Lecture 4: Mobile Ad Hoc and Sensor Networks (I)

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Courtesy of G.G. Richard III for providing some of the slides

Mobile Ad Hoc Networks

May need to traverse multiple links to reach a destination



Mobile Ad Hoc Networks

• Mobility causes route changes



Mobile Ad Hoc Networks

- Formed by wireless hosts which may be mobile
- Don't need a pre-existing infrastructure

 ie, don't need a backbone network, routers, etc.
- Routes between nodes potentially contain multiple hops
- Why MANET?
 - Ease, speed of deployment
 - Decreased dependence on infrastructure
 - Can use in many scenarios where deployment of a wired network is impractical or impossible
 - Lots of military applications, but there are others...

Many Applications

- Personal area networking
 - cell phone, laptop, ear phone, wrist watch
- Civilian environments
 - meeting rooms
 - sports stadiums
 - groups of boats, small aircraft (wired REALLY impractical!!)
- Emergency operations
 - search-and-rescue
 - policing and fire fighting
- Sensor networks
 - Groups of sensors embedded in the environment or scattered over a target area

Many Variations

- Traffic characteristics may differ
 - Bandwidth/timeliness/reliability requirements
 - unicast / broadcast / multicast / geocast
- Symmetric/Asymmetric Capabilities (hetero/homo-geneous)
 - transmission ranges and radios may differ
 - battery life at different nodes may differ
 - processing capacity may be different at different nodes
 - speed of movement different
 - only some nodes may route packets
 - some nodes may act as leaders of nearby nodes (e.g., "a cluster head")

Challenges

- Limited wireless transmission range
- Broadcast nature of the wireless medium
- Packet losses due to transmission errors
- Rapidly changing topology
- Mobility-induced route changes
- Mobility-induced packet losses
- Battery constraints
- Potentially frequent network partitions
- Ease of snooping on wireless transmissions
- Sensor networks: <u>very</u> resource-constrained!

Hidden Terminal Problem



Nodes A and C cannot hear each other

Transmissions by nodes A and C can collide at node B

On collision, both transmissions are lost

Nodes A and C are <u>hidden</u> from each other

First Issue: Routing

- Why is Ad hoc Routing Different?
- Host mobility
 - link failure/repair due to mobility may have different characteristics than those due to other causes
 - traditional routing algorithms assume relatively stable network topology, with few router failures
- Rate of link failure/recovery may be high when nodes move fast
- New performance criteria may be used
 - route stability despite mobility
 - energy consumption (because routers are not connected to power)

Routing Protocols

- Proactive protocols
 - Determine routes independent of traffic pattern
- Reactive protocols
 - Discover/maintain routes only if needed (i.e., on demand)

Trade-Off: Proactive vs. Reactive

- Latency of route discovery
 - Proactive protocols may have lower latency since routes are maintained at all times
 - Reactive protocols may have higher latency because a route from X to Y will be found only when X attempts to send to Y
- Overhead of route discovery/maintenance
 - Reactive protocols may have lower overhead since routes are determined only if needed
 - Proactive protocols can (but not necessarily) result in higher overhead due to continuous route updating
- Which approach achieves a better tradeoff depends on the traffic and mobility patterns

Flooding for Data Delivery

- Sender S broadcasts data packet P to all its neighbors
- Each node receiving P forwards P to its neighbors
- Sequence numbers will be used to avoid the possibility of forwarding the same packet more than once
- Packet P reaches destination D provided that D is reachable from sender S
- Node D does not forward the packet





Represents a node that has received packet P

Represents that connected nodes are within each other's transmission range





Represents a node that receives packet P for the first time

Represents transmission of packet P



Node H receives packet P from two neighbors: potential for collision



Node C receives packet P from G and H, but does not forward it again, because node C has already forwarded packet P once



Nodes J and K both broadcast packet P to node D Since nodes J and K are hidden from each other, their transmissions may collide

=> Packet P may not be delivered to node D after all, despite the use of flooding!!



