UB}$	Flash ROM High Byte enable
4	$\overline{RAM1}$	RAM 1 enable
5	$\overline{RAM2}$	RAM 2 enable
6	$\overline{RAM3}$	RAM 3 enable
7	$\overline{RAM4}$	RAM 4 enable
8	$\overline{RAM5}$	RAM 5 enable
9	$\overline{RAM6}$	RAM 6 enable
10	$\overline{RAM7}$	RAM 7 enable
11	$\overline{RAM8}$	RAM 8 enable
12	$\overline{RAM - UB}$	RAM Upper byte enable
13	$\overline{RAM - LB}$	RAM Lower byte enable
14	$R/\overline{W}$	Write enable strobe
15	$\overline{RD}$	Read enable strobe

Table 1.10: Control bus generated by decoding logic (DCL) (CS[0..15]).

PEEL 1 in	PEEL 1 out	PEEL 2 in	PEEL 2 out
$I_2 = A18$	$O_{17} = \overline{RAM1}$	$I_2 = HCLK$	$O_{17} = \overline{PROM - LB}$
$I_3 = A19$	$O_{18} = \overline{RAM2}$	$I_3 = SYNC$	$O_{18} = \overline{PROM - UB}$
$I_4 = A20$	$O_{19} = \overline{RAM3}$	$I_4 = Finish$	$O_{19} = \overline{FROM - LB}$
$I_5 = \overline{CS1}$	$O_{20} = \overline{RAM4}$	$I_5 = VCLK$	$O_{20} = \overline{FROM - UB}$
$I_6 = \overline{CS2}$	$O_{21} = \overline{RAM5}$	$I_6 = HCLK$	$O_{21} = \overline{RAM - LB}$
$I_7 = \overline{CS3}$	$O_{23} = \overline{RAM6}$	$I_7 = \overline{CS0}$	$O_{23} = \overline{RAM - UB}$
$I_9 = \overline{CS4}$	$O_{24} = \overline{RAM7}$	$I_9 = A18$	$O_{24} = \overline{RW}$
$I_{10} = \text{Enable Decoder}$	$O_{25} = \overline{RAM8}$	$I_{10} = A0$	$O_{25} = \text{Enable Decoder}$
	$O_{26} = Finish$	$I_{11} = \overline{BHE}$	

Table 1.11: PEEL decoding logic I/O configuration pin assignments.

1.17.1 Main MCU connections

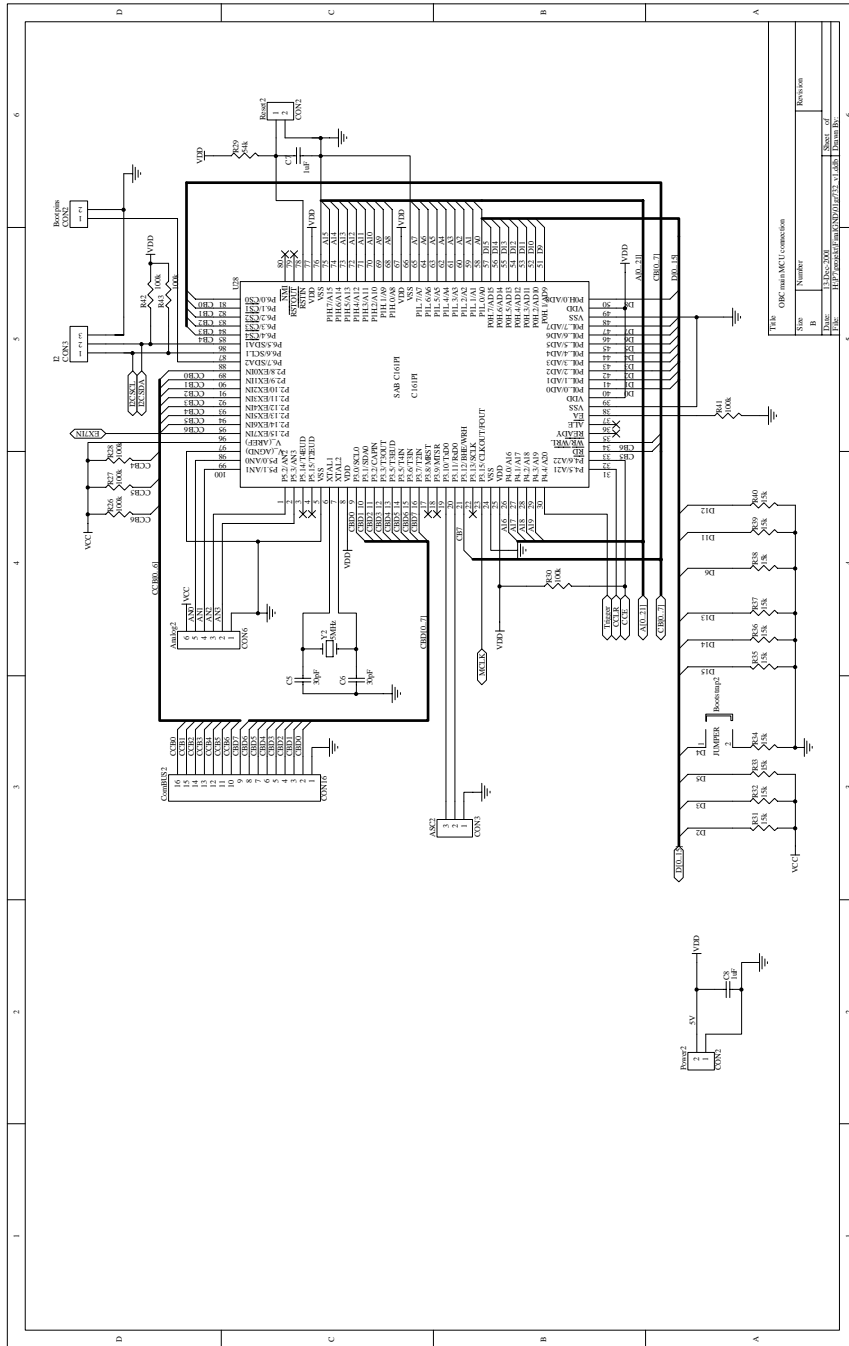
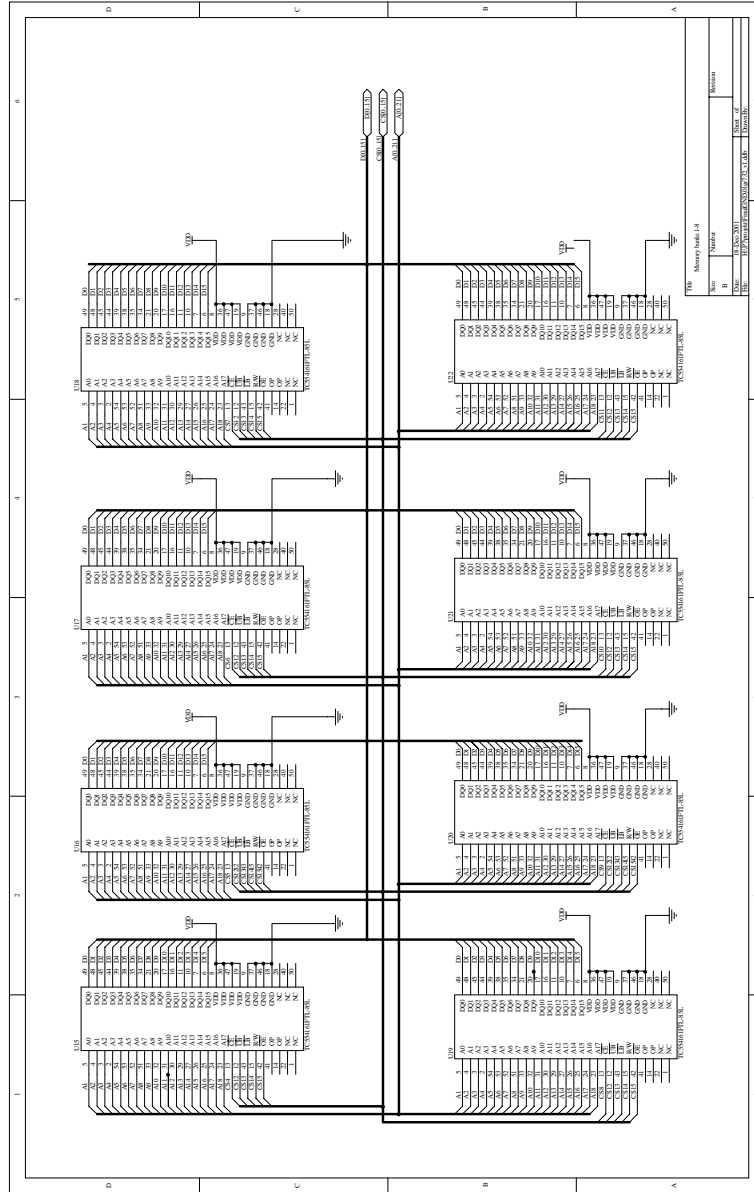


Figure 1.21: Connection of the MCU.

### 1.17.2 RAM banks





1.17.4 DCL, CCL, counter etc.

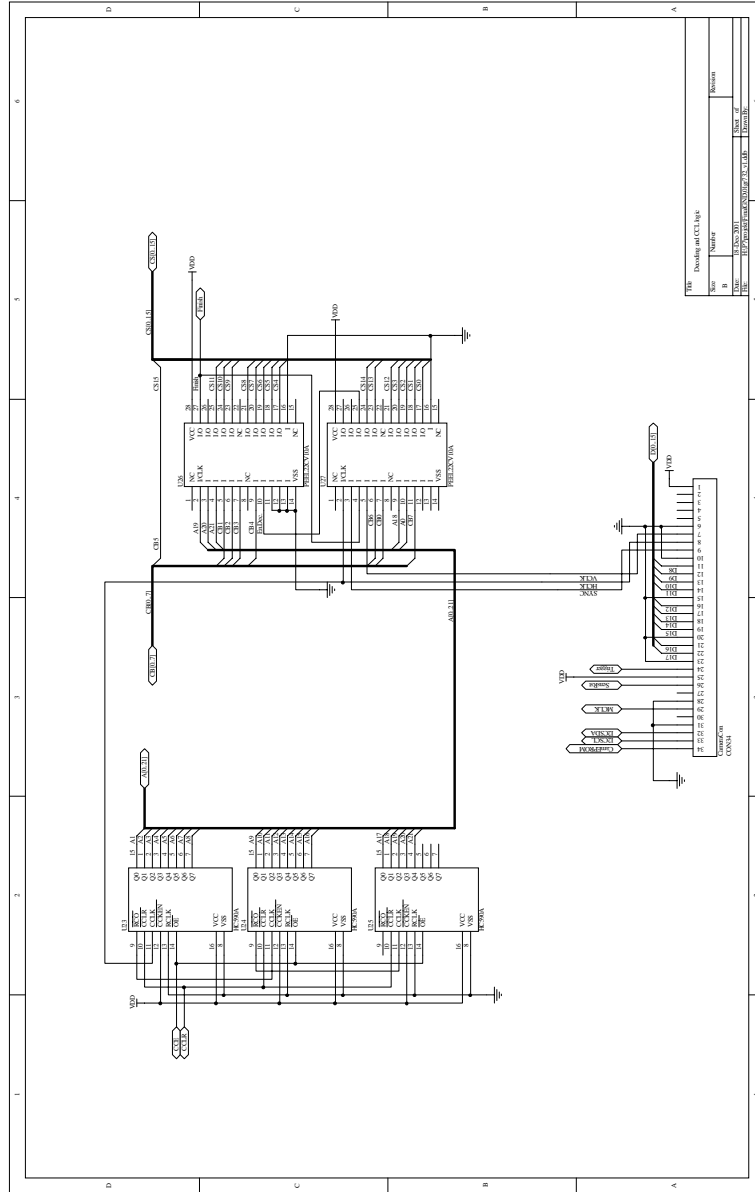


Figure 1.24: DeCoding Logic, Camera Control Logic, counter, etc.

# Cubesat Internal I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus

**Description:** The purpose of this document is to describe the internal bus on the Cubesat. The internal bus has been chosen to be the I<sup>2</sup>C-bus "Inter-connected Integrated Circuit". The document will describe the purpose of the I<sup>2</sup>C and the design of a suitable Protocol for the data link layer.

