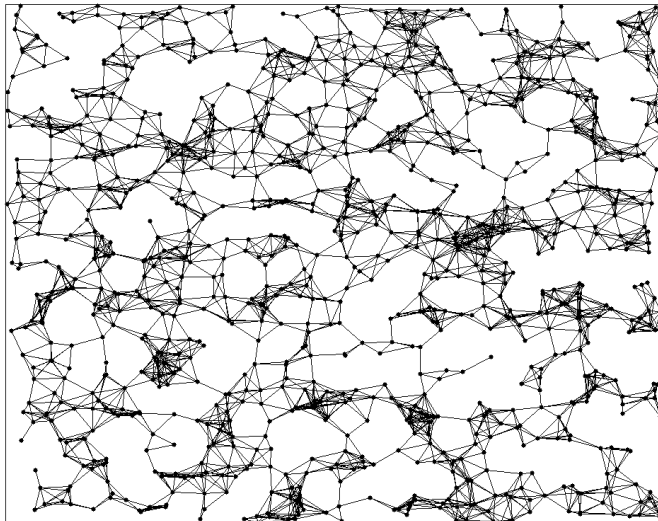


An Introduction to Wireless Sensor Networks



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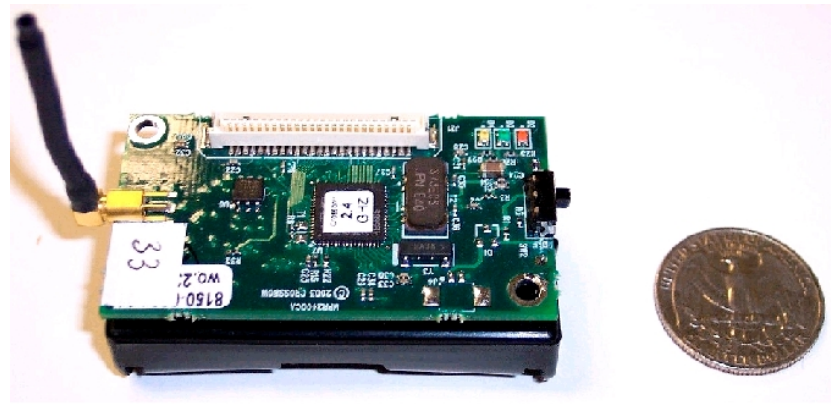
<http://ceng.usc.edu/~bkrishna/>

Tutorial Presented at the Second International Conference on Intelligent Sensing and Information Processing (ICISIP), Chennai, India, January 2005.

Overview

Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN)

- The “many - tiny” principle: wireless networks of thousands of inexpensive miniature devices capable of computation, communication and sensing
- Their use throughout society “could well dwarf previous milestones in the information revolution”: U.S. National Research Council Report, 2001.



Berkeley Mote (MICAz MPR 2400 Series)

Timeline

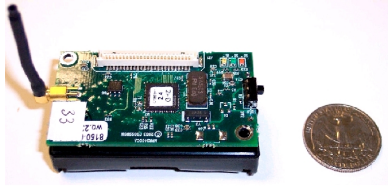
- 1970's: Wired sensors connected to central location
- 1980's: Distributed wired sensor networks
- 1993: LWIM project at UCLA
- 1999-2003: DARPA SensIT project: UC Berkeley, USC, Cornell etc.
- 2001: Intel Research Lab at Berkeley focused on WSN
- 2002: NSF Center for Embedded Networked Sensing
- 2001-2002: Emergence of sensor networks industry; startup companies including Sensoria, Crossbow, Ember Corp, SensiCast plus established ones: Intel, Bosch, Motorola, General Electric, Samsung.
- 2003-2004: IEEE 802.15.4 standard, Zigbee Alliance.

Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN)

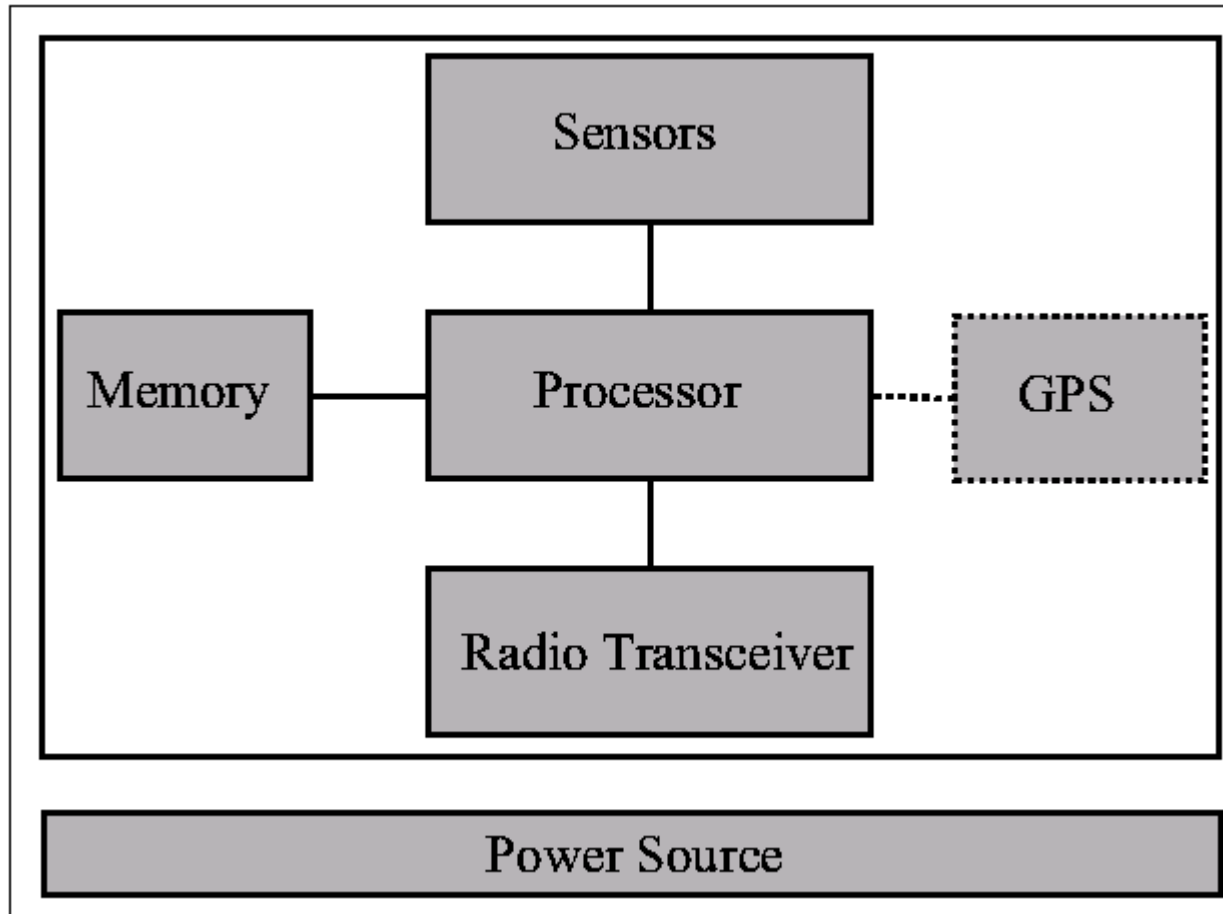
- Provide a bridge between the real physical and virtual worlds
- Allow the ability to observe the previously unobservable at a fine resolution over large spatio-temporal scales
- Have a wide range of potential applications to industry, science, transportation, civil infrastructure, and security.

Some Sample Applications

- Habitat and Ecosystem Monitoring
- Seismic Monitoring
- Civil Structural Health Monitoring
- Monitoring Groundwater Contamination
- Rapid Emergency Response
- Industrial Process Monitoring
- Perimeter Security and Surveillance
- Automated Building Climate Control



Basic Components of a WSN Node



Challenges

- Energy Efficiency
- Responsiveness
- Robustness
- Self-Configuration and Adaptation



Challenges (contd.)

- Scalability
- Heterogeneity
- Systematic Design
- Privacy and Security



Outline for the Rest of the Tutorial

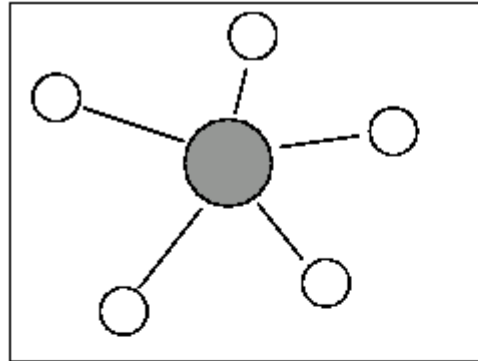
- Deployment
- Localization
- Time Synchronization
- Wireless Link Characteristics
- Medium Access
- Sleep Based Topology Control
- Routing
- Data Centric Networking
- Transport

Deployment

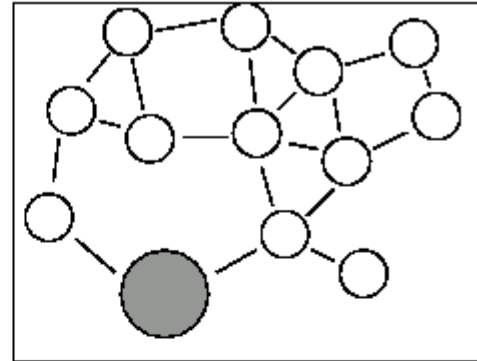
Deployment Issues

- Structured versus Randomized Deployment
- Overdeployed versus Incremental Deployment
- Connectivity and Coverage Metrics of Interest

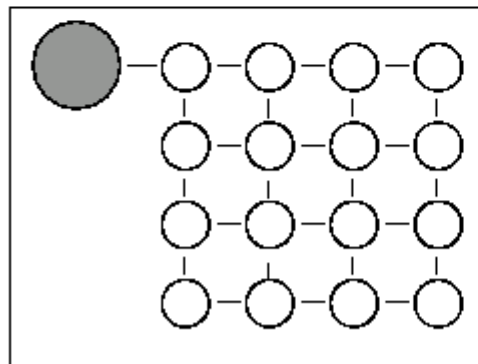
Network Topologies



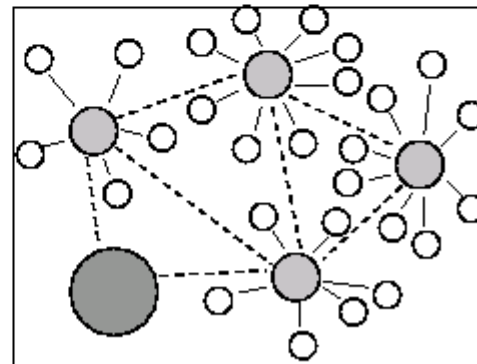
(a)