 Node D does not forward packet P, because node D is the intended destination of packet P



Nodes unreachable from S do not receive packet P (e.g., node Z)

Nodes for which all paths from S go through the destination D also do not receive packet P (example: node N)



Flooding may deliver packets to too many nodes (in the worst case, all nodes reachable from the sender may receive the packet)

Flooding for Data Delivery: Advantages

- Simplicity
- Potentially more efficient when transmitting small data packets relatively infrequently and the overhead of explicit route discovery/maintenance incurred by other protocols is relatively high because of topology changes
- Potentially higher reliability of data delivery
 - Because of the existence of multiple paths
 - For high mobility patterns, it may be the only reasonable choice

Flooding for Data Delivery: Disadvantages

- high overhead per packet
 - Flooding is expensive
- Potentially lower reliability of data delivery
 - Flooding uses broadcasting -- hard to implement reliable broadcast delivery without significantly increasing overhead
 - Broadcasting in IEEE 802.11 MAC is unreliable
 - In our example, nodes J and K may transmit to node D simultaneously, resulting in loss of the packet
 - in this case, destination would not receive the packet at all

Flooding of Control Packets

- Many protocols perform (potentially *limited*) flooding of control packets, instead of data packets
- The control packets are used to discover routes
- Discovered routes are subsequently used to send data packets without flooding
- Overhead of control packet flooding is amortized over data packets transmitted between two consecutive control packet floods

Metrics for Ad Hoc Routing

- Want to optimize
 - Number of hops
 - Distance
 - Latency
 - Load balancing for congested links
 - Cost (\$\$\$)
 - Route stability
 - Energy consumption
- Many existing ad hoc routing descriptions use # of hops
- More work recently on latency, load balancing, etc.

Dynamic Source Routing – DSR (Ref [11])

- When node S wants to send a packet to node D, but does not know a route to D, node S initiates a route discovery by flooding a Route Request (RREQ) packet
- Each node appends its identifier when forwarding RREQ
- A route if discovered will return from D to S
- When node S sends a data packet to D, the entire route is included in the packet header
 - hence the name source routing
- Intermediate nodes use the source route included in a packet to determine to whom a packet should be forwarded
- Reactive: Routes are discovered on demand: only when a node wants to send data and the route to destination is not known





Represents a node that has received RREQ for D



Represents transmission of RREQ

[X,Y] Represents list of identifiers appended to RREQ



Node H receives packet RREQ from two neighbors: potential for collision



Node C receives RREQ from G and H, but does not forward it again, because node C has already forwarded RREQ once



Nodes J and K both broadcast RREQ to node D Since nodes J and K are hidden from each other, their transmissions may collide – can insert random delays before forwarding RREQ to avoid collision



Node D does not forward RREQ, because node D is the intended target of the route discovery

Route Discovery in DSR: Part 2

- Destination D, on receiving the first RREQ, sends a Route Reply (RREP)
- RREP is sent on a route obtained by reversing the route of RREQ
- RREP includes the route from D to S on which RREQ was received by node D
 - Node S on receiving RREP, caches the route included in the RREP







Packet header size grows with route length

DSR Optimization: Route Caching

- Each node caches a new route it learns by any means
 - e.g., When node S finds route [S,E,F,J,D] to node D, node
 S also learns route [S,E,F] to node F
 - When node K receives Route Request RREQ [S,C,G] destined for node D, node K learns of reverse route [K,G,C,S] to node S
 - When node F forwards Route Reply RREP [S,E,F,J,D] to S, node F learns route [F,J,D] to node D
 - When node E forwards data through route [S,E,F,J,D] (specified in the header), it learns route [E,F,J,D] to node D
- A node may also learn a route when it overhears data packets, even though it is not directly involved in the transmission

Route Caching (2)

- Use of route cache
 - can speed up route discovery
 - can reduce propagation of route requests
- When node S learns that a route to node D is broken, it uses another route from its local cache, if such a route to D exists in its cache.
- Otherwise, node S initiates route discovery by sending a RREQ packet
- Node X, on receiving a RREQ for some node D, can send a RREP <u>directly</u> if node X knows a route to node D
Route Caching (3)



[P,Q,R] Represents a cached route in a node (DSR maintains the cached routes in a tree format)

Route Caching (4)





when J attempt to forward the data packet (with route SEFJD) to D but J-D fails, J sends a route error packet to S along route J-F-E-S

Nodes hearing RERR update their route cache to remove link J-D

Route Caching: Beware!