**Responsible group:** pro 732, 01gr732@control.auc.dk

**Date:** 19.12.01

**Rev.:** 1

**File name:** OBC\_design.pdf

**Path:** [http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokumenter/OBC\\_design.pdf](http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokumenter/OBC_design.pdf)

Literature:

<http://www-us.semiconductors.philips.com/i2c/facts/>



# Chapter 2

## Cubesat Internal I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus

### 2.1 I<sup>2</sup>C characteristic

In order to obtain communication between the different subsystems on the AAU cubesat, the Philips I<sup>2</sup>C bus has been selected. I<sup>2</sup>C or Interconnected Integrated Circuit was developed by Philips in 1992 it has now become the world standard, and is currently implemented in over 1000 different ICs.

**Here are some of the features of the I<sup>2</sup>C-bus:**

- Only two bus lines are required; a serial dataline (SAD) and a serial clock line (SCL).
- Each device connected to the bus is software addressable by a unique address and simple master/slave relationships exist at all times; masters can operate as master-transmitters or as master-receivers.
- It s a true multi-master bus including collision detection and arbitration to prevent data corruption if two or more masters simultaneously initiate data transfer.
- Serial 8-bit oriented bi-directional data transfers can be made at up to 100 kbit/s in the Standard-mode, up to 400 kbit/s in the Fast-mode,

or up to 3.4 Mbit/s in the High-speed mode.

- On-chip filtering rejects spikes on the bus data line to preserve data integrity.
- Extremely low current consumption.
- High noise immunity.
- Wide supply voltage range.
- Wide operating temperature range.

The I<sup>2</sup>C-bus supports any IC fabrication process (NMOS, CMOS, bipolar). Two wires, serial data (SDA) and serial clock (SCL), carry information between the devices connected to the bus. Each device is recognized by a unique address (whether it's a microcontroller, LCD driver, memory or keyboard interface) and can operate as either a transmitter or receiver, depending on the function of the device. Obviously a LCD driver is only a receiver, whereas a memory can both receive and transmit data. In addition to transmitters and receivers, devices can also be considered as masters or slaves when performing data transfers (see Table 2.1). A master is the device which initiates a data transfer on the bus and generates the clock signals to permit that transfer. At that time any device addressed is considered a slave.

The I<sup>2</sup>C-bus is a multi-master bus. This means that more than one device capable of controlling the bus can be connected to it. As masters are usually micro-controllers, let's consider the case of a data transfer between two microcontrollers connected to the I<sup>2</sup>C-bus (see Fig.2.1).

Term	DESCRIPTION
Transmitter	The device which sends data to the bus
Receiver	The device which receives data from the bus
Master	The device which initiates a transfer, generates clock signal and terminates transfer.
Slave	The device addressed by a master
Multi-master	More than one master can attempt to control the bus at the same time without corrupting the message
Arbitration	Procedure to ensure that, if more than one master simultaneously tries to control the bus, only one is allowed to do so, and the winning message is not corrupted
Synchronization	Procedure to synchronize the clock signals of two or more devices

Table 2.1: Definition of I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus terminology.

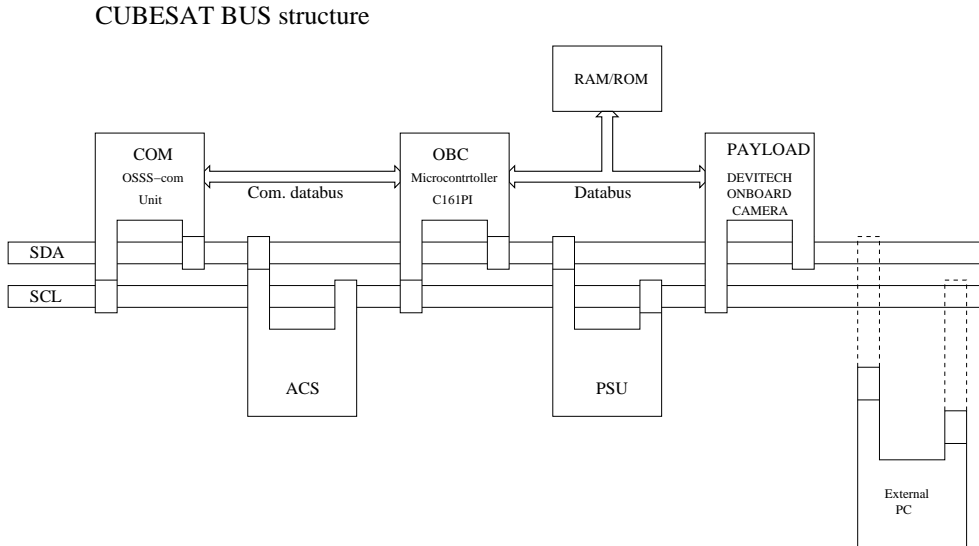


Figure 2.1: I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus structure.

If two or more masters try to put information onto the bus, the first to produce a "1" when the other produces a zero will lose the arbitration. The clock signals during arbitration are a synchronized combination of the clocks generated by the masters using the wired-AND connection to the SCL line.

Generation of clock signals on the I<sup>2</sup>C-bus is always the responsibility of master devices; each master generates its own clock signals when transfer-

ring data on the bus. Bus clock signals from a master can only be altered when they are stretched by a slow-slave device holding-down the clock line, or by another master when arbitration occurs.

The Cubesat structure consists internally of five different modules (COM, OBC, ACS, PSU and Payload). The last module on figure 1 is an external PC which is used for testing and simulation of the system.

## 2.2 I<sup>2</sup>C Protocol

The I<sup>2</sup>C protocol consists of the following.

### Start:

The start condition is produced by a master, who wants to use the bus. It is made by holding the SCL line high, while changing the SDA line from high to low.

### Address:

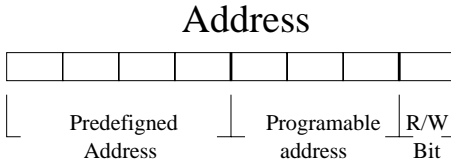


Figure 2.2: *I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus address.*

Every device on the I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus has its own unique 7 bit address. The first 4 bit of the address is determined by the type of device connected to the I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus and is set by the manufacture of the IC. The last three bits are programmable, which allows 8 identical devices to be connected to the I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus.

### R/W:

Read/Write is set by the Master, and determines whether the master wants to read from the slave or write to it. 1 for read and 0 for write.

### Acknowledge:

Header	No of data Packages
000xxxxx	0
001xxxxx	1
010xxxxx	2
011xxxxx	3
100xxxxx	4
101xxxxx	5
110xxxxx	6
111xxxxx	7

Table 2.2: *Number of data packages.*

Data transfer with acknowledge is obligatory. The acknowledge-related clock pulse is generated by the master. The transmitter releases the SDA line (HIGH) during the acknowledge clock pulse.

The receiver must pull down the SDA line during the acknowledge clock pulse so that it remains stable LOW during the HIGH period of this clock pulse, in order to confirm that it is willing to communicate.

**Header: Length:**

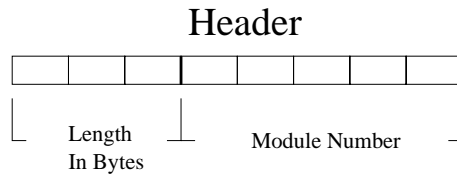


Figure 2.3: *I<sup>2</sup>C-header.*

The first three bits of the header determine how many data packages the header will be followed by (up to 7 \* 8 bit data packages) (see tabel:2.2).

**Module:**

The device module number. E.g. The PSU temp probe nr. 2 (2\*8 bit data) [00100010]. The total amount of modules you can address is  $2^5 = 32$

**Data:**

The data on the SDA line must be stable during the HIGH period of the clock. The HIGH or LOW state of the data line can only change when the clock signal on the SCL line is LOW

**Stop:**

A LOW to HIGH transition on the SDA line while SCL is HIGH defines a STOP condition.

**Checksum:**

The data package following the header is an 8 bit CRC Checksum. The checksum is calculated in the following way.

All the data packages and the header send in one transmission are added together, the 8 bit result of this calculation is the subtracted from [FFh], this yields the CRC checksum. The sum of received data is added with the checksum. The result is now divided by [FFh] and the modulus of this calculation indicates weather the transmitted data is corrupted. If the result is different from 0 the data is corrupted and will be retransmitted. (see Tabel:2.4)

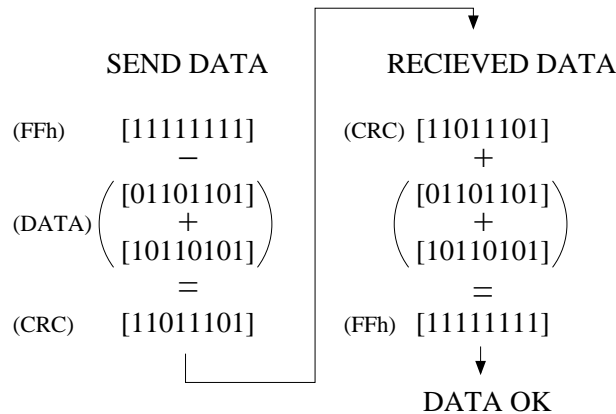


Figure 2.4: Calculation of checksum.

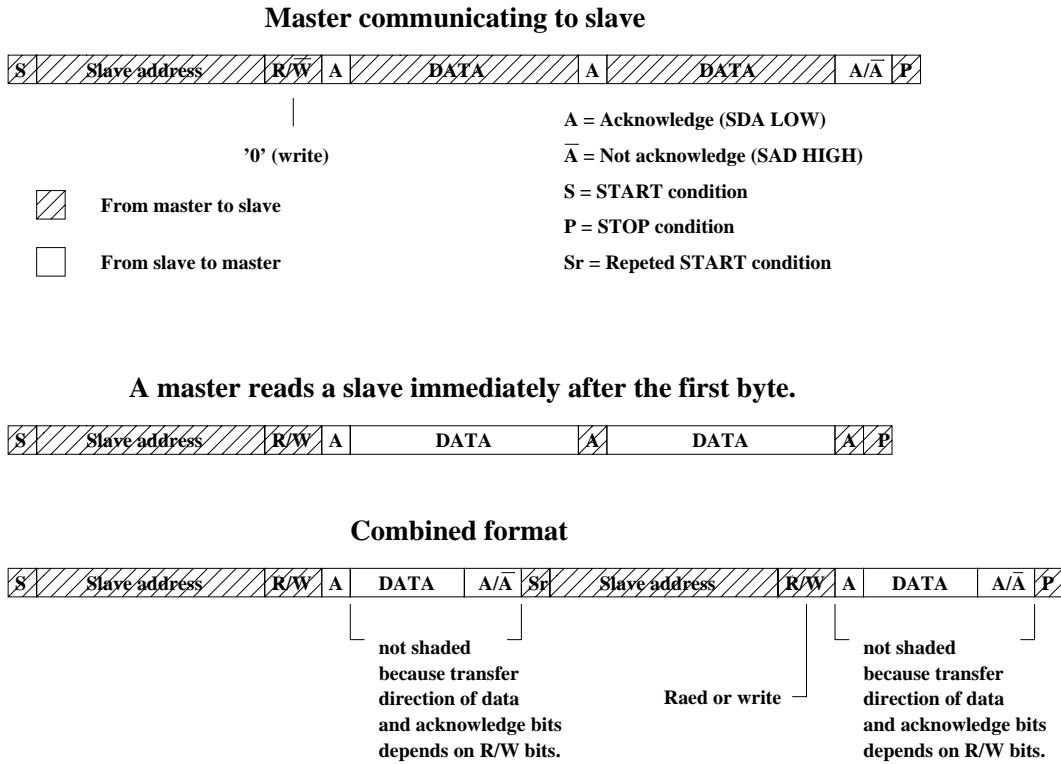


Figure 2.5: I<sup>2</sup>C-Bus communication.

## 2.3 Communication:

Possible data transfer formats are: Master-transmitter transmits to slave-receiver. The transfer direction is not changed (see Fig.2.5).

Master reads slave immediately after first byte (see Fig.2.5). At the moment of the first acknowledge, the master-transmitter becomes a master-receiver and the slave-receiver becomes a slave-transmitter. This first acknowledge is still generated by the slave. The STOP condition is generated by the master, which has previously sent a not-acknowledge (A).