(b)



(c)

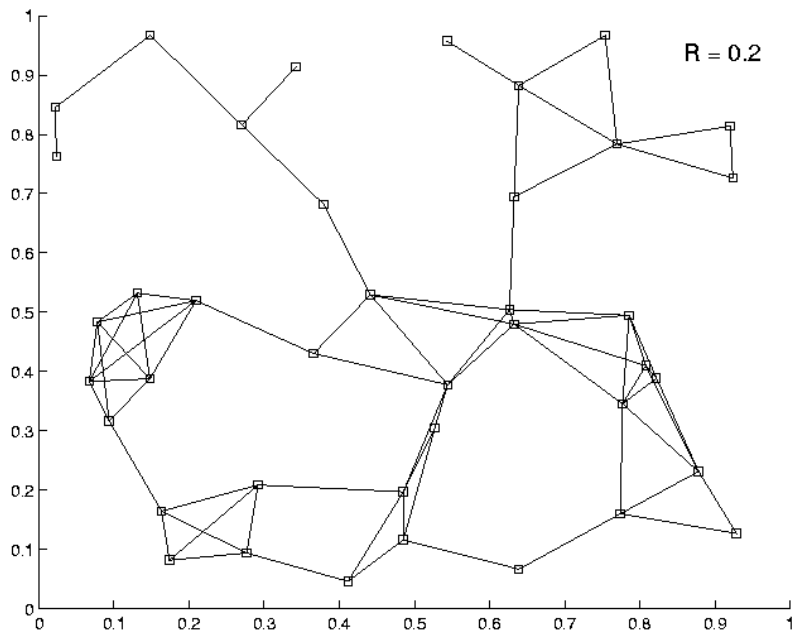


(d)

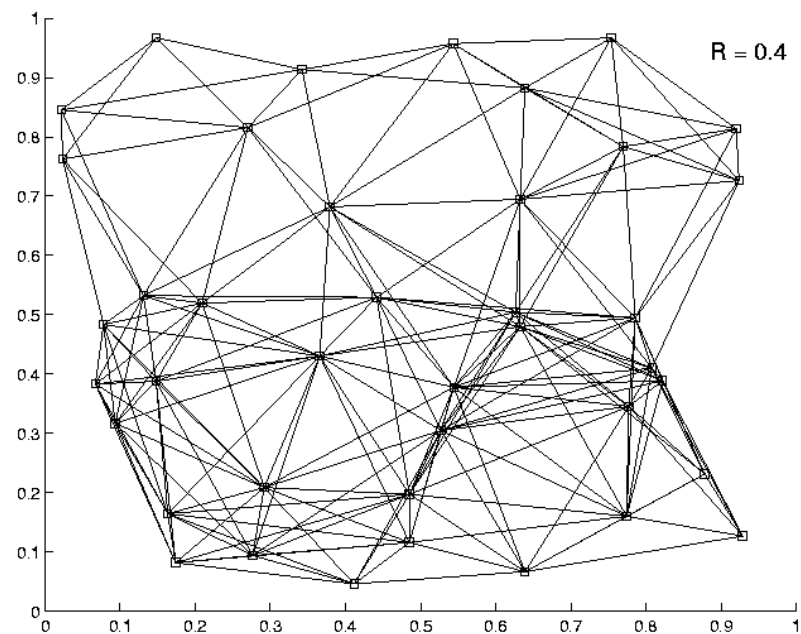
Random Graph Models

- For some applications, WSN nodes could be scattered randomly (e.g. from an airplane)
- Random Graph Theory is useful in analyzing such deployments
- The most common random graph model is $G(n,R)$:
deploy n nodes randomly with a uniform distribution in a unit area, placing an edge between any two that are within Euclidean range R .

Geometric Random Graph $G(n,R)$



sparse

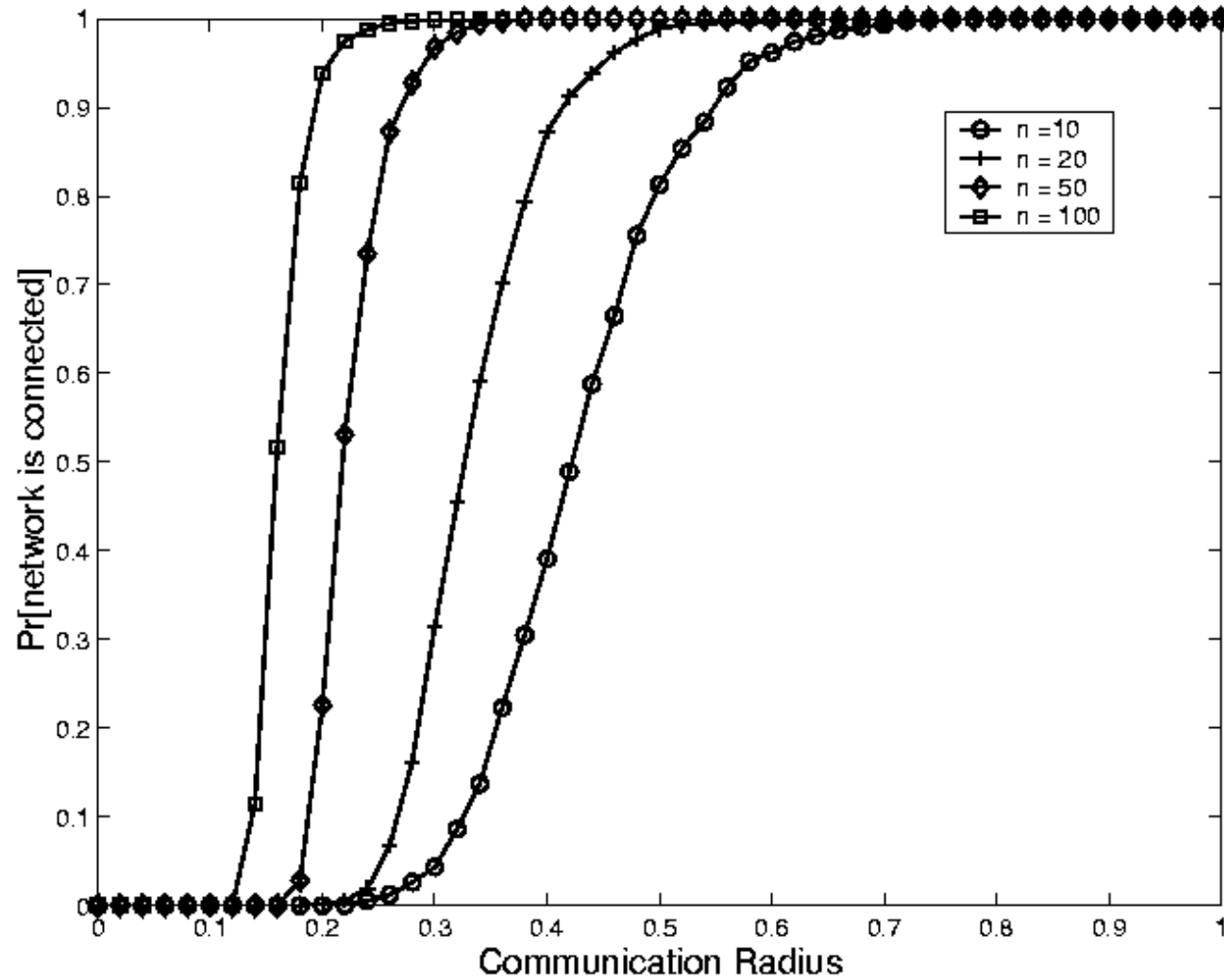


dense

Some Key Results

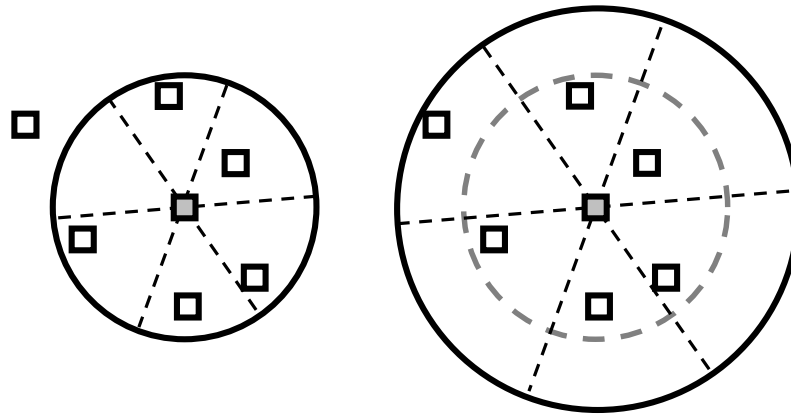
- All monotone graph properties have an asymptotic critical range R beyond which they are guaranteed with high probability (Goel, Rai, and Krishnamachari '04)
- The critical range for connectivity is $O(\sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n}})$ (Penrose '97, Gupta and Kumar '98)
- The critical range to ensure that all nodes have at least k neighbors also ensures k -connectivity w.h.p. (Penrose '99)

Connectivity in $G(n,R)$



Power Control

- Provides a degree of flexibility in configuring the network connectivity after deployment.
- Must carefully balance several factors, including connectivity, energy usage, and interference.