- Stale caches can adversely affect performance
- With passage of time and host mobility, cached routes may become invalid
- A sender host may try several stale routes (obtained from local cache, or replied from cache by other nodes), before finding a good route
- It may be <u>more expensive</u> to try several broken routes than to simply discover a new one!
- Wireless link is unreliable, so news of broken routes through RERR may not even propagate completely!

DSR Caching: Advantages

- Routes maintained only between nodes who need to communicate
 - reduces overhead of route maintenance
- Route caching can further reduce route discovery overhead
- A single route discovery may yield many routes to the destination, due to intermediate nodes replying from local caches

DSR Caching: Disadvantages

- An intermediate node may send RREP using a <u>stale</u> cached route, thus polluting other caches
- This problem can be eased if some mechanism to purge (potentially) invalid cached routes is incorporated
 - Static timeout
 - Adaptive timeout of a link based on:
 - expected rate of mobility (mobility prediction is useful here)
 - observed link usage and breakage
- Contention if many RREP packets come back due to nodes replying using their local cache
 - Route Reply Storm problem
 - Don't send if overhearing another RREP with a shorter route

Another Reactive Protocol: Ad-Hoc On-Demand Distance Vector (AODV)

- Same RREQ-RREP-RERR format except that each node maintains a route table
- Significantly more complicated protocol than DSR, because avoiding routing loops is much more difficult
 - Loop elimination easy in DSR because the entire route is available!
- The following pictorial does <u>not</u> expose the complexity of AODV—just to give a basic idea





Represents a node that has received RREQ from S for D







Represents links on Reverse Path, recorded by Intermediate nodes in their route tables



Node C receives RREQ from G and H, but does not forward it again, because node C has already forwarded RREQ once





- When **D** receives RREQ, it **unitcasts** RREP to S (without putting down the entire route on the packet).
- Since each node receiving the request caches a route back to S, the RREP can be unicast back from D to S



Represents links on path taken by RREP



Forward links are recorded in the routing tables when RREP travels along the reverse path

Represents a link on the forward path



Each node uses links stored in the routing table to forward data packet.

Route is *not* included in packet header.

Routing Table Format in AODV



Slide from NIST

Wireless Sensor Networks

- Special case of the general ad hoc networking problem
- Much more resource constrained
- Special-purpose
- May have special restrictions, such as:
 - Re-deployment, movement impossible
 - Recharge impossible
 - Likelihood of many nodes being destroyed, or compromised (through capture)

Typical Sensor Node



Figure 8.1 Generic wireless sensor node.

Typical Sensor Node Features

- A sensor node has:
 - Sensing Material
 - Physical Magnetic, Light, Sound
 - Chemical CO, Chemical Weapons
 - **Biological** Bacteria, Viruses, Proteins
 - Integrated Circuitry (VLSI)
 - A-to-D converter from analog sensor to circuitry
 - Packaging for environmental safety
 - Power Supply
 - Passive Solar, Vibration
 - Active Battery power, magnetic energy

Advances in Wireless Sensor Nodes

Consider Multiple Generations of Berkeley Motes

Model	Mico	Mico 2	Mico 7	Imote2
Model		(Intel)		
Date	2002	2003	2004	2007
CPU	4 MHz	7 MHz	7 MHz	14MHz
Flash	128 KB	128 KB	128 KB	3214
Memory	120 ND			52101
RAM	4 KB	4 KB	4 KB	256KB
Data	10 Khos	76 Khns	250 Khos	250 Khos
rate	40 1005		200 1005	200 1005

Historical Comparison

Consider a 40 Year Old Computer

Model	Honeywell H-300	Mica 2
Date	6/1964	7/2003
CPU	2 MHz	4 MHz
Flash	Nono	128 KB
Memory	INONE	
RAM	32 KB	4 KB

Smart Home / Smart Office/Cyber Physical Systems



- Sensors controlling appliances and electrical devices in the house.
- Better lighting and heating in office buildings.
- The Pentagon building has used sensors extensively.