Combined format (see Fig.2.5). During a change of direction within a transfer, the START condition and the slave address are both repeated, but with the R/W bit reversed. If a master receiver sends a repeated START condition, it has previously sent a not-acknowledge (A).

### NOTES:

- 1. Combined formats can be used, for example, to control a serial memory. During the first data byte, the internal memory location has to be written. After the START condition and slave address is repeated, data can be transferred.
- 2. All decisions on auto-increment or decrement of previously accessed memory locations etc. are taken by the designer of the device.
- 3. Each byte is followed by an acknowledgment bit as indicated by the A or A blocks in the sequence.
- 4. I<sup>2</sup>C-bus compatible devices must reset their bus logic on receipt of a START or repeated START condition such that they all anticipate the sending of a slave address, even if these START conditions are not positioned according to the proper format.
- 5. A START condition immediately followed by a STOP condition (void message) is an illegal format.

### Conducting housekeeping

When collecting housekeeping from the different units the master only needs to address a unit and set the R/W condition to "Read". The unit then delivers all its housekeeping data to the MCU. Each sensor on a unit is identified by the module number transmitted in the header.

The funktion for collecting housekeeping is called I<sup>2</sup>CHousekeeping(). In order to work it needs 2 parameters

1. Unit

The name of the unit from where housekeeping is conducted

2. Datapointer

The stack pointer where the data will be stored

A practical eksempel



```
void I2CHousekeeping(int PSU, *datastack)
```

### Controlling Units

When controlling a unit from the MCU, the MCU will of course have to send data along with the address, header and checksum. In order to write data to a unit the I<sup>2</sup>CWrite() funktion is used.

A practical example

```
void I2CWrite(int PSU, CRCchecksum, header, *datapointer)
```

It is also possible to read data from a specific sensor in order to do this, the funktion I<sup>2</sup>CRead() is used.

A practical example

```
void I2CRead(int PSU, CRCchecksum, header, *datapointer)
```

Further information about the I<sup>2</sup>C-bus can be found at.

<http://www-us.semiconductors.philips.com/i2c/facts/>

The I<sup>2</sup>C is supported by the MCU. This means that it is not necessary to build complex external hardware to set up an I<sup>2</sup>C interface. The only hardware needed is pull up resistors on the two bus lines. The I<sup>2</sup>C bus is configured, monitored and controlled by setting and reading different internal registers:

- **ICCFG**, I<sup>2</sup>C configuration register, this register enables the desired I<sup>2</sup>C bus ports. The MCU has two complete I<sup>2</sup>C interfaces. Interface 1 is used in this project. The register also sets the bit rate for the bus. The OBC I<sup>2</sup>C bus uses 97.6 kb/s.
- **ICCON**, I<sup>2</sup>C control register, this register is used to operate the bus. It selects between 7 and 10 bit addresses. In the project 7 bit addresses are used. It sets the MCU to be the master of the bus, it indicates if the MCU should be receiving or transmitting data and it controls how the receiver buffer generates interrupts.
- **ICADR**, I<sup>2</sup>C address register, this register holds the address of the MCU in case it is used as a slave.
- **ICST**, I<sup>2</sup>C status register, this register holds the current status of the I<sup>2</sup>C bus and indicates if an interrupt is pending
- **ICRTB**, I<sup>2</sup>C transmit and receive buffer, the buffer is 1 byte long. If it is defined in the ICCON register the ICRTB automatically interrupts when the MCU reads from/writes to it.

Some of the micro controllers implemented in the subsystems did not support the REPEATED START command. The REPEATED START command is used when the OBC wishes to both read and write from a slave during communication. This command is a vital part of the I<sup>2</sup>C standard. The I<sup>2</sup>C protocol developed during the project therefore had to be modified. Three different software modules used to communicate over the I<sup>2</sup>C bus was developed. The module algorithms have been illustrated using flowcharts. In the following sections these flowcharts will be described.

## 2.4 Write data to slave over I<sup>2</sup>C bus

The algorithm shown in figure 2.6 is used when the master want to send data to a slave.

First the operating system locks the access to the I<sup>2</sup>C bus. This ensures that

a program wanting to transmit on the I<sup>2</sup>C bus do not overwrite a transmission already in progress. The locking of the bus is done internally in the operating system. It sets up a semaphore (program) that blocks access to the bus.

After blocking access to the bus, the status register is reset. Next the interrupt of the transmission buffer is set up. The interrupt uses the MCUs Peripheral Event Controller (PEC). PEC is a function that can move data from one place in the memory map to another using only one clock cycle.

After setting up interrupts the header for the data and a checksum is calculated according to the I<sup>2</sup>C protocol designed.

The algorithm then looks up the 7 bit hardware address according to the subsystem the program wishes to transmit to.

This address is then placed in the transmission buffer and sent to the slave.

As soon as the transmission has started the program breaks. When the address has been transmitted the buffer generates an interrupt, beginning the execution a new program. This program checks if there was an acknowledge from a slave. If not it breaks and returns an error message. In case of acknowledge it places the first byte of data that should be transmitted into the data buffer. When this is done it breaks. The PEC will then automatically move the next byte into the transmission buffer when the previous byte has been sent. When all the data has been transmitted the PEC interrupts. The new interrupt checks for an acknowledge from the slave. It then frees the bus, indicating to the slaves that the MCU is done, frees the semaphore so another program can transmit and returns the status of the transmission.

The program writing to the slave should conduct a read command after each write to see if the slave received the correct data, but this is optional in this algorithm.

## **2.5 Conducting housekeeping from a slave over the I<sup>2</sup>C bus**

When the MCU wants to receive housekeeping from a subsystem it will be done using the algorithm shown in figure 2.7. As when writing data to a unit as described above the algorithm first locks access to the I<sup>2</sup>C bus. It then resets the control register and sets up an ordinary interrupt. It also transmits the address to the slave it wants to read from, breaks and interrupts when this is done. The interrupt routine checks to see if the address was acknowledge by the slave. The MCU then switches into receiver mode. This can be seen from the slave so the slave immediately starts to

send its housekeeping data. The MCU uses a PEC routine to receive the data. every time the transmission buffer is full the data is moved from the transmission buffer and into a buffer in the memory. When all the data except the last byte has been recieved the PEC routine generates an interrupt. This interrupt disables the automatic acknowledge generated from the MCU. This is done to generate a not-acknowledge according to the I<sup>2</sup>C standard. The MCU then disables the automatic receiver clock, that synchronizes transfers and reads the last byte. When this byte has been saved an interrupt is generated.

The algorithm that frees the bus and checks if the received data was valid using the checksum. It then frees access to the bus to enable other programs to use it and returns the the status of the transmission.

## 2.6 Reading from a slave over the I<sup>2</sup>C bus

As shown in figure 2.8 the slave uses a combination of write and housekeeping to read from a specific module inside a slave. First a module number is written to the slave indicating which data it should transmit when the following housekeeping comes.