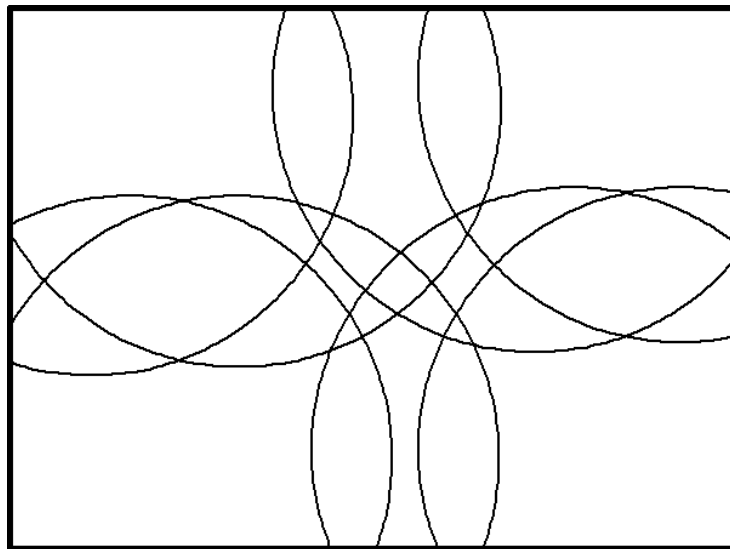
- The CBTC (Li *et al.* '01) provides a distributed rule for global connectivity: increase power until there is a neighbor within range in every sector of angle $\alpha \leq 5\pi/6$

Coverage Metrics

- Much more application specific than connectivity.
- Some that have been studied in particular detail are:
 - Path observation metrics: An example of this is the maximal breach distance, defined as the closest any evasive target must get to a sensor in the field (Meguerdichian *et al.* '99)
 - K-Coverage: ensure that all parts of the field are within sensing range of K sensors (e.g. Wang *et al.* '03)

Key Results on K-Coverage

- A field is K -covered if and only if all intersection points between sensing circles are at or inside the boundary of $K+1$ sensing circles. (Wang *et al.* '03)
- If a region is K -covered by n sensors, they also form a K -connected graph if their communication range is at least twice the communication range. (Wang *et al.* '03)



A 2-covered region

Localization

Localization Issues

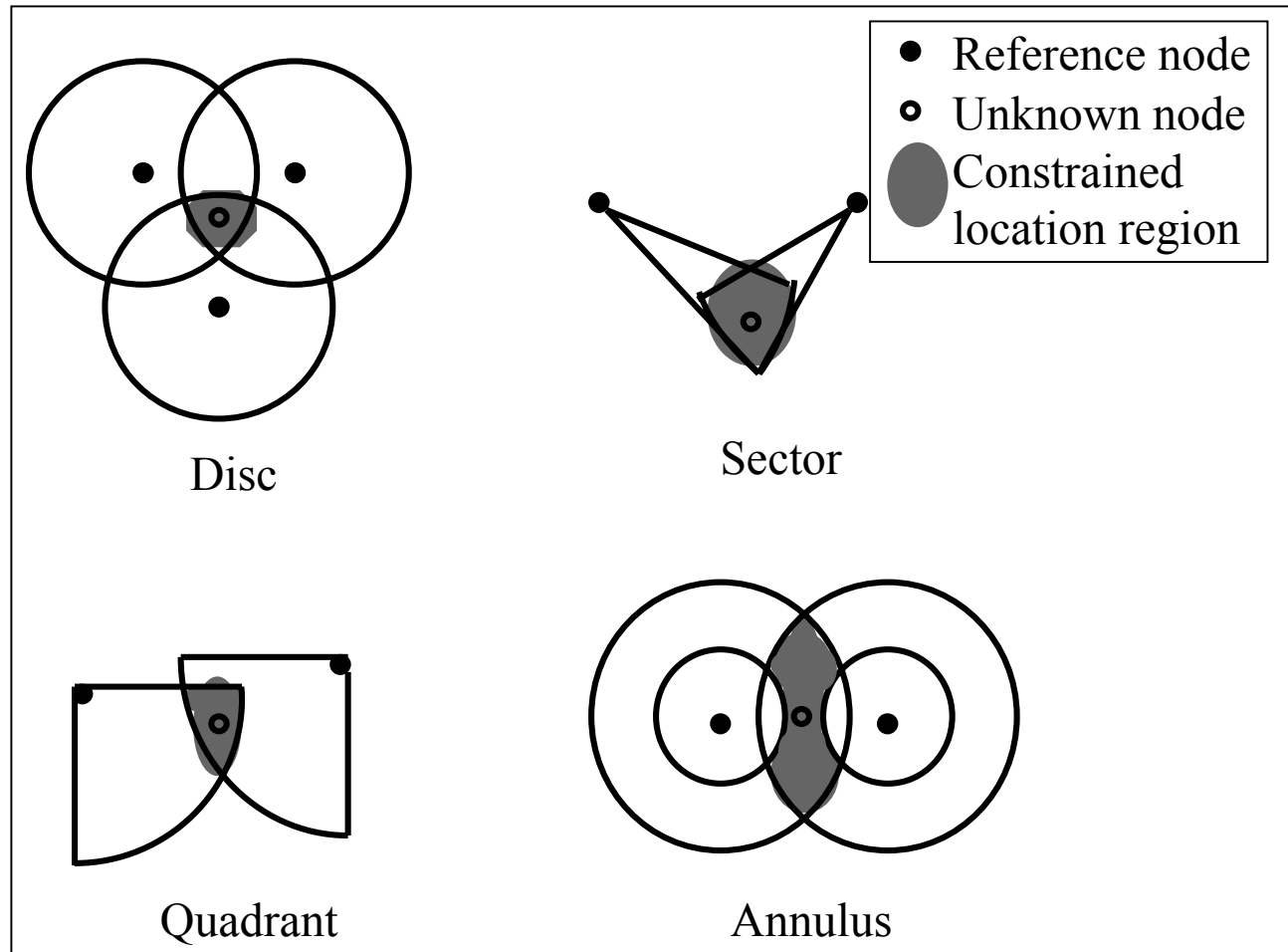
- Location information necessary/useful for many functions, including measurement stamps, coherent signal processing, cluster formation, efficient querying and routing.
- Key Questions:
 - What to localize?
 - When to localize?
 - How well to localize?
 - How to localize?

Coarse Grained Node Localization

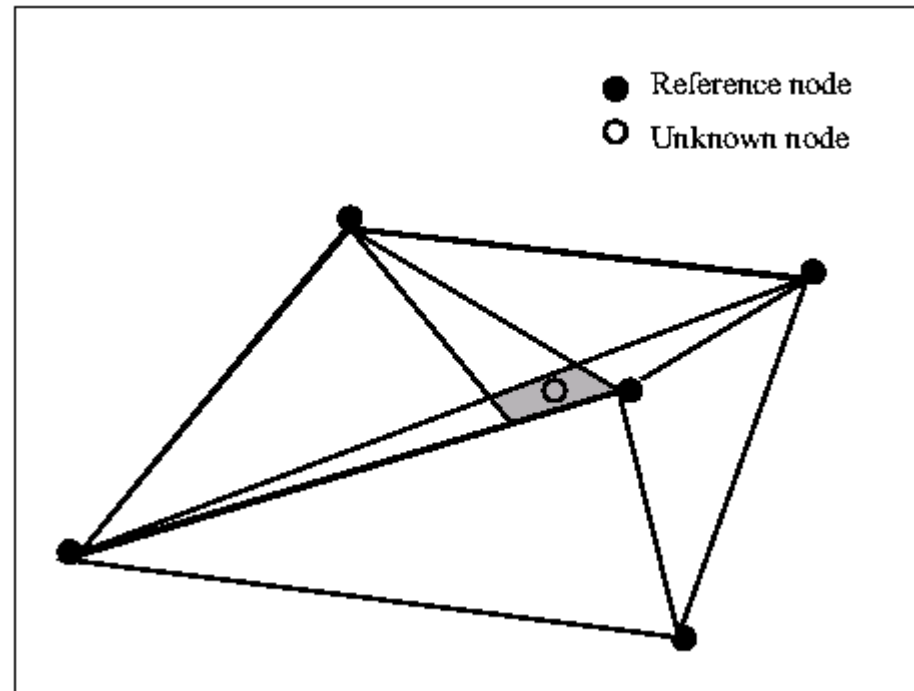
Several techniques provide approximate solutions for node localization based on the use of minimal information:

- Proximity
- Centroids
- Geometric Constraints
- APIT
- Identifying Codes

Geometric Constraints

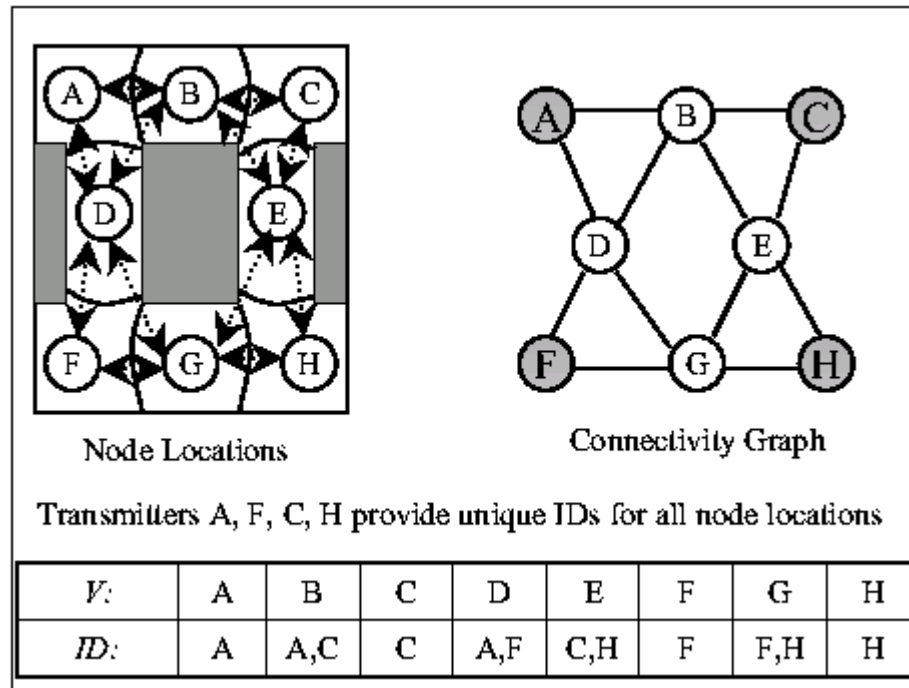


Approximate Point in Triangle (APIT)



(He, Huang, *et al.* '03)