Military



Remote deployment of sensors for tactical monitoring of enemy troop movements.









Industrial & Commercial

- Numerous industrial and commercial applications:
 - Agricultural Crop Conditions
 - Inventory Tracking
 - Parts Tracking
 - Automated Problem Reporting



- RFID Theft Deterrent and Customer Tracing
- Plant Equipment Maintenance Monitoring

Traffic Management & Monitoring



Sensors embedded in the roads to:

- Monitor traffic flows
- Provide real-time route updates

- Future cars could use wireless sensors to:
 - Handle Accidents
 - Handle Thefts



Query-based Sensor Networks



Figure 8.2 Sample wireless sensor network.

Event-driven Responses from SNs



Figure 8.3 (a) Example of an event-driven sensor response.

Periodic Responses from SNs



Figure 8.3 (b) Example of a periodic sensor response.

Sensor Network Tasks

- Neighbor discovery
- Self configuration (e.g., radio range)
- Sensing, sensor data processing
- Data aggregation, storage, and caching
- Target detection, target tracking, and target monitoring
- Topology control for energy savings (on/off)
- Localization (relative position)
- Time synchronization
- Routing
- Medium access control

Wireless Channel Conditions

- Limitations of wireless channels
 - Noise
 - Interference
 - Link Contention
 - Unidirectional Links



• But inherently a broadcast medium

Constrained Resources

- No centralized authority
- Limited power prolong life is a primary concern
- Wireless communication: more energy consumed and less reliable
- Limited computation and storage lack of computation power/space affects the way security protocol is designed and caching/buffering can be performed.
- Limited input and output options light/speaker only makes diagnosis difficult

Security Issues

- Storing large keys is not practical but smaller keys reduce the security
- More complicated algorithms increase security but drain energy
- Sharing security keys between neighbors with changing membership (due to node failure or addition) needs a scalable key distribution and key management scheme that is resilient to adversary attacks
- Challenge is to provide security that meets the application security requirements while conserving energy

Clustering to Save Resources



Clustering

- Divide the network into a number of equal clusters each ideally containing the same # of nodes
- Cluster heads form a routing backbone
- Data aggregation: Combining cluster data readings into a single packet can save energy

Multihop Routing vs. Energy

- Multihop routing
 - reduces energy consumption (because energy consumed is roughly proportional to square of distance)
 - Introduces extra delay
- Energy consumed in transmitting a packet:
 - powering up the transmitter circuitry
 - proportional to packet size
 - proportional to square of distance
- How long should per-hop distance be?
 - if per-hop distance is too short, then
 - Cost of powering up the transmitter circuitry dominates
 - if per-hop distance is too long, then
 - Cost of packet transmission dominates
 - spatial reuse of bandwidth reduces
 - overhead increases for state information maintenance and scheduling because the number of neighbors within a hop increases
LEACH Clustering

- LEACH rotates cluster heads to balance energy consumption
- Each cluster head performs its duty for a period of time
- Each sensor makes an independent decision in runs on whether to become a cluster head and if yes broadcasts advertisement packets
- Every node generates a random number (*R*) in [0,1] and computes a threshold T = P/(1-P*(r mod(1/P))). It decides to become a cluster head if *R < T*
 - P: cluster head rotation probability (e.g. 5%)
 - r: the current round # in the range of [0, 1/P 1] since last time it is a cluster head

LEACH Clustering (cont.)