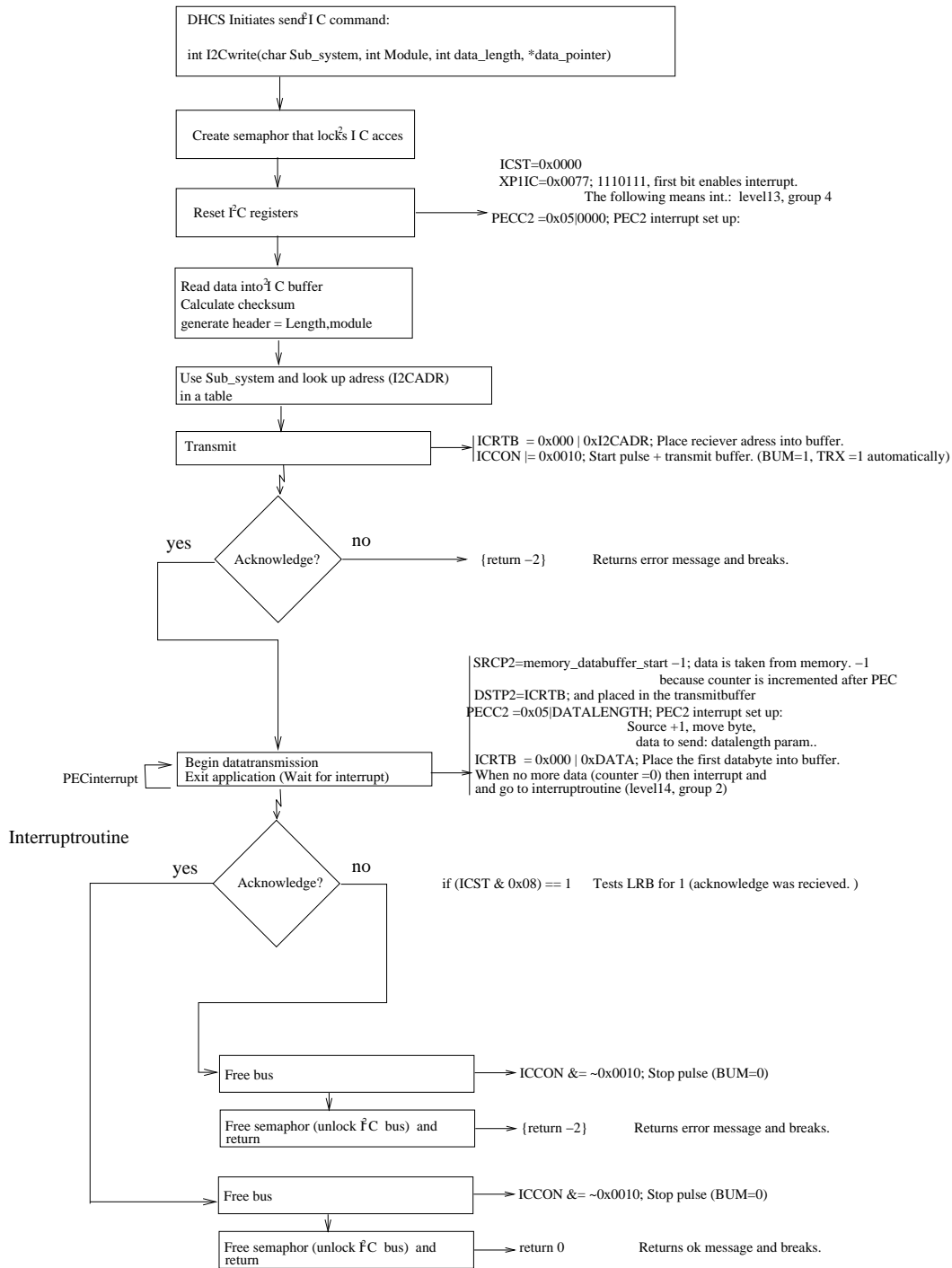


Figure 2.6: The I<sup>2</sup>C write algorithm

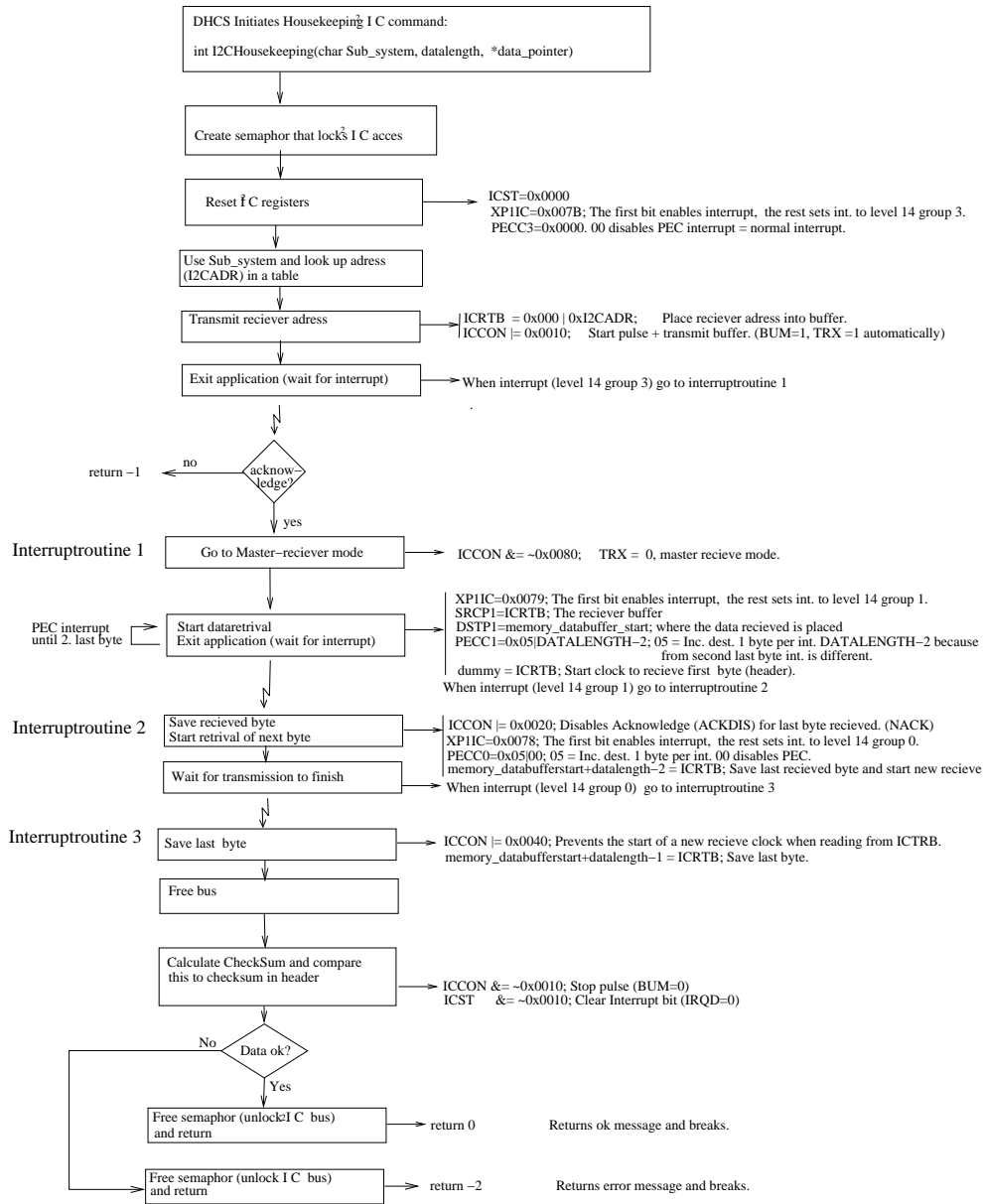


Figure 2.7: The I<sup>2</sup>C housekeeping algorithm

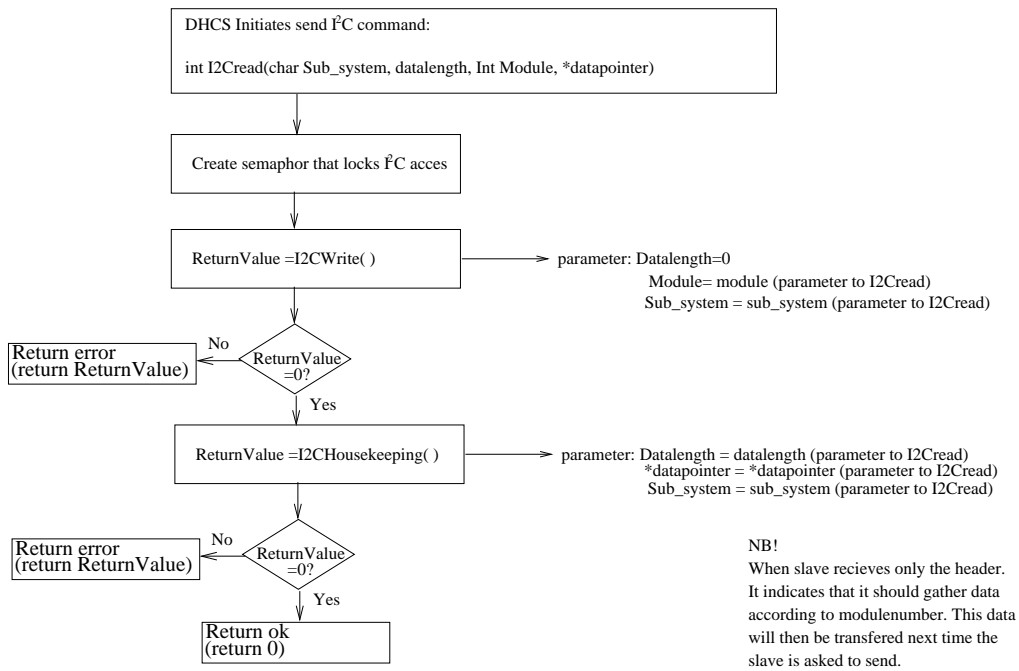


Figure 2.8: *The I<sup>2</sup>C read algorithm*

# Chapter 3

## Software functions

**Description:** This document describes the different software functions designed for the OBC. The driver software used for accessing hardware components, is described in this section. These creates the interface between the OBC hardware and the DHC software.

**Responsible group:** 01gr732@control.auc.dk

**Subsystem:** OBC

**Date:** 19.12.01

**Rev.:** 1.0

**File name:** OBC\_design.pdf

**Path:** [http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokumenter/OBC\\_design.pdf](http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokumenter/OBC_design.pdf)

Literature:

<http://www.infineon.com/>



### 3.1 OBC Bootsequence

The Bootsequence of the Satellite is described in figure 3.1.

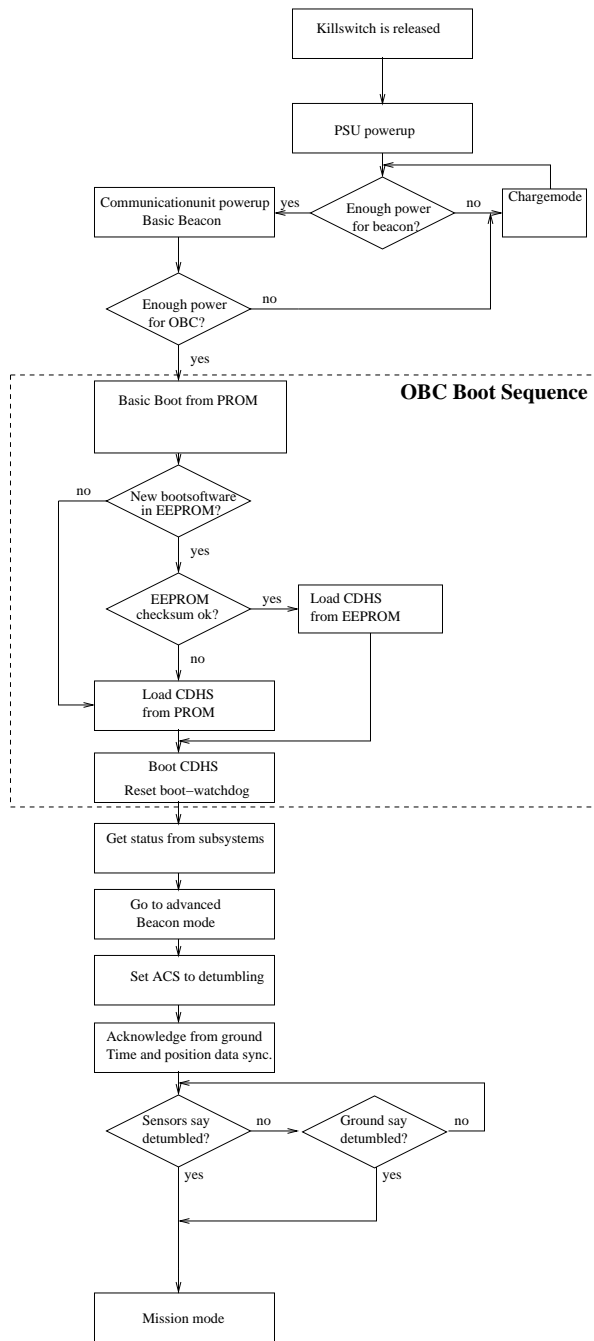


Figure 3.1: *The Cubesat initialization mode*

It is only the part of the diagram within the dashed lines that will be described here. This is because this is the only part that is controlled only by the MCU.

### 3.1.1 Basic boot from PROM

When the MCU is powered up it will start reading from the PROM module at address 0x0000.

Here lies the module that contains both the software needed by the MCU to boot the system and all the other applications that are running on the OBC. The software in this module is permanent and cannot be changed. The boot is split up into two parts: A basic boot and an advanced boot. The basic boot is stored in the PROM and will set up the MCU minimally by configuring only the most vital internal parameters. By minimising the setup in the basic boot allows for more flexibility if it later is desired to change different parameters on the MCU.

### 3.1.2 Checking for new software

When the MCU has completed the setup it will check a "BootSelect-pin". If this port is high it indicates that the EEPROM contains new software and that it should try to continue the boot from the EEPROM. Otherwise it will continue its boot from the PROM. How the boot selection works, is described later on in the document.

### 3.1.3 Verifying new software

Next the MCU will calculate a checksum of all the data stored in the flash memory. It will then compare this data to a checksum stored in the second byte of the flash memory. This is done to ensure that the data in the flash memory is not corrupted since this could cause critical malfunction of the satellite. If the data turns out to be corrupted the boot will continue from the PROM. If the data is verified, the MCU will continue the boot from the EEPROM.

### 3.1.4 Advanced boot

The MCU is at this point only setup minimally, i.e. important hardware registers has been configured, i.e. CS windows which is described in the hardware section. A complete setup is performed in the advanced boot sequence, which involves i.e. configuring all the ports on the I/O directions and

setting up the I<sup>2</sup>C bus. When the MCU is configured, the operating system is loaded and initialized by moving the program pointer to a certain place in the PROM/flash memory. Afterwards the OBC will execute commands initiated by CDH.

### 3.1.5 BootSelection-port

The BootSelection-pin is controlled by the PSU. This is done to let an external unit control what kind of ROM the system is booted from. The PSU has to be able to shut down the OBC in case of a malfunction i.e. if a latch-up occurs. The advantage of using the PSU is to be able to switch between the boot ROM without using the MCU. Figure 3.2 illustrates the algorithm. Port 6.7 on the MCU has been chosen to the "BootSelection-pin" on the MCU.

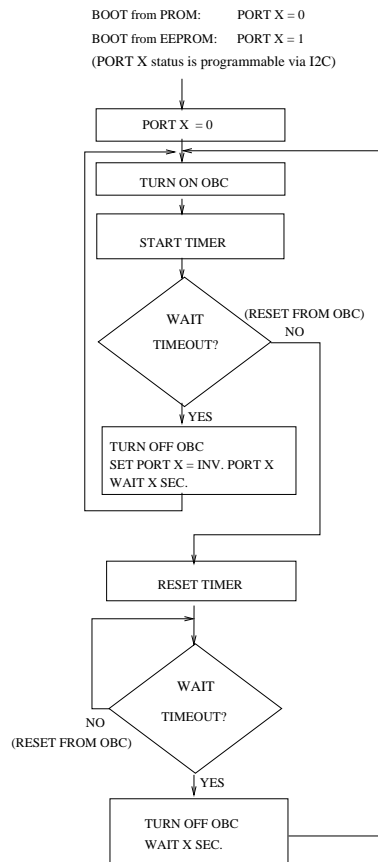


Figure 3.2: *The PCU algorithm for choice of boot ROM*

When the Power Supply Unit (PSU) is turned on it will set the boot ROM

to the PROM (Port 6.7 = 0 in the illustration). This situation only happens when we boot up the system the first time or if the PSU has malfunctioned. The PROM software is to be tested many times on earth which means that the boot sequence will be reliable when burned into PROM. The initial boot software will be placed in both the PROM and in the EEPROM to include some redundancy. When PROM has been chosen it will power up the MCU. As described in the boot section the boot software will check a BootSelection-pin connected to port 6.7 to see in which ROM it should continue. After turning on the MCU it will start an internal timer. If the timer over runs, it indicates that the bootsequence has failed. It will now invert the logical level of PORT 6.7 (In the initial case it will become PORT 6.7 = 1). Next it will shut down the MCU wait a few seconds and turn it on again. This time the MCU will continue its boot from the flash memory since PORT 6.7 = 1. If this also fails it will go back and try to boot from the PROM and so on. If the boot succeeds the PSU will start acting like an external watchdog to the MCU. This is done by initiating a timer. If the timer isn't reset periodically by a command through the I<sup>2</sup>C the PSU will shut down the MCU and try to restart it. The PSU has been chosen to be external watchdog since it needs to be able to turn on and off the MCU anyway to protect from latch-up. In case of flashing new software into the flash memory, the boot selection pin will be set to 1 (boot from flash memory) via the I<sup>2</sup>C bus. When the system is rebooted the algorithm will change the boot ROM back to the PROM if booting from flash memory fails.