ID-Codes

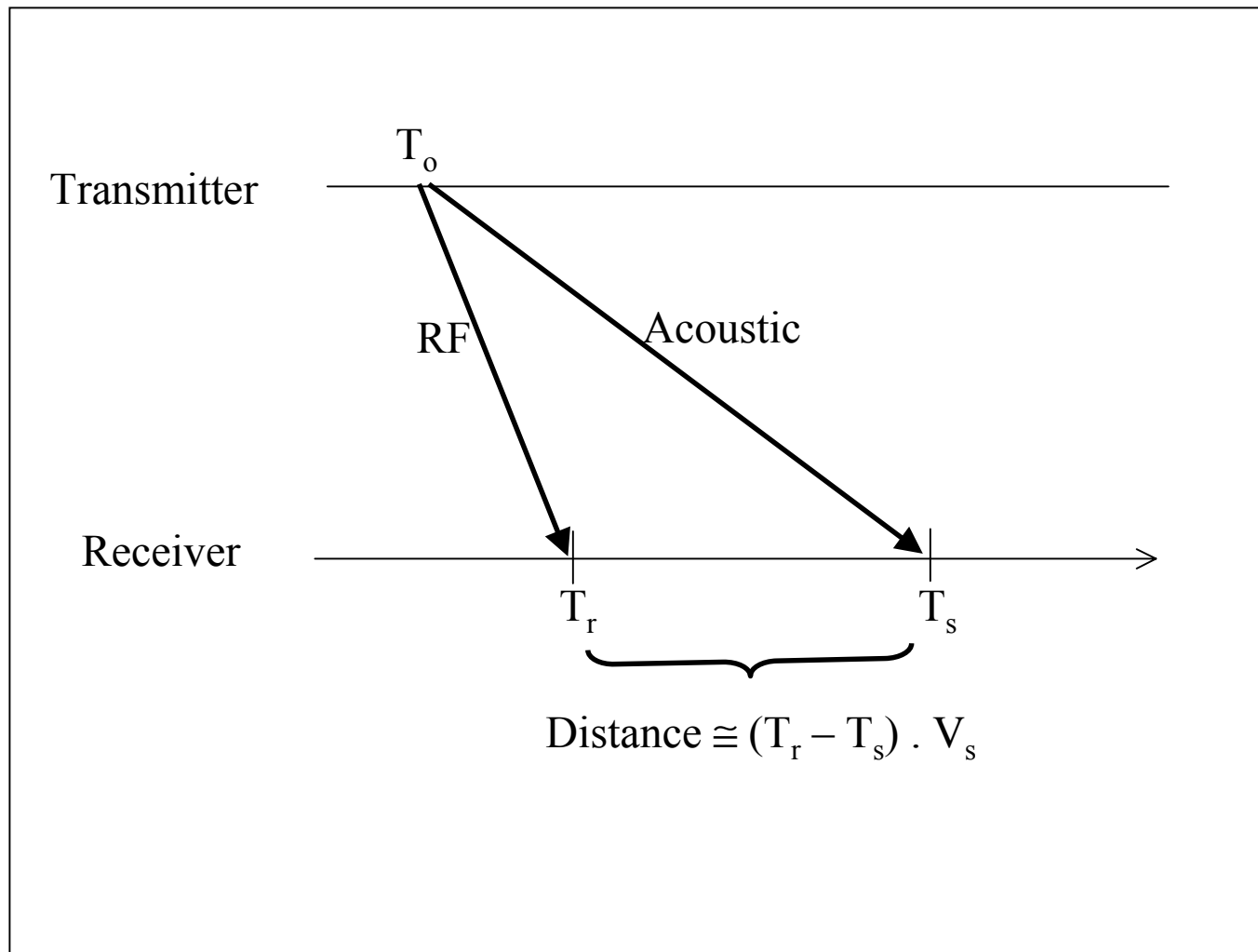


(Ray *et al.* '03)

Fine-Grained Node Localization

- Basic Approach: Ranging
 - ranging using radio signal strengths (m-level accuracy)
 - ranging using time difference of arrival (cm-level accuracy over short distances)
- Position estimation is then an MMSE problem:
$$E_j = R_{i,j} - \sqrt{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2}$$
Find (x_i, y_i) to minimize $\sum (E_j)^2$
- Angle of arrival techniques are particularly useful in conjunction with ranging

Time Difference of Arrival



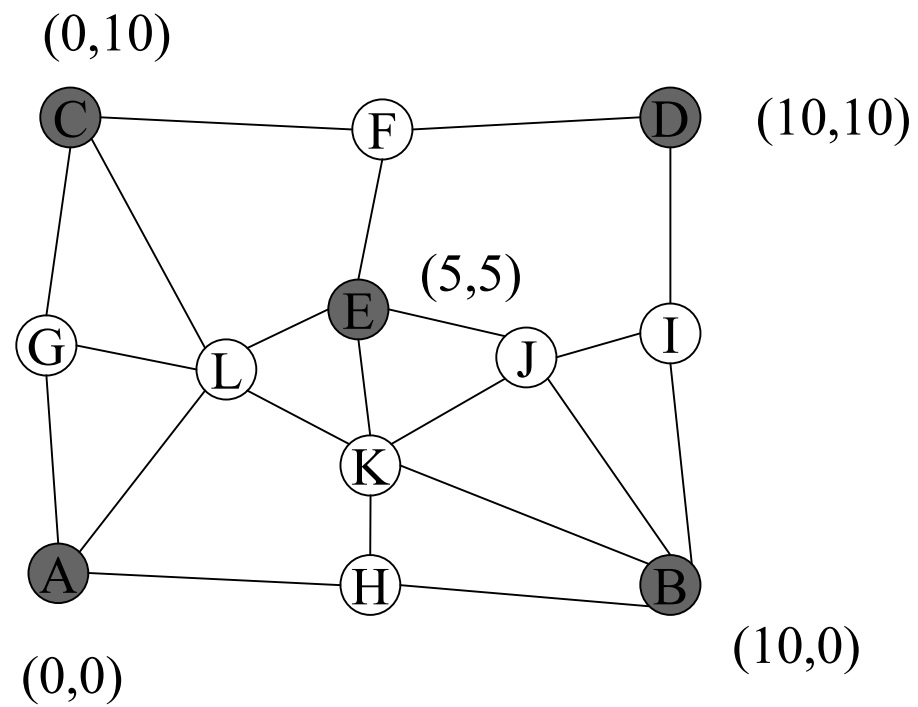
Fine-Grained Node Localization (contd.)

- Pattern matching techniques such as RADAR (Bahl and Padmanabhan, '00) require pre-training of signal strengths at different locations in the environment.
- Ecolocation (Yedavalli *et al.* '04) is based on sequence decoding.
 - Record the received signal strengths at different reference nodes from a given unknown node, and order these into a sequence
 - Return as the unknown node's location the location that “best matches” the measured sequence

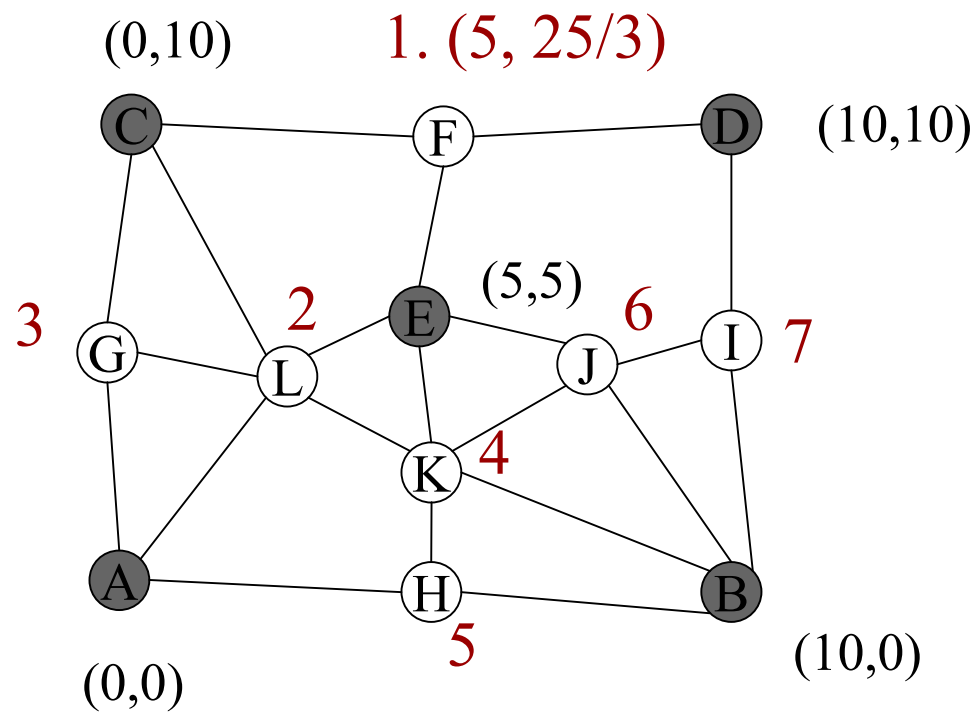
Network Localization

- Different from node localization. Few reference nodes and several networked unknown nodes.
- Several approaches:
 - Constraint satisfaction/optimization (centralized)
 - Joint estimation using ranging estimates (centralized)
 - Multihop distance estimation (distributed)
 - Iterative localization (distributed)
 - Potential fields (distributed)