- Each sensor that is not a cluster head listens to advertisements and selects the closest cluster head
- Once a cluster head knows the membership, a schedule is created for the transmission from sensors in the cluster to the cluster head to avoid collision (e.g., based on TDMA)
- The cluster head can send a single packet to the base station (directly) over long distance to save energy consumption
- No assurance of optimal cluster distributions

HEED Clustering

- HEED uses the residual energy info for cluster head election to prolong sensor network lifetime
- Probability of a sensor becoming a cluster head is:

$$CH_{prob} = C_{prob} \times \frac{E_{residual}}{E_{max}},$$
 e.g., 5%

- Clusters are elected in iterations:
 - A sensor announces its intention to become a cluster head, along with a cost measure indicating communication cost if it were elected a cluster head
 - A non-CH sensor picks a candidate with the lowest cost
 - A non-CH sensor not covered doubles its CH_{prob} in iterations until CH_{prob} is 1, in which case the sensor becomes a cluster head (this is similar to LEACH)

PEGASIS

- A chain of sensors is formed for data transmission (could be formulated by the base station)
- Finding the optimal chain is NP-complete
- Sensor readings are aggregated hop by hop until a single packet is delivered to the base station: effective when aggregation is possible
- Advantages: No overhead of maintaining cluster heads and no long-distance data transmission
- Disadvantages:
 - Inefficiency in data aggregation: Can use tree instead
 - Disproportionate energy depletion (for sensors near the base station): Can rotate parent nodes in the tree

Aggregation/Duplicate Suppression

- Aggregation of information in a tree structure
 - In-network information processing such as max, min, avg
- Duplication Suppression:
 - On forwarding messages, sensor nodes whose values match those of other sensor nodes can simply annotate the message
 - Or just remain silent, on overhearing identical (or "similar enough") values

Querying a Sensor Network

- Can have sensor nodes periodically transmit sensor readings
- More likely: Ask the sensor network a question and receive an answer
- Issues:
 - Getting the request out to the nodes
 - Getting responses back from sensor nodes who have answers
- Routing:
 - Directed Diffusion Routing
 - Geographic Forwarding (such as Geocasting)

Query-Oriented Routing

- For query-oriented routing: Queries are disseminated from the base station to the sensor nodes in a feature zone
- Sensor readings are sent by sensors to the base station in a reverse flooding order
- Sensor nodes that receive multiple copies of the same message suppress forwarding

Query: Asking a Question



Response to Base Station: Initially



Figure 11.4 Initial processing of an event-driven query.

Directed Diffusion Routing

- Direction: From source (sensors) to sink (base station)
- Positive/negative feedback is used to encourage/discourage sensor nodes for/from forwarding messages toward the base station
 - Feedback can be based on delay in receiving data
 - Positive feedback is sent to the first and negative feedback is sent to others
- A node will forward with low frequency unless it receives positive feedback
- This feedback propagates throughout the sensor network to suppress multiple transmissions
- Eventually message forwarding converges to the use of a single path with data aggregation for energy saving from the source to the base station

Responses, After Some Guidance

Use directed diffusion based on positive/negative feedback to guide response message forwarding



Figure 11.5 Directed diffusion routing paths after redundant path suppression.

Geographic Routing [Ref. 12]

- For dense sensor networks such that a sensor is available in the direction of routing
- Location of destination is sufficient to determine the routing orientation
- Research issue:
 - Selecting reliable paths for delivering messages between sensors, or from sensors to a base station without excessively consuming energy
 - Determining paths that avoid "holes" determining the boundary or perimeter of a hole through local information exchanges periodically to trade energy consumption (for hole detection) vs. routing efficiency

Geographic Forwarding



Figure 11.6 Simple example of geographic forwarding.



Chapters 8-11, F. Adelstein, S.K.S. Gupta, G.G. Richard III and L. Schwiebert, *Fundamentals of Mobile and Pervasive Computing*, McGraw Hill, 2005.

Other References:

- 11. X. Yu, "Distributed cache updating for the dynamic source routing protocol," *IEEE Transactions on Mobile Computing, Vol. 5, No. 6, pp. 2006*, pp. 609-626.
- 12. S. Wu and K.S. Candan, "Power-Aware Single and Multipath Geographic Routing in Sensor Networks," *Ad Hoc Networks, Vol. 5, 2007, pp. 974–997.*