### 3.1.6 Get temperature on the OBC and Camera

The function `Get_temperature` is used to get the temperature on the OBC (On Board Computer) and the camera Unit. When the function is called, it must get the temperature and return a 8 bit temperature value. The flowchart of the function is illustrated in figure 3.3.

Two sensors of the type LM19, are placed on each unit and their output voltage goes from 0.3V to 2.5V. The sensors are able to measure a temperature range from -55° celcius to 130° celcius.

The micro controller used (C161PI) has implemented an ADC (A/D-converter), which makes it possible to convert an analog voltage to a binary value. The OBC ADC is 10bit, but it has been decided only to use the 8bit, because this is accurate enough for housekeeping purposes.

To make the best possible use of the 10 bit and not make a amplifier circuit for the thermometer, the ADC is set to convert between the to voltage values 0.3V to 2.5V. This is done by the ADC two references input  $V_{AGND}$  and

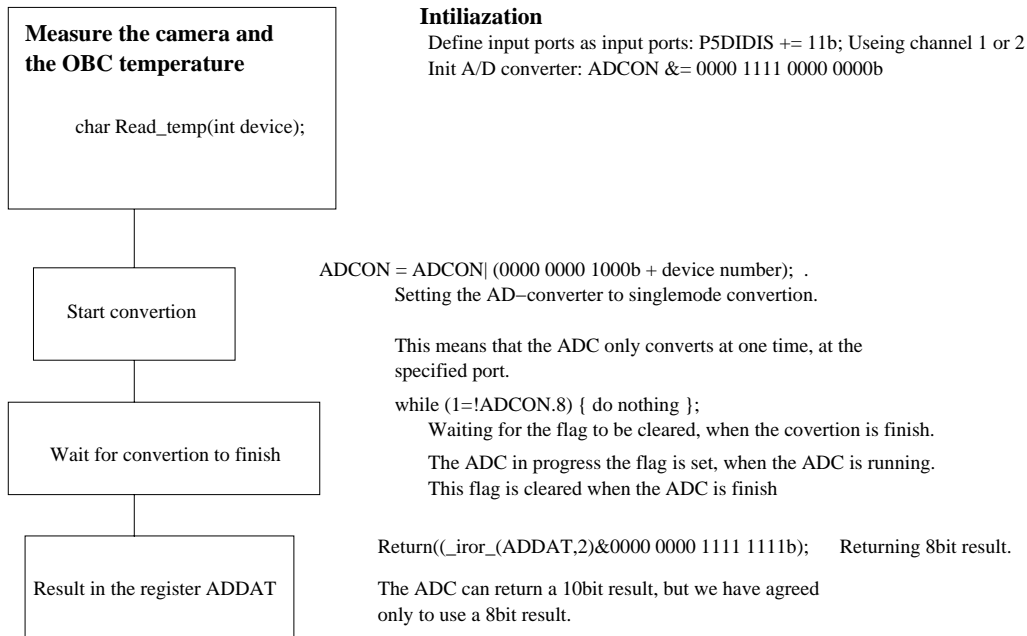


Figure 3.3: *Get\_ tempearture function flowchart.*

$V_{AREF}$ .

The OBC ADC is able to converts in several modes, but the ADC is programmed to converts in a single mode. It means that the ADC only converts one time at a specified port, where the temperature sensors are connected. The sensors are connected to port P5.0 and P5.1. Therefore is the input to the function ADC a char value, which specifies the port the ADC has to convert. When the input is 1 the ADC converts the temperature on the OBC and 2 the temperature of the camera unit.

When The ADC is finish converting it returns a 8 bit temperature value. The program code to this function has been made and it is showed in figure 3.3, but the actual circuit was not build yet and therefore has the program code not been tested completely. For Further information about the ADC see the manual for SAB C161PI.

### 3.1.7 Flash Memory and load new data

When the satellite is in orbit, a new program can be uploaded, if the one on board is not working properly, or new things needs to be tested. The function Flash\_memory flashes the memory and load new software from the

Ram-modules into the memory models. The function is illustrated in the figure 3.4.

Before loading new software, the Flash memory has to be erased, which means that all the cells in the flash memory are set to '1'. The function `Flash_memory` programs the flash memory and returns 0 if the flashing was successfully and 1 if the flash memory could not be flashed. If the function returns a 1, the function has tried to flash the flash memory five time, but did not succeed. It means the one cell in the flash memory could not be set to '1'. The program code has been designed and illustrated in figure 3.4. For further information about the the flashing see the manual for M29F010B.

When the flashing has ended successfully, the new data is loaded into the memory modules. When this is done the data has to be verified (See section 3.1.8) and if the data is correct and the DHCS can be restarted.

### 3.1.8 Verifie stored data

When a new data is loaded into the Flash memory is has to be verified if the data is correct. That is what the function `checkbit_cal` does. Figure 3.5 illustrates by means of a flowchart which tasks the function has to performs. After the Data is load into the flash memory module, the OBC runs the function `ckeckbit_cal`. The function calculates a check byte by summing all the data in the flash memory together which creates a word. The checksum is calculated by subtracting the low 8 bit of the word from 255, i.e.  $CRC = 255 - \text{summed byte}$ . The Check byte calculated on Earth, is stored in the last byte of the flash memory. When the function gets the result 255, which means that the data is stored correct, it returns a '0'. If it is not right, the function returns an '1'.

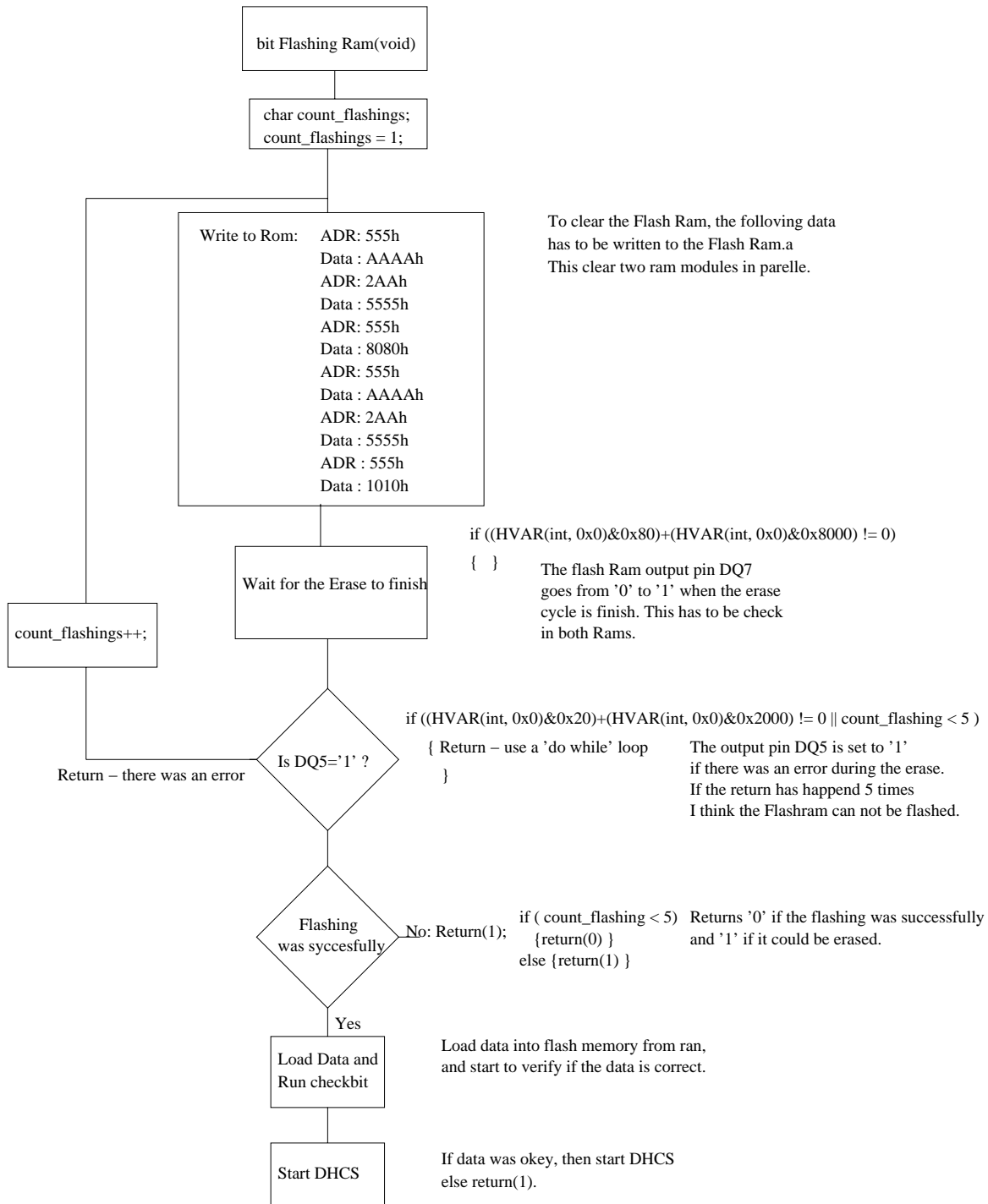


Figure 3.4: *Flash\_memory function flowchart.*

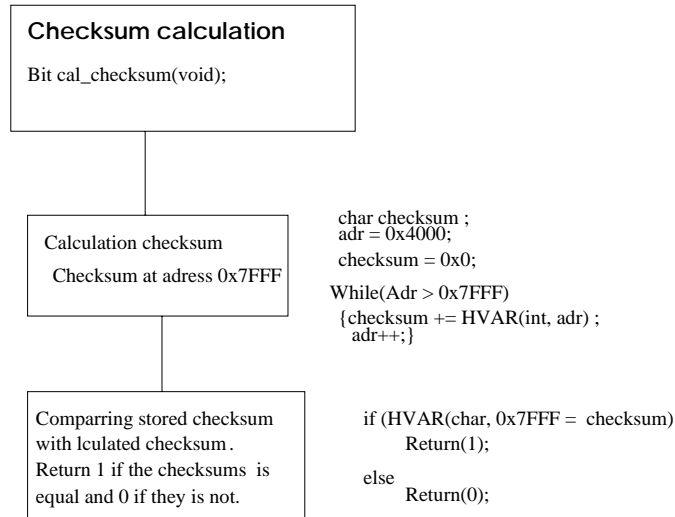


Figure 3.5: *Checkbit\_cal function flowchart.*

## 3.2 Hamming corection of 2 errors

Hamming code corection is easy to implement on a computer if all code and decode calculations are executed in matrix notation. This section describes how it is possible to make a Hamming code correction that is able of correcting 2 errors. The proces exists of 2 functions like the Hamming(12,8) error corection. All calculations is done in a field where only the numbers 0 to 15 are available, that is, only 4 bit is used.

### 3.2.1 Encoding

It is only possible to encode 5 bit at a time so every byte has to be split into sequences of 5 bit. These 5 bit is organized in a column vector. To encode these 5 bit these must be multiplied with a BCH(k,t) matrix. The number k is 4 which derives from the 4 checkbit in the linear Hamming code. The number t tells how many errors that can be corrected. Using Euclids algorithm for decoding, it is possible to correct 2 errors. After encoding every byte has changed to 2x15 bit encoded word.

### 3.2.2 Decoding and corect

Decoding and correct consist of 3 steps. Every 15 bit is taken one by one. First the word has to be decoded which is done by multiplying a Vandermonde matrix V(k,t) with the 15 bit column vector. The dimension of this



matrix is  $15 \times 6$ . The numbers  $k$  and  $t$  has the same value as when encoding. In this case  $k$  equals to 4 and  $t$  equals to 3. A  $V(4,3)$  matrix has 6 rows and 15 column. The result of the multiplication is a 6 row vector. This is transposed into a 6 column vector.