Iterative Localization



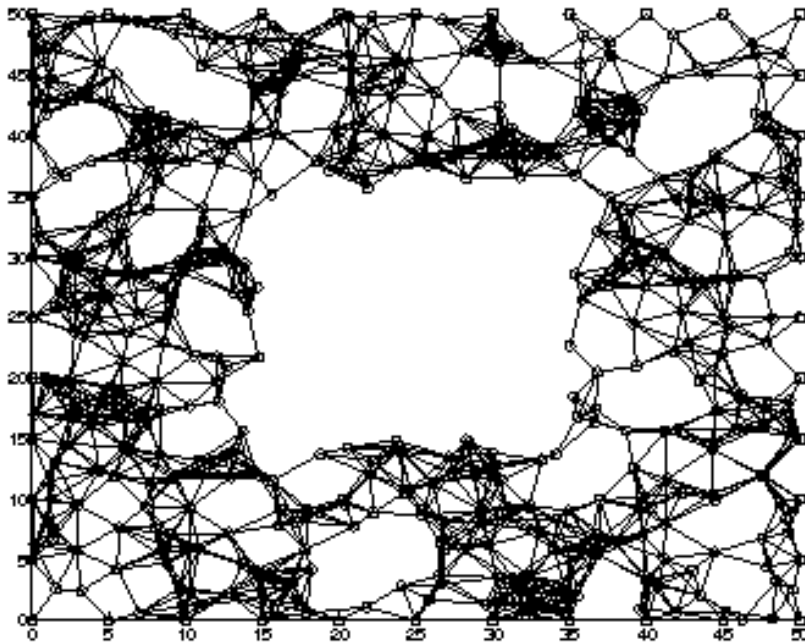
Iterative Localization



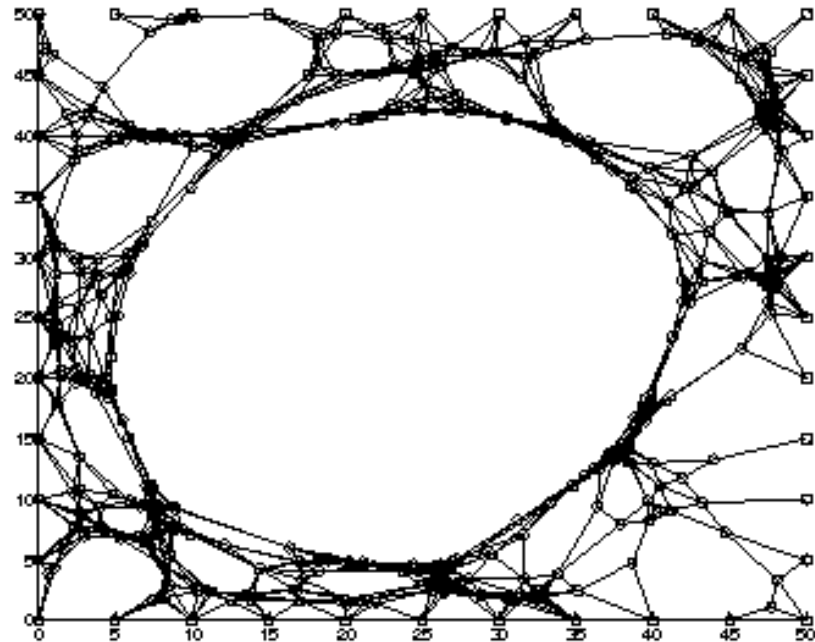
Reference-less Localization

- What if there are no reference nodes with known locations?
- Three-step solution (Rao '03):
 - 1. If all boundary nodes have known locations, use iterative centroid calculations
 - 2. If boundary nodes do not have known locations, use pairwise hop-counts to get approximate locations and apply step 1.
 - 3. If nodes are not aware of boundary, use a flood to identify boundary nodes and apply step 2.
- The solution provides only a relative map, useful for geographic routing

Illustration of Reference-less Localization



Correct locations

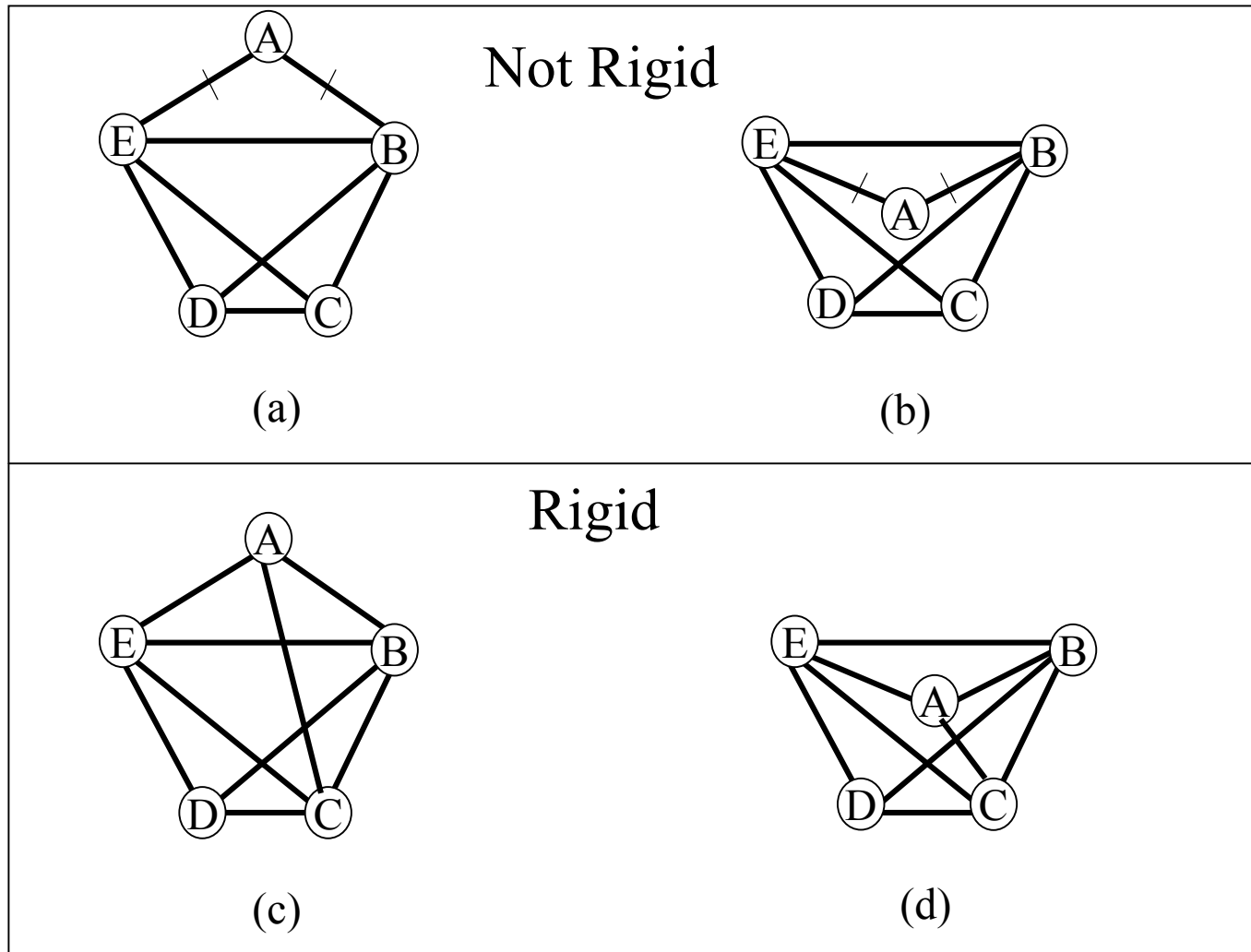


Localization assuming only known boundary nodes

Rigidity and Unique Localization

- The network is said to be *uniquely localizable* if there exists a unique assignment of (x,y) coordinates to all nodes that is consistent with the available positions and distance estimates in a network.
- Let G_N be the grounded graph, i.e. the network graph augmented with distance-labelled edges between all pairs of reference nodes.
- Theorem: A network is uniquely localizable if its grounded graph is *globally rigid*. (Eren *et al.* '04)

Global Rigidity

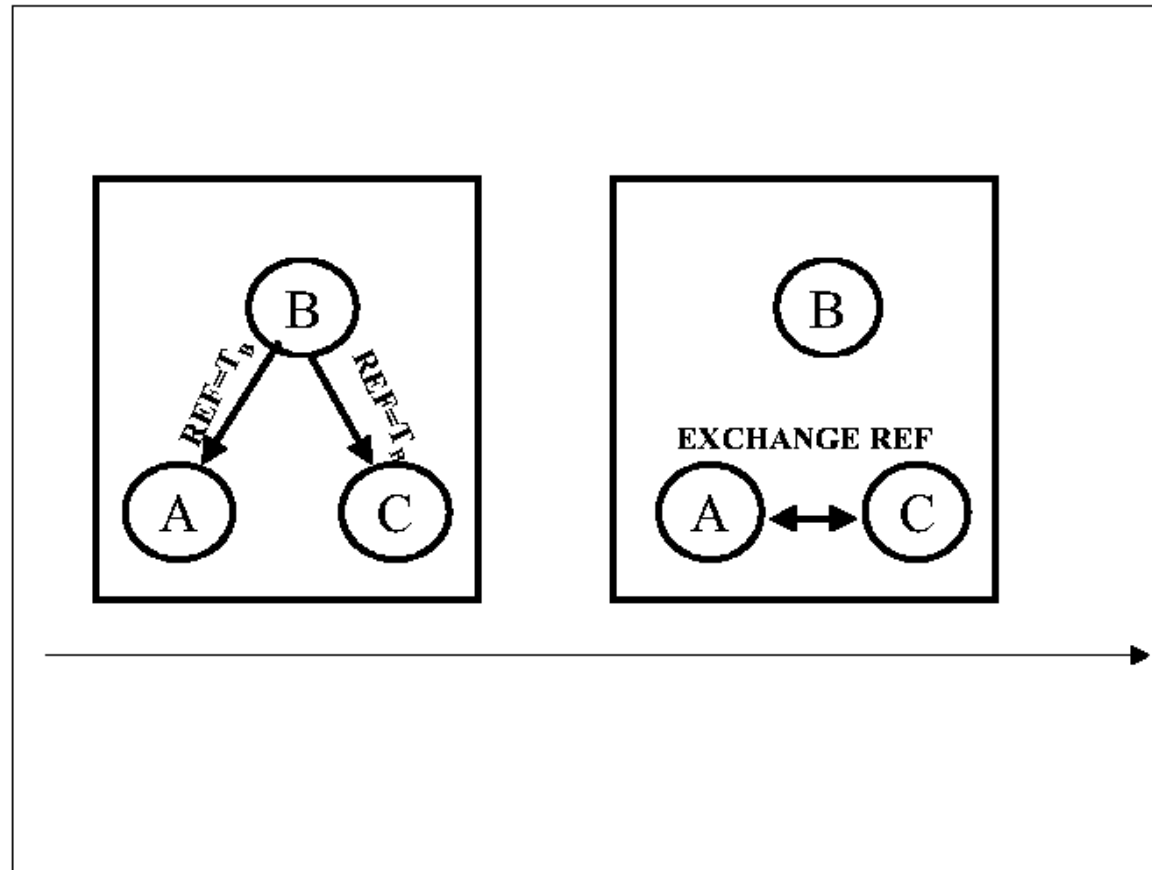


Time Synchronization

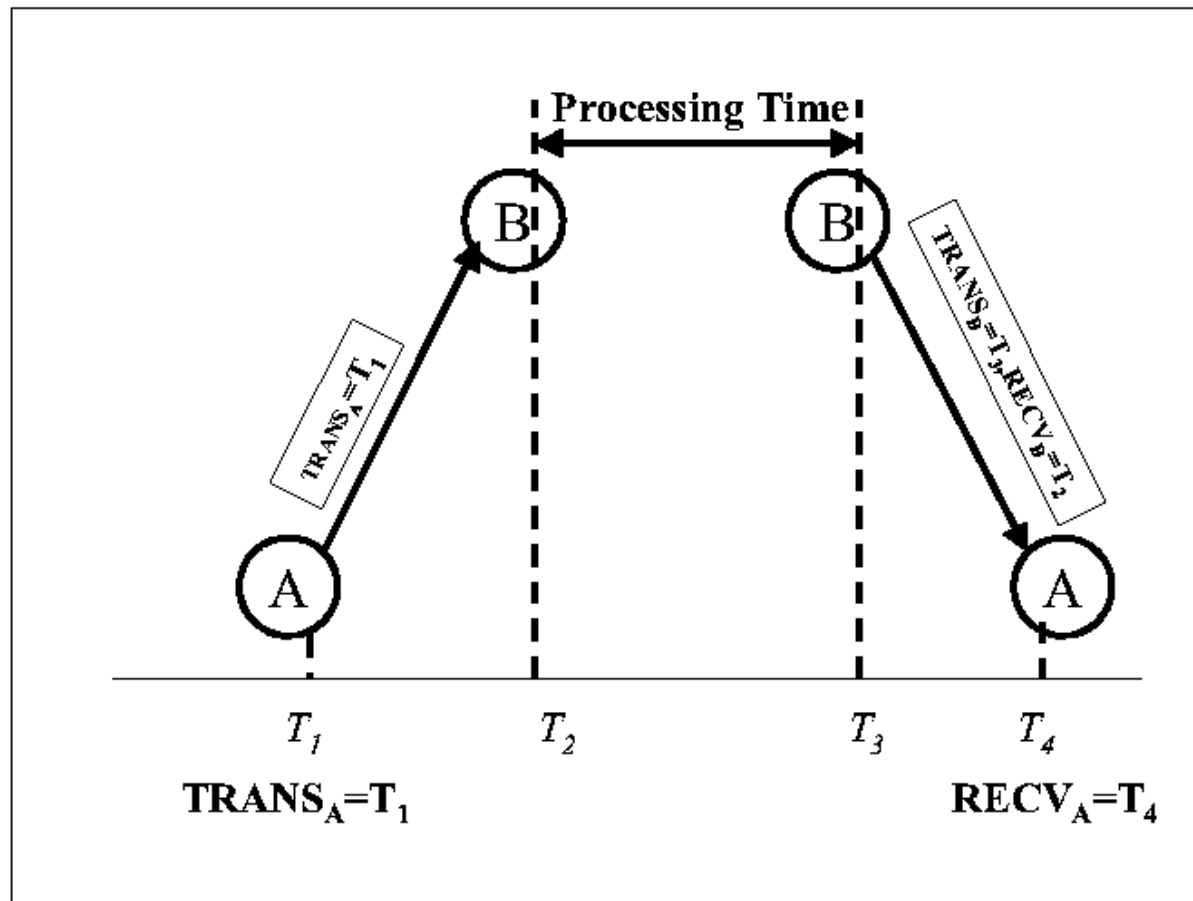
Synchronization Techniques

- Receiver Broadcast Synchronization: multiple receivers synchronize to the same broadcast (Elson, Girod, and Estrin '02)
- Timing-Sync Protocol for Sensor Nets (TPSN): traditional sender-receiver synchronization (Ganerival, Kumar and Srivastava '03)
- FTSP: Multiple time stamping at sender and receiver for each packet to mitigate processing time jitter. Possible to synchronize nodes to within $1\mu\text{s}$. (Maroti *et al.* '04)

Reference Broadcast Synchronization



TPSN



$$T_2 = T_1 + \Delta + d$$

$$T_4 = T_3 - \Delta + d$$

$$\Delta = \frac{(T_2 - T_4) - (T_1 - T_3)}{2}$$

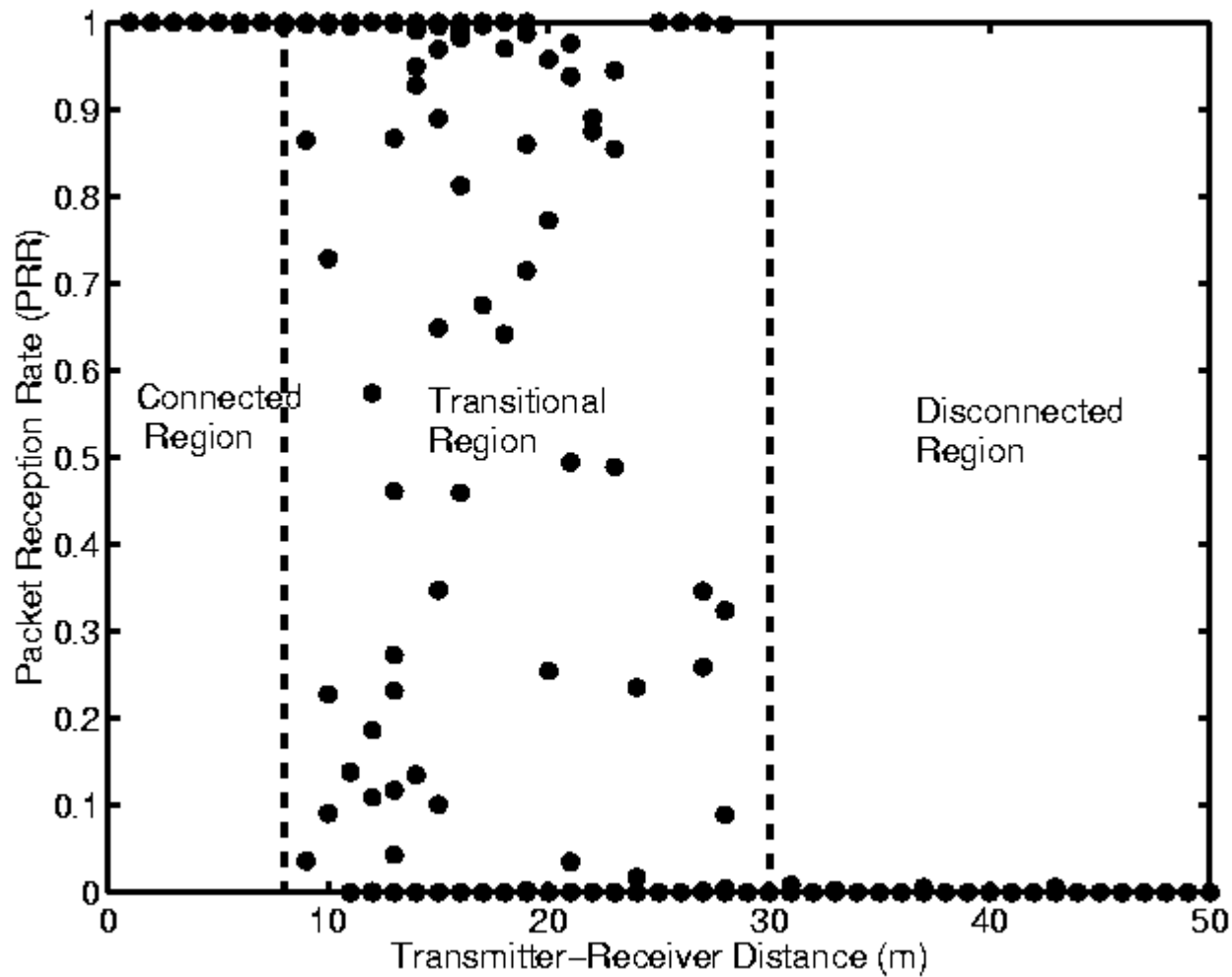
$$d = \frac{(T_2 + T_4) - (T_1 + T_3)}{2}$$

Wireless Link Characteristics

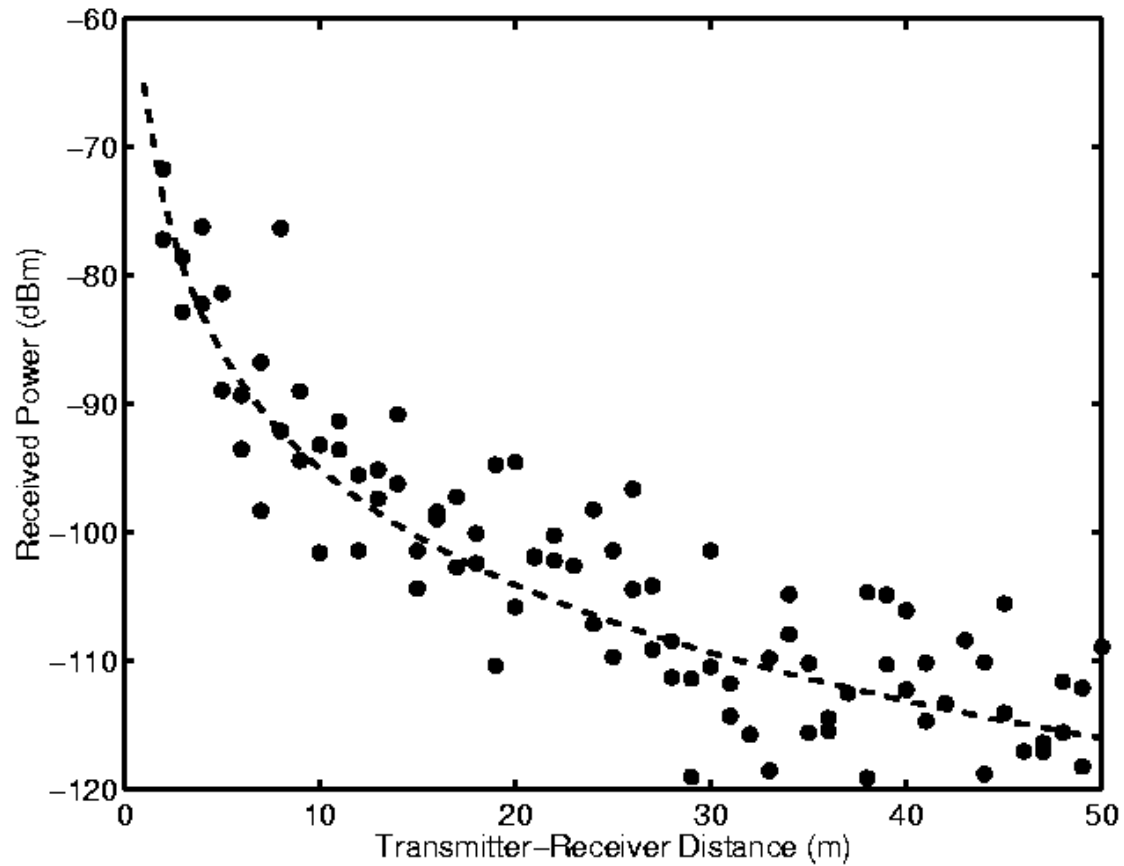
Empirical Observations

- Early studies all assumed a simple perfect-connectivity-within-range model for simulations and analysis.
- A number of empirical studies suggest this can be very misleading (Ganesan '02; Zhao and Govindan '03; Woo, Tong and Culler '03).
- A better characterization is that links fall into three regions: connected, transitional and unconnected. The transitional region will contain a large number of unreliable links.