Second, by using Euclids algorithm on the 6 column vector, three coefficient for a second degree polynomial can be found.

The third thing to do is to find the roots in this polynomial. To do that, the Horner's scheme, in this specific field, is used. See figure 3.6 for a flow chart of the code-decode sequence.

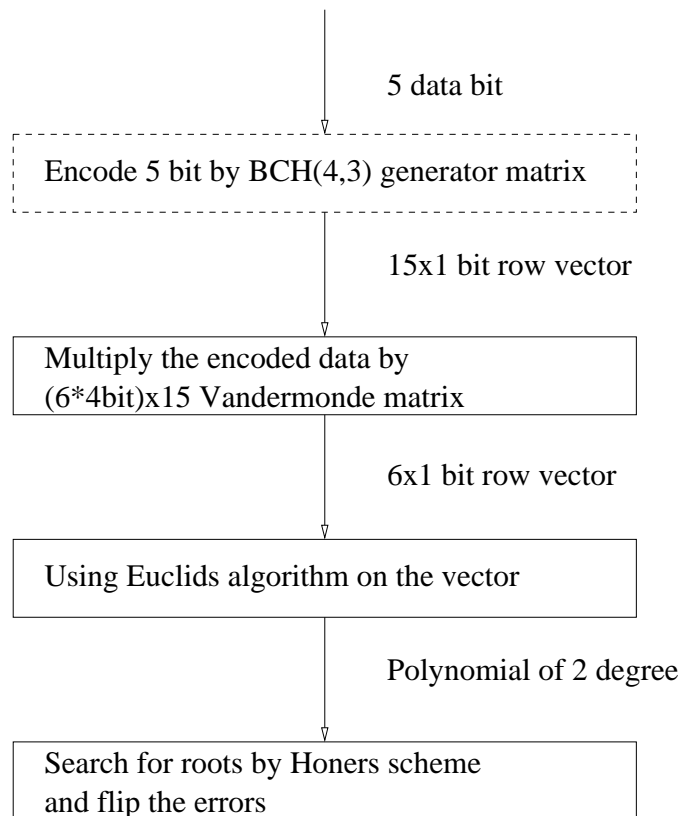


Figure 3.6: Flowchart of coding and decoding

# FPGA

**Description:** This document contains information about how to select, programme and implement a FPGA (Field Programmable Gate Array) as the address decoder on the Cubesat Obc. **Responsible group:** process 732,

01gr732@control.auc.dk

**Subsystem:** On Board Computer.

**Date:** 19.12.01

**Rev.:** 1

**File name:** OBC\_design.pdf

**Path:** [http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokument/OBC\\_design.pdf](http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokument/OBC_design.pdf)

# Chapter 4

## FPGA

A Fpga has been designed to manage the address decoding from both the obc and the camera. The decoder logic was to begin with implemented in two PEEL circuits, but after consulting with TERMA and ESA it was decided to change that, and implement the address decoder logic in one FPGA, because of the versatility of a FPGA it was also possible to implement the three counters, that were previously implemented in three separate circuits. thereby decreasing the complexity of the hardware.

Terma recommended that a FPGA from the manufacture Actel was used. Actel has a lot of experience and knowhow regarding space components.

### 4.1 Choosing a FPGA

The relative simple complexity of the decoder logic, allowed use of the eX fpga series from Actel.

The eX family has some features that makes it very suitable for low cost space applications. **Some features:**

- 3.9 ns Clock-to-Out (Pad-to-Pad)
- High-Performance, Low-Power Antifuse FPGA.
- Very Low Static Current (as low as 397  $\mu$ A).
- LP/Sleep Mode for Additional Power Savings.
- Advanced Small-footprint Packages.
- Live on power up.

- Power-Up/Down Friendly (No Sequencing Required for Supply Voltages).
- Configurable Weak-Resistor Pull-up or Pull-down for Tristated Outputs at Power Up.
- Individual Output Slew Rate Control.
- 2.5V, 3.3V, and 5.0V Mixed Voltage Operation with 5.0V.

The FPGA eX128TQ100I was chosen, as it supported what was needed for the design, and it allows the design to contain redundancy circuits. The eX128TQ100I contains.

- 128 flip-flops
- 6000 system gates
- 70 user I/O's

## 4.2 Designing the FPGA

The design tool used to programme the FPGA was the "Libero" integrated design environment supplied by Actel.

A free "Libero silver" edition was obtained and installed on a computer.

In order to programme the FPGA an arrangement was made with TERMA to use their equipment.

### **FPGA circuit**

On figure 4.1 the diagram of the address decoder logic implemented on the FPGA is shown.

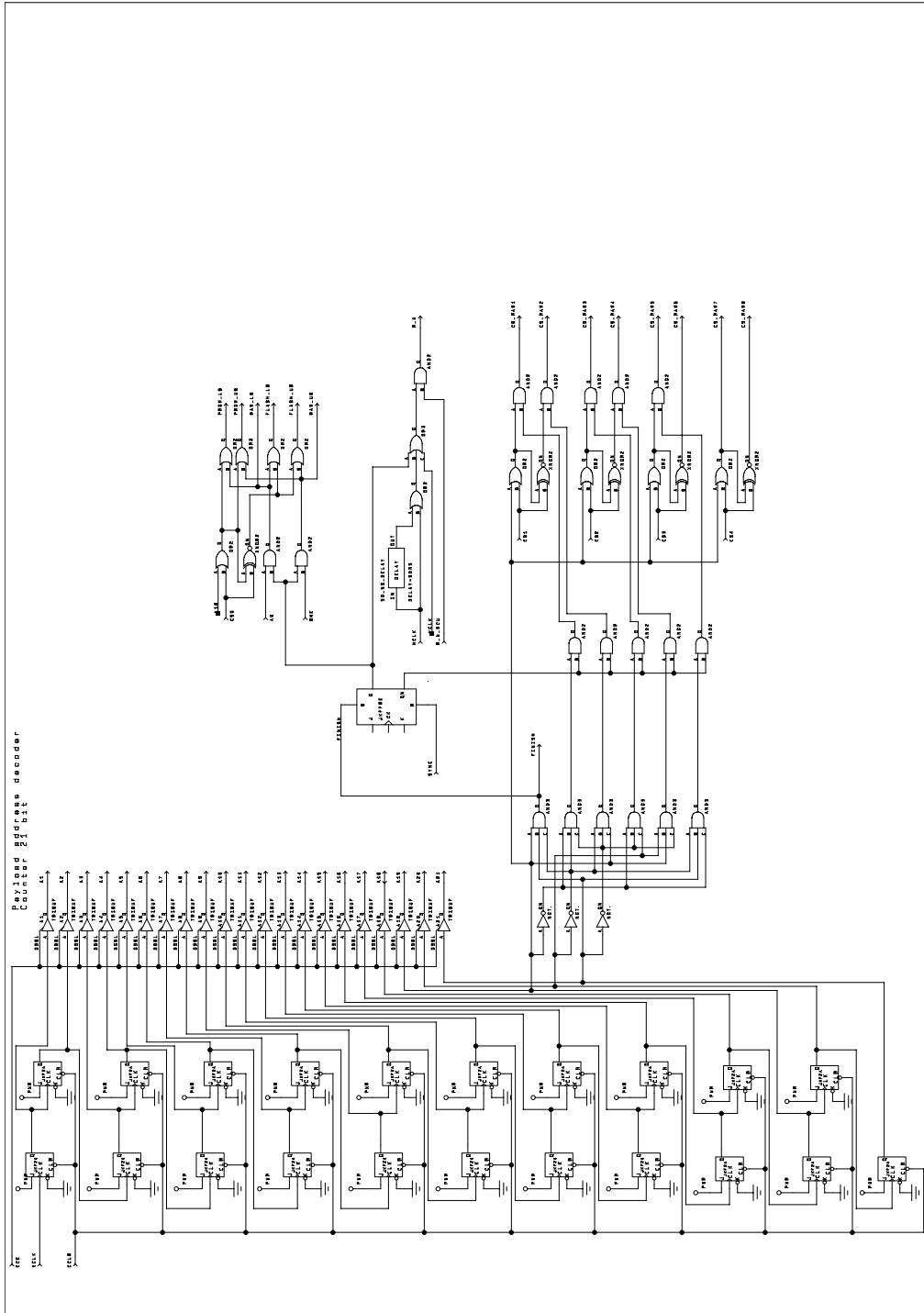


Figure 4.1: *FPGA logic*

## Pin assignment

Pin number	Function	Pin number	Function
1	GND	45	A14
2	TDI	46	A15
6	CCE	47	A16
7	TMS	48	A17
8	$V_{CCI}$	49	TDO
9	GND	50	A18
10	VCLK	51	GND
11	CCLR	55	A19
12	SYNC	56	A20
13	BHE	57	$V_{CCI}^*$
14	HCLK	58	$V_{CCI}^*$
15	R_W_MCU	59	A21
16	TRST	60	PROM_LB
17	CS0	61	PROM_UB
18	CS1	62	RAM_LB
19	CS2	63	RAM_UB
20	$V_{CCI}$	64	FLASH_LB
21	CS3	65	FLASH_UB
22	CS4	66	R_W
25	A0	67	$V_{CCA}$
26	A1	68	GND,LP
27	A2	69	GND
28	A3	70	CS_RAM1
29	A4	71	CS_RAM2
30	A5	72	CS_RAM3
31	A6	76	CS_RAM4
32	A7	77	CS_RAM5
33	A8	78	CS_RAM6
34	PRB	79	CS_RAM7
35	$V_{CCA}$	80	CS_RAM8
36	GND	81	FINISH
38	A9	82	$V_{CCI}$
39	HCLK	87	CLKA
40	A10	88	CLKB
41	A11	90	$V_{CCA}$
42	A12	91	GND
43	A13	92	PRA
44	$V_{CCI}$	100	TCK

# Camera payload

**Description:** The purpose of this document is to describe the payload of the Cubesat. The payload has been chosen to be a camera unit. The document will describe the purpose of the payload, the design of a suitable lens, the camera unit and the interfaces to it. It will also try to cover some of the considerations and suggestions that were conceived during the design of this unit.

**Responsible group:** OBC, 01gr732@control.auc.dk

**Subsystem:** On Board Computer & Camera Unit.

**Date:** 19.12.01

**Rev.:** 1.0

**File name:** OBC\_design.pdf

**Path:** [http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokumenter/OBC\\_design.pdf](http://www.cubesat.auc.dk/dokumenter/OBC_design.pdf)

## Literature:

[1] Light Measurement Handbook, Alex Ryer, pdf-document from International Light (<http://www.control.auc.dk/01gr732/pdf/light-handbook.pdf>).

# Chapter 5

## Payload

### 5.1 Introduction

During the preliminary Cubesat meetings in the summer of 2001 the mission of the satellite was discussed. Among the many mission objectives were e.g. testing of components for space feasibility and measurement of the space environment regarding radiation and temperature. The missions were though very limited since the necessary payload for the mission should be small in weight, measure and powerconsumption. Later on it was decided that a camera would be a realistic payload. The primary mission was decided as: Letting companies, research institutes and the general public take pictures of Denmark via the Internet. The purpose of this is to provide free scientific information and increasing the general interest for space technology and natural science altogether. Later the CubeSat project was contacted by Århus University. They were interested in using the camera to measure star light intensity. It will not be needed to change the satellite or modify current designs to carry out this secondary mission.

### 5.2 Preliminary research

At one of the Cubesat meetings it was decided that we should make some preliminary research in what kind of camera would be realistic to implement into the satellite. Four different cameras were looked upon:

- The PC67XC/2 fig:5.1. A complete CCD camera solution from the company Supercircuits(<http://www.supercircuits.com>). The company advertises on their website that this camera has been used by NASA for a spaceflight. The resolution is 251.904pixel. If taking a 100km



x 100km picture of earth the resolution would be 195m x 203m. The good thing about the camera is that it is a complete solution incl. a standard lens mount (C-mount). The solution is also fairly cheap and is available for 130\$. On the other hand the camera comes with an analogue interface and has a 10 - 16V interface consuming 3 - 4.8W.



Figure 5.1: PC67XC/2 photo chip from Supercircuits.

- PB-MV40 fig:5.2. This is a HighSpeed CMOS photochip from the company Photobit(<http://www.photobit.com>). This means that is simply the chip that converts optical light into a digital signal and places it onto its ports. The chip needs a structure to hold a lens and some interfacing before it can be implemented as a camera. The resolution of this camera is 4mill pixel. If again we were to take a picture of earth it would give a resolution of 50m x 50m. The good thing is that the chip has a very high resolution, a low powerconsumption (700mW @ 250 frames pr. second) and is fast. On the other hand one chip cost about 2000\$ and need work before it can be implemented.

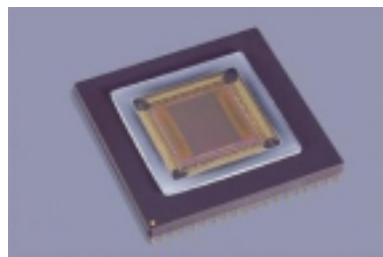


Figure 5.2: PB-MV40 photo chip from Photobit.

- PB-MV13 fig:5.3. This HighSpeed CMOS photochip is also from Photobit(<http://www.photobit.com>). This version has a 1.3mill. pixel resolution. This gives a resolution when taking a 100km x 100km picture of 78m x 98m. The chip also has a freeze-frame function, which means that it takes the picture in a single shot. Other camerachips read the value of each pixel one at the time. This camera reads all pixels simultaneously - making it extremely fast. The good thing is that it is fast and has a low powerconsumption (150mW @ 60 frames pr. second). On the other hand it costs about 1700\$ and need work before it can be implemented.

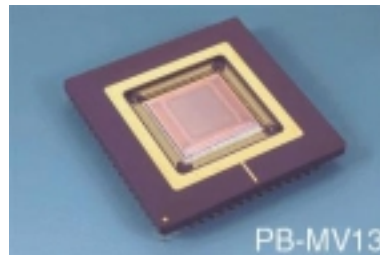


Figure 5.3: PB-MV13 camera chip from Photobit.

- MCM20027 fig:5.4. This chip is manufactured by the well-known firm Motorola(<http://www.motorola.com>). It has a resolution of 1.3mill pixel, which as above gives a resolution of 78m x 98m. It comes for about 22\$ when buying 10.000 units. The price for one unit is not known but it is expected to be much cheaper than the Photobit chips above.

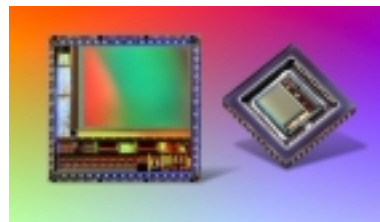


Figure 5.4: MCM20027 camera chip from Motorola.

### Pro and cons

Each camera has been rated regarding different criteria (fig:5.2). The rating is from — as the worst rating to +++ as the best. The criterias have also

Camera	Weight	PB-MV40	PB-MV13	MCM20027	PC67XC/2
Power consumption	5	++	+++	++	—
Resolution	3	+++	+	+	-
Price	1	-	+	++	++
Interface	4	-	-	+	-
Size	4	+	+	+	++
Weight	5	+	+	+	++
Type of shutter	2	++	+++	++	+
Temperature range	5	++	++	+	0
Additional work before implementation	4	—	—	-	-
Availability	2	+	+	+++	+
Voltage level	4	+++	+++	++	—
Result		38	42	43	-13

Table 5.1: Camera weighting.

been weighted after their importance to the project.

The conclusion of the weighting is that the best choice of camera is a camera based on the MCM20027 from Motorola.

### 5.3 Construction of the camera

The camerachip will need some additional implementation before it can be used. Since we have no prior experience in this kind of technology and we are under a tight schedule to finish the on board computer the group decided that it could not spare the manpower to develop a camera unit itself. Instead it contacted the Danish company Devitech (<http://www.devitech.dk>) currently resided in Nørresundby. Devitech is a company that produces dedicated camera solutions for specific assignments. After a short meeting with Niels Heeser Nielsen, the managing director and Peter Jüergensen project engineer it was decided to initiate collaboration in the making of a dedicated camera for the CubeSat. Devitech are currently working on a camera prototype based on the kac-1310 (kodak) camera chip very similar to the MCM20027. The prototype is scheduled to be finished 1. December. Devitech has decided to sponsor this prototype free of charge to the project. They have furthermore agreed to use both engineering manpower and money in making a specific version that will suit the project.

### 5.3.1 Interfacing the camera unit

The camera unit will need some interfacing before we can use it on board the satellite.

#### I<sup>2</sup>C

First of all it will be needed to set up different registers in the camera such as gain and shutter mode. This initialization can be done via the I<sup>2</sup>C bus already decided to connect the different units in the satellite. The camera from Devitech is I<sup>2</sup>C programmable as standard.

#### The port configuration of the camera

When the camera is taking a picture it will lower the voltage on a dedicated TRIGGER-port on the unit. This will signal the OBC that there is picture data from the camera. The camera works by integrating the value of each pixel one by one. The 10-bit value will be read out on a 10-bit dataport. When data is ready on the dataport the HLOCK-port will go low. The camera will be set to integrate the pixels in vertical lines. This is done to prevent data loss when switching between the different 256kbyte memory modules. When a line has been finished the camera unit will raise the voltage on a VLOCK-port for a short period to indicate that it is beginning on a new line. The exposure time (integration time) is controlled by a pixelclock supplied from external logic. The external logic / Camera-OBC interface is described in the OBC design document.

#### Power interface

The camera is based on a 5V powerbus as supplied by the satellites power-supply. The camera consumes up to 400mW but only 300mW at 13.5Mhz which is a little above the frequency we are planning to use. The camera can go into a stand-by mode where it consumes 50mW.

### 5.3.2 Exposure

It is important to ensure that the camera will have the right exposure when taking the picture. The camera has two different programmable gain functions. This means that you can set a gain factor of the value of each pixel. The first gain function can set the gain between 0.483 and 7.488. The second function (raw gain mode) can set the gain between 0.0695 and 1.36925. If the gain is set above 1 the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) will increase significantly

hence making the picture quality decrease. It is therefore better to expose the camerachip too much instead of too little. To make sure that this is the case the following estimate of the light intensity from earth has been made:

Light reflected from earth (albedo): 30%  
 (<http://www.spennis.oma.be/spennis/ecss/ecss06/ecss06.html>)

Variation in reflection: Max 20%  
 (<http://www.solarviews.com/eng/earth.htm#stats>)

Light intensity from the sun outside the atmosphere:  $1370Wm^2$   
 Light intensity from the sun at the surface of the earth:  $1000Wm^2$   
 (clear day at noon, <http://www.solarpartners.org/tnoteseff.html>)

Intensity loss in the atmosphere:  $\frac{(1370-1000)}{1370} = 27\%$

Light intensity seen from CubeSat:  
 $(0.3 \cdot 1000Wm^2) \cdot (1 - 0.27) = 219Wm^2 = 16425lux$

Normal light intensity indoor: 200 - 500lux  
 (<http://www.indeklima.at.dk/maaling/html/indhold/afsnit7.html>)

According to Devitech the cameras light sensitivity is good enough to take pictures indoor. The diameter of lens in front of the camera will affect the amount of light that will illuminate the camerachip. This will be described later in detail. It is though weighted that the illumination from earth is so strong that this factor will have a limited saying. Hence comparing the estimated amount of light with the normal indoor light intensity it is estimated that there will be enough light intensity to exposure the camerachip. The light intensity will be adjusted later by turning down the gain on the camera. This will be made by additional experiments on the cameraunit.

### 5.3.3 Robustness of camera.

The camera components have no protection against radiation. This means that the camera can be disturbed by radiation and the taking of the picture may be corrupted. Since the camera will only be active for a very short period of time it is weighted that rate of errors will be fairly small. The temperature range of the camera is according to Devitech limited to the temperature range of the camerachip. According to the datasheet of the kac-1310 camera chip

the operating temperature of the chip is  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  -  $40^{\circ}\text{C}$ . This means that either a passive or active thermal control of the camera is needed. A passive thermal control is recommended since the active control will require some sort of heating device, which will add to the list of hardware needed and the power consumption. The passive thermal control could be implemented by leaving the camera unit in stand-by mode. The power consumed will then heat the camera. Also due to the needed length from lens to camera (46.5mm) the camera will be placed in the middle of the satellite. Here the temperature deviations aren't as big as in the regional areas. The camera unit will also be fitted with a temperature sensor so that we can monitor the camera and abort the taking of a picture if the temperature is too low.

### 5.4 Structure budget of camera.

The camera will be up to 50mm x 50mm. It will be a Printed Circuit Board (PCB) with components on both sides. On one side the camera chip will be placed. This chip is 5mm thick. The total depth of the unit will probably be about 15mm. The total weight of the camera unit will be under 30g.

### 5.5 Lens

To comply with the specifications on taking a 100km x 100km picture of earth (footprint) we need a lens in front of the camera chip. The lens also has an effect on the amount of light exposed on the camera chip. To design the lens the following calculations were needed.

#### 5.5.1 Designing the lens

In this section the optical design is going to be analysed. At first it is important to know how far from the CMOS-chip the lens should be placed. If this distance is more than 100mm, which is the length of the Cubesat, then it is not possible to use only one lens. Second is to discuss what kind of lens is the optimal for this specific purpose. Maybe it is possible to use a low-price lens that has a certain amount of distortion which will not affect the quality of the picture because the resolution on the CMOS-chip is lower than the distortion of the lens. Another possible aspect is to get the lens which is optimal for the Cubesat and within a reasonable price limit. In the end of this paper it will be discussed what should be the next step in order to get a lens which is suitable for the AAU Cubesat.

### 5.5.2 Placing the lens in focus

To get the best picture of Denmark it is important to place the lens the right distance from the camera. This lens distance vary according to the distance to and the high of the object the camera is looking at. In the Cubesat's lifetime this lens distance will remain the same because the camera has the same object, the same orbit and approximately the same height. The change in the satellite altitude has all together no influence on the picture quality because it is very small in proportion to the distance from the earth to the Cubesat.

The area the camera is going to take the pictures of is decided to be about 100x100 km and the area on the camera chip where it is optical sensitive is 7.68x6.14mm. In order to get the best result the entire sensitive area of the chip ought to be used when taking the picture. The chip is rectangular and therefore the picture of earth will be so too.

The model below illustrates the travelling of light from the object through the lens to the photo chip.

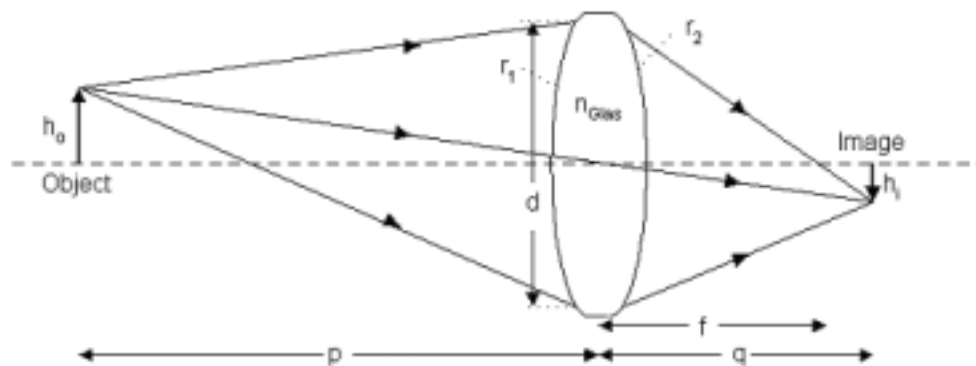


Figure 5.5: Light from object to image.

$h_o$ : Height of object.

$h_i$ : Height of image.

$p$ : Distance from object to lens.

$q$ : Distance from lens to image.

In the CubeSat project the height of the object ( $h_o$ ) is 100km and the distance ( $p$ ) is 600km. To calculate the distance from the lens to the chip ( $q$ ) the magnification equation is very useful:

$$m = \frac{h_i}{h_o} = -\frac{q}{p} \quad (5.1)$$

In order to get the entire chip to take the picture, the longest side of the chip is used to calculate the distance  $q$ :

$$q = -\frac{h_i}{h_o} \cdot p = -\frac{7.68mm}{100km} \cdot 600km = \underline{-46.08mm} \quad (5.2)$$

The distance from the lens to the camera is -4,608cm which means it is possible to use only one lens inside the Cubesat.