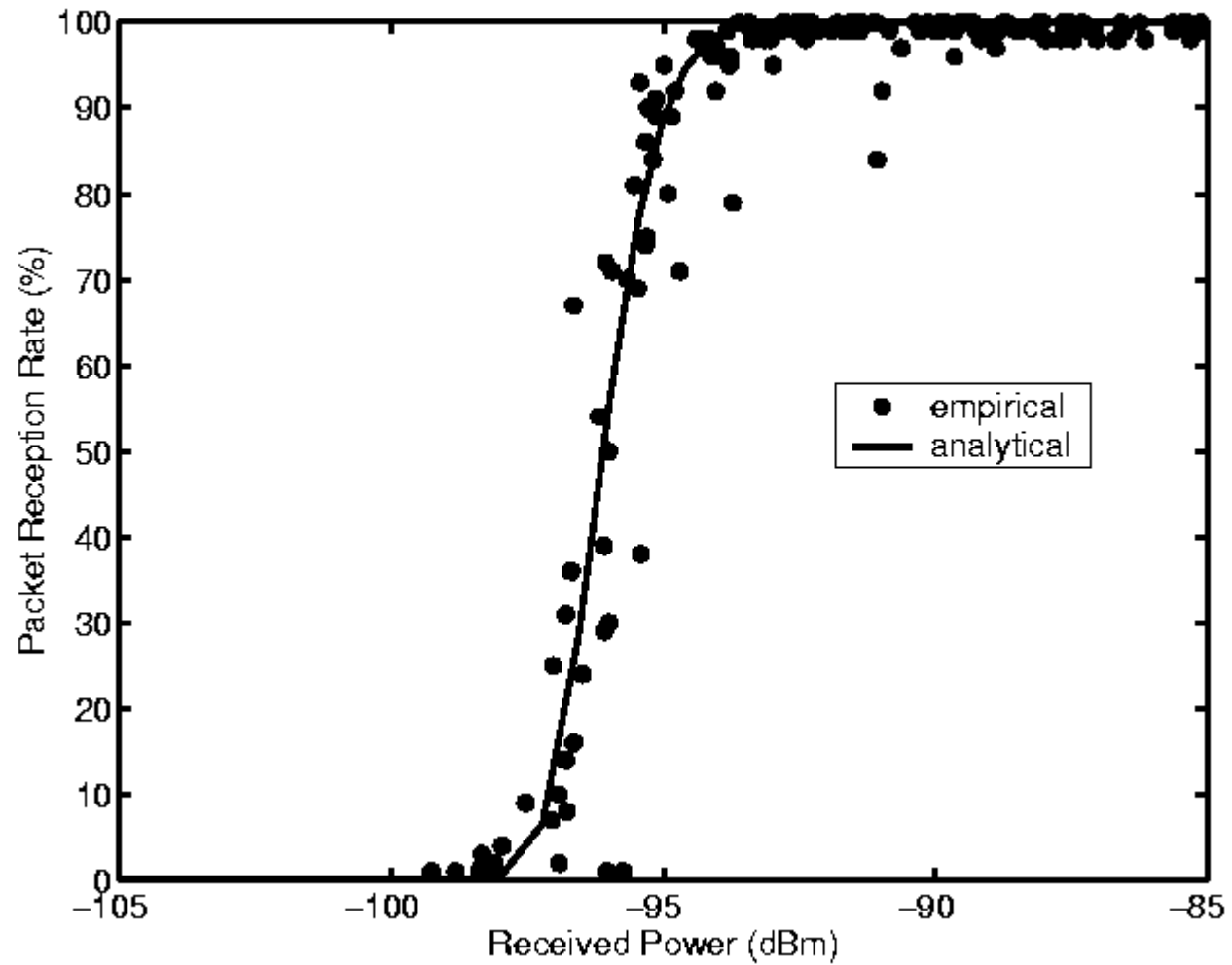
Link Regions



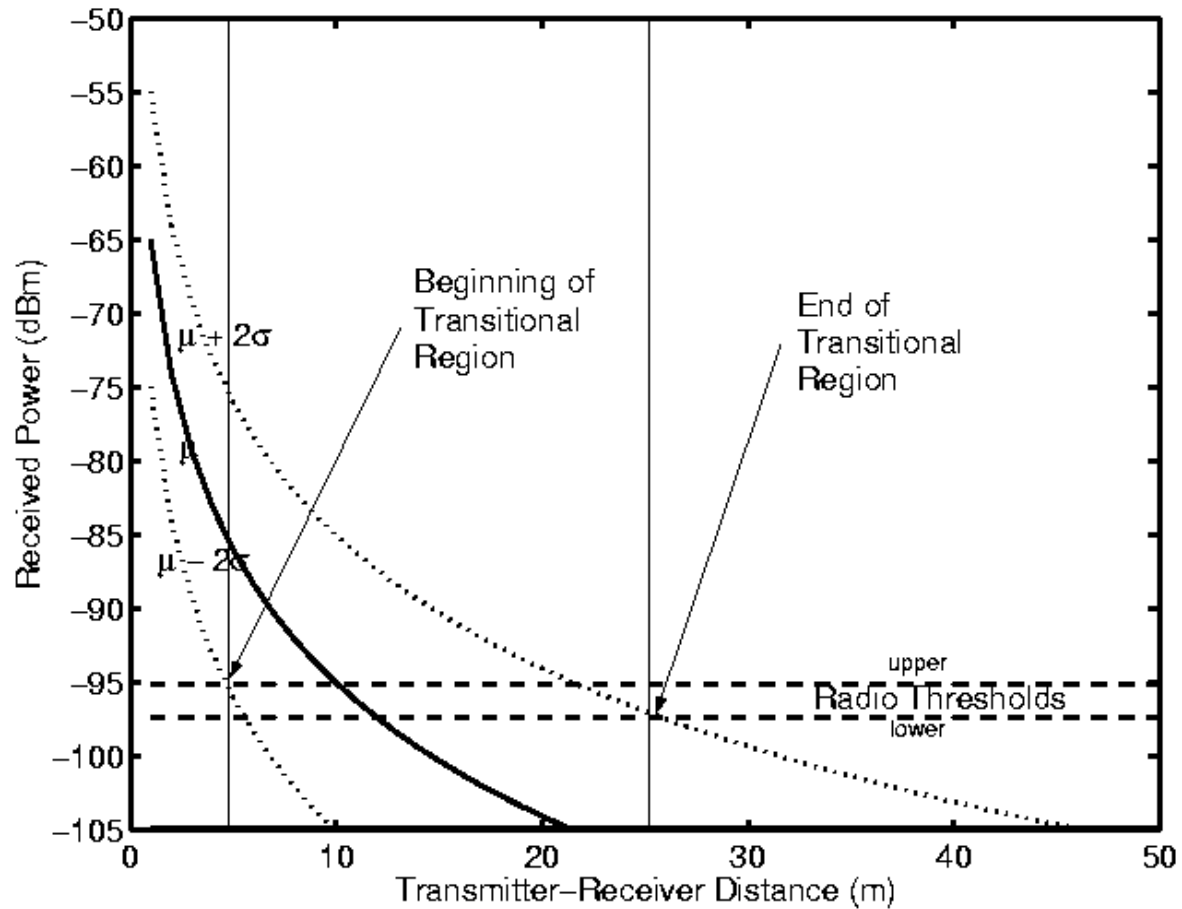
Received Signal Strength



Radio Reception



Explanation for Link Regions



(Zuniga and Krishnamachari '04)

Link Quality Assurance

- Blacklisting: Identify neighbors with poor link quality (weak/highly variable/asymmetric links) and eliminate them from neighbor table (Woo, Tong and Culler '03, Gnawali *et al.* '04).
- Blacklisting can be implemented using a global threshold or using a local rule like blacklisting all but the top k links.
- Blacklisting provides reliable link quality at the risk of providing a disconnected topology.

Radio Energy Characteristics

Radio	Frequency/Data Rate	Sleep	Receive	Transmit	Startup
CC 2420	2.4 GHz, 250kbps	60 μ W	59 mW	52 mW	0.6 ms
CC 1000	868 MHz, 19.2 kbps	0.6 μ W	29 mW	50 mW	2 ms
MIT μ AMPS-1	2.4 GHz, 1 Mbps	negligible	279 mW	330 mW	0.5 ms
IEEE 802.11b	2.4 GHz, 11 Mbps	negligible	1.4 W	2.25 W	1 ms

(compiled from various sources)

- Transmit and Receive/Idle energy costs are typically the same for most radios. Sleep is the only energy efficient mode.
- Startup times and costs vary from radio to radio, but can be quite significant.