When looking for a lens it is important to know how long the focal length ( $f$ ) is. The focal length can be calculated by means of the lens' equation :

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \quad (5.3)$$

$$f = \frac{p \cdot q}{p + q} = \frac{600km \cdot 46.08mm}{600km + 46.08mm} \approx \underline{46.08mm} \quad (5.4)$$

In the Cubesat's case the focal length almost equals the distance  $q$  because the distance to the object is so large. The next step is to use the lens maker's equation and to find a lens which has the three parameters that approximately matches the focal length.

Lens Maker's equation :

$$\frac{1}{f} = (n - 1) \left( \frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right) \quad (5.5)$$

In the following, different lenses will be taken into consideration and in the end one selected.

### 5.5.3 Different lenses

When deciding what kind of lens that should be use in the AAU Cubesat, the environment has to be taken into account. The lens is placed in a vacuum environment and the lens will be exposed to at lot of radiation. Therefore the following demands must be fulfilled :



- The lens may not have any closed airspaces which can erupt in vacuum.
- The lens glass may not deteriorate during the first year in space (radiation).
- If more than one lens is cemented together, the binding material may not deteriorate during the first year in space (radiation).
- Rapid changes in the temperatur may not damage the lens glass.

There are several kinds of lens types, but the best to use when looking at an object at an infinite distance, is an Acromat-lens or a Triplet-lens. The Acromat is cheaper and lighter than the triplet because the Acromat is a composite of only to lenses where the triplet is a composite of three lenses. The triplet on the other hand has in most cases the advantage of less optical distortion (a less blurred image). The crucial part is to get the optical distortion smaller than then the size of one pixel on the CMOS-chip in our case the pixel is 6x6mm.

With the help of Carl-Erik Sølberg (*Engineer lic.tech. instisute 13 at Aalborg University*), the two lenses have been simulated in order to find out how big the distortion would be for each lens type. The problem is that not even the best lens would be able to focus all colours from on specific point in the object to the same specific point in the image. The problem is negligible if the lens would be able to focus all colours within on pixel and that is why we are able to judge whether to use an Acromat or a Triplet lens on the AAU-Cubesat.

The simulation results were :

	<i>In the middle of the image</i>	<i>In the corner of the image</i>
<i>Acromat-lens</i>	<i>A spot of 5x5mm</i>	<i>An elliptical spot of 100x50mm</i>
<i>Triplet-lens</i>	<i>A spot of 7x7mm</i>	<i>An elliptical spot of 15x8mm</i>

The simulation reveals that it is impossible to avoid blur when using the two lenses with a pixel size of 6x6mm. Therefore to get best possible picture with minimum blur in the corner, it is advisable to use a Triplet-lens.

Another calculation Carl-Erik Sølberg made, is how large the diameter of the diaphragm should be. Without lens-error the diffraction of the light makes a spot on 10mm with a diaphragm of 6mm. Because of that the diaphragm in the Cubesat has to be at least 12mm to keep the spots smaller than the pixel size.

### 5.5.4 Structure budget of lens

*The physical dimensions of the lens is as given above. The total mass of the lens is approximately 20g.*

### 5.6 Structure between camera and lens.

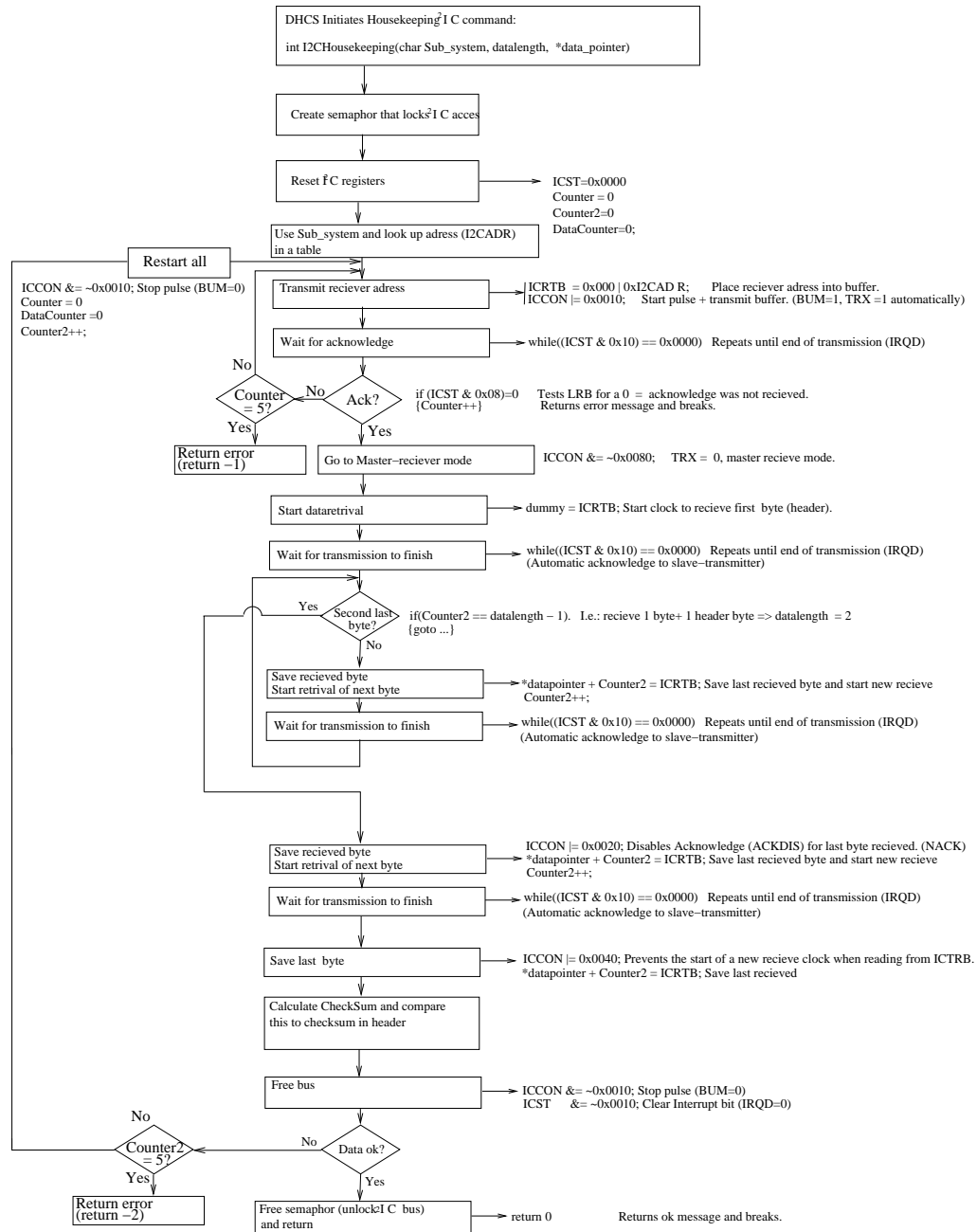
*The camera unit needs to be mounted very precise in front of the lens. This is to ensure that the light hits the camera chip in the precise distance of the lens. Otherwise we can risk that the picture will be blurred. To ensure this there should be mounted some sort of structure between the lens and camera PCB. The diameter of the structure should equal the diameter of the lens and the length should equal the focal length calculated above. The structure is defined by the structure group.*

Part I  
Appendix



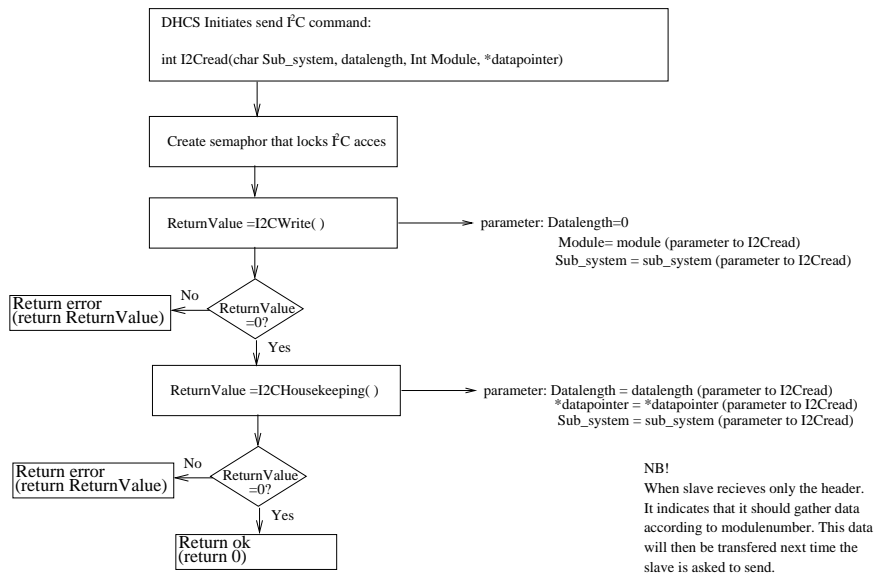
# Appendix A

## I<sup>2</sup>C housekeeping



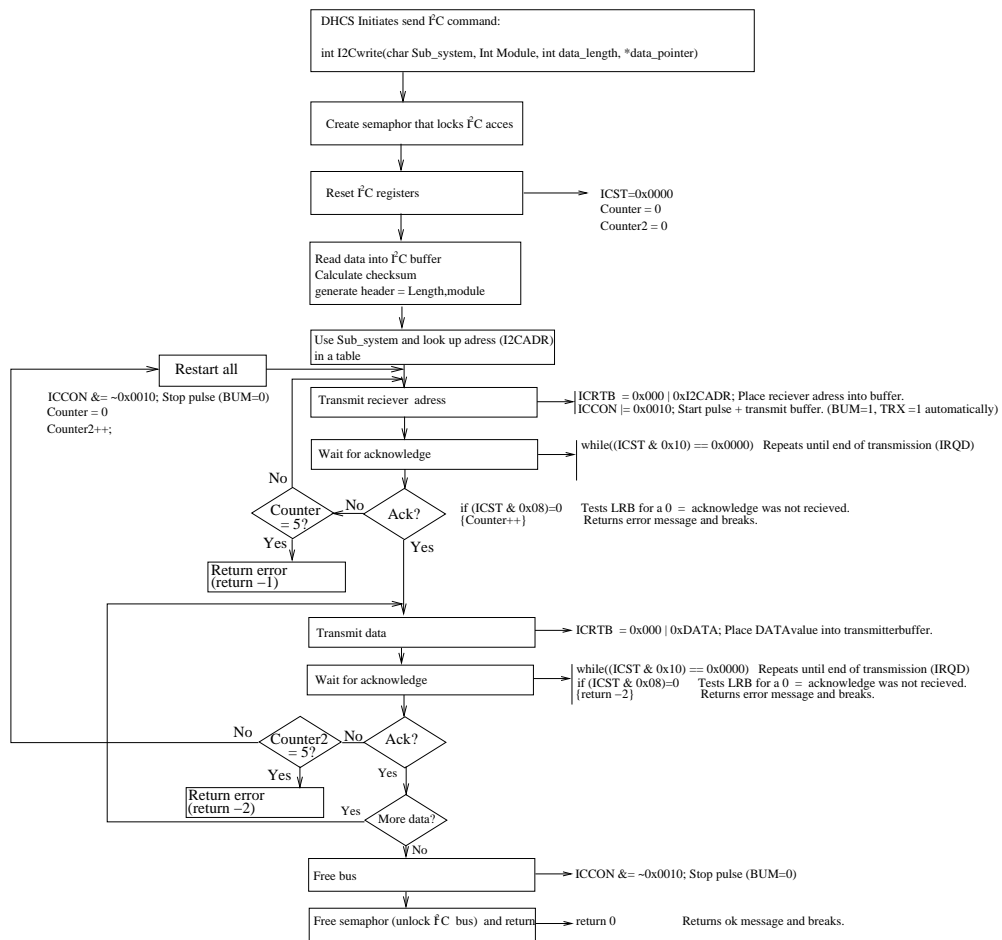
# Appendix B

## I<sup>2</sup>C read structure



# Appendix C

## I<sup>2</sup>C write structure





# Appendix D

## OBC software structure