Medium Access

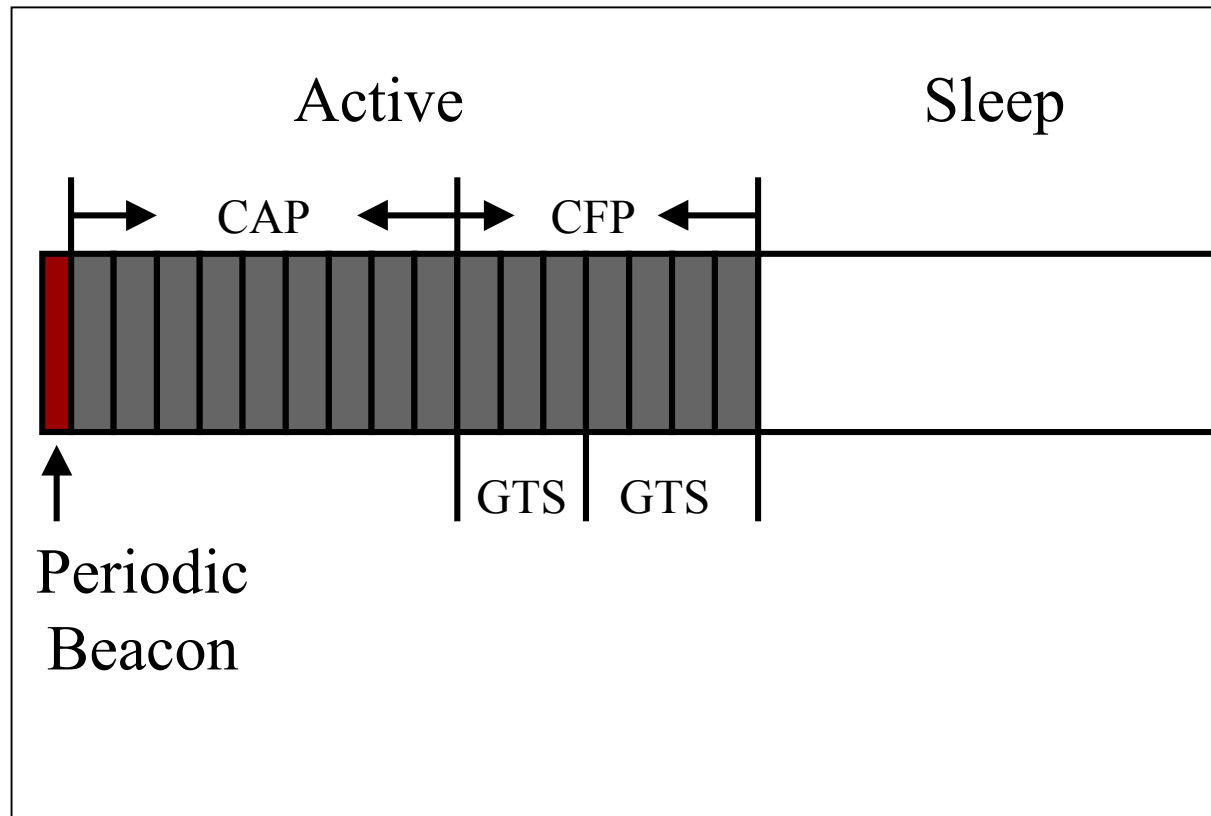
Issues

- Unlike traditional MAC protocols, WSN schemes must also incorporate sleep modes during radio inactivity, to maximize energy efficiency.
- Two main classes of protocols: contention based and contention free
- Contention based protocols offer low complexity and more flexibility, though not suited for heavy traffic conditions.

IEEE 802.15.4 (for Low Rate Low Power WPAN)

- 16 channels in the 2450 MHz band, 10 channels in the 915 MHz band, and 1 channel in the 868 MHz band
- Over-the-air data rates of 250 kb/s, 40 kb/s, and 20 kb/s
- Star or peer-to-peer operation
- Allocated 16 bit short or 64 bit extended addresses
- CSMA/CA channel access and allocation of guaranteed time slots, ACKS
- Energy detection (ED) and Link quality indication (LQI)

IEEE 802.15.4 MAC (beacon-enabled mode for star topology)



B-MAC

B-MAC Components				ROM	RAM
Basic B-MAC				3046	166
Basic B-MAC	LPL			4092	170
Basic B-MAC	LPL	ACK		4386	172
Basic B-MAC	LPL	ACK	RTS/CTS	4616	277

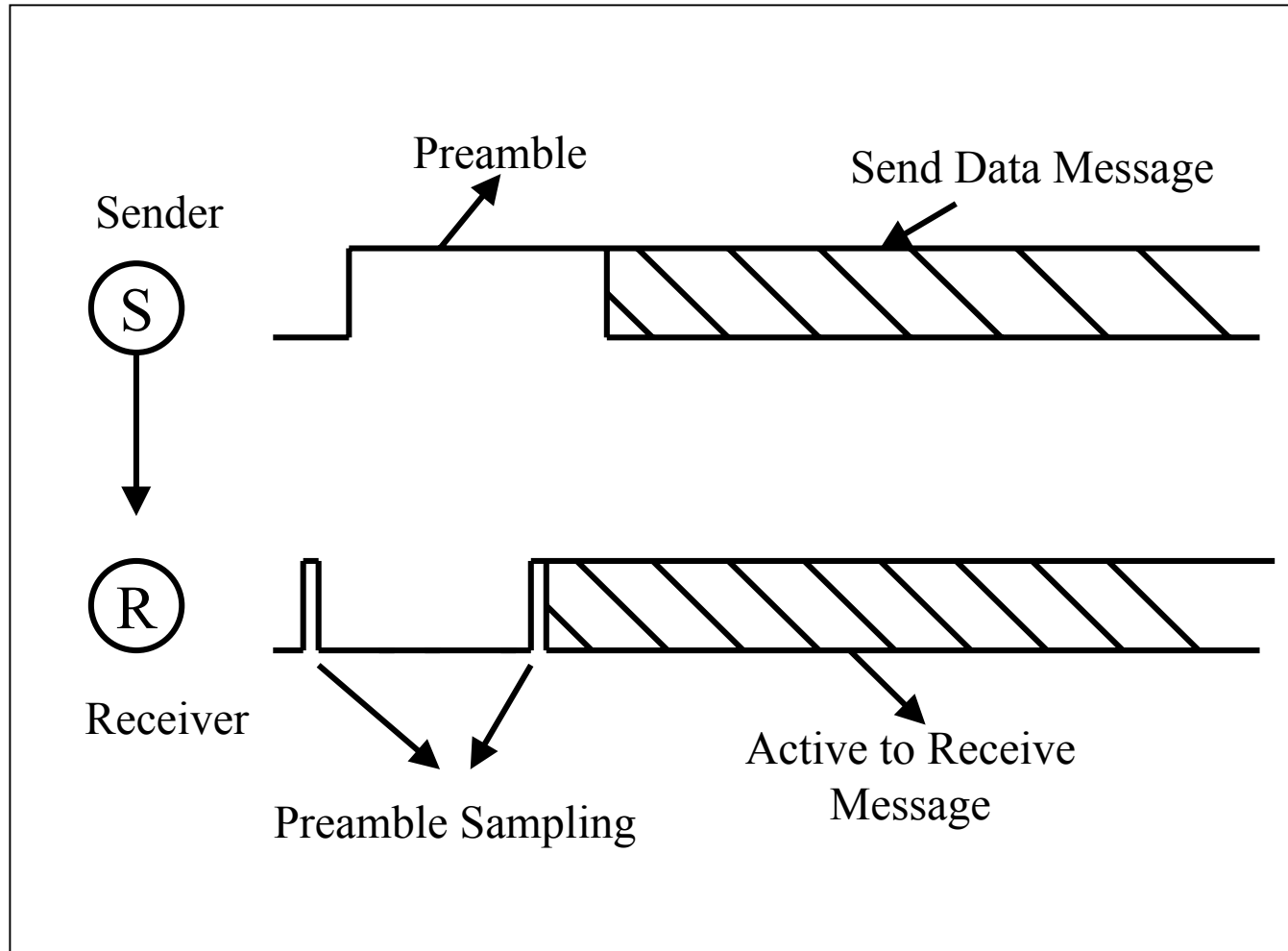
A highly configurable MAC protocol implemented on TinyOS/Motes (Polastre, Hill and Culler '04)

Many independent components that can be turned off if not needed for a particular application

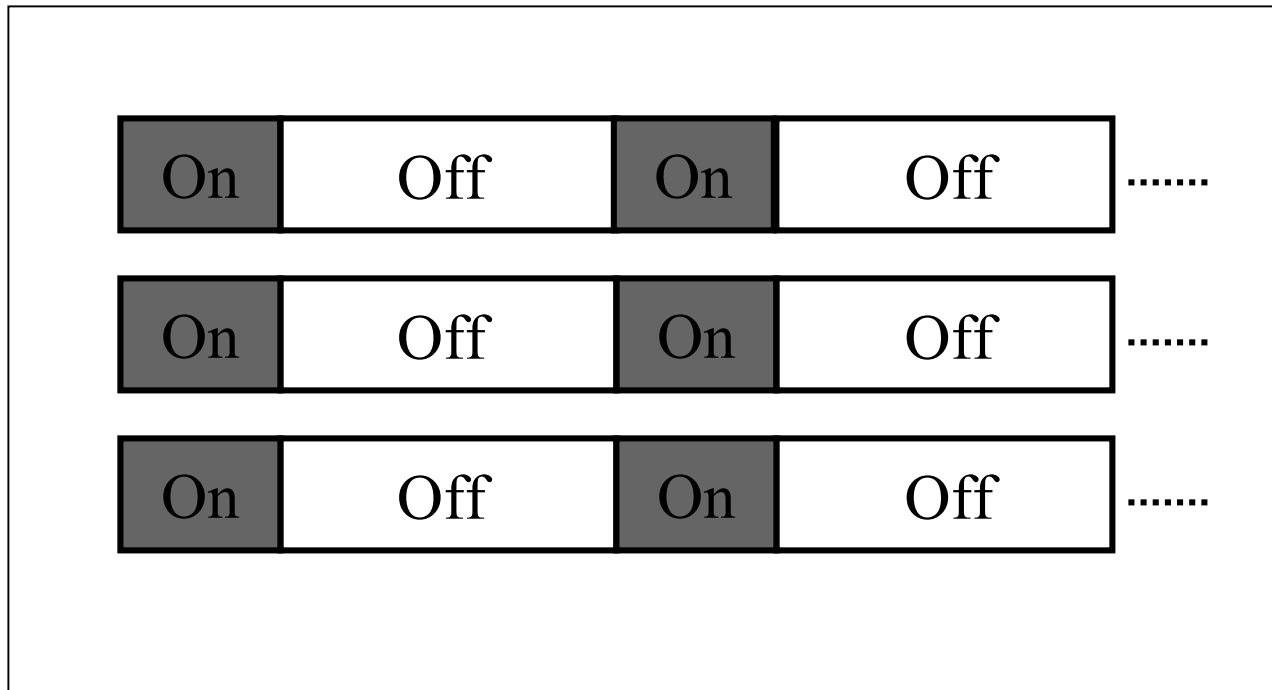
Energy-Efficient Contention-based MAC

- Low Power Listening / Preamble Sampling: wake up the radio only when needed to transmit, and periodically to check for preamble from transmitter. No synchronization necessary.
- S-MAC/D-MAC: periodic sleep-wake duty cycle, adapted for higher traffic, adjusted to minimize delay.
- Asynchronous: use a periodic schedule but not synchronized across nodes. Useful for highly dynamic scenarios.

Preamble Sampling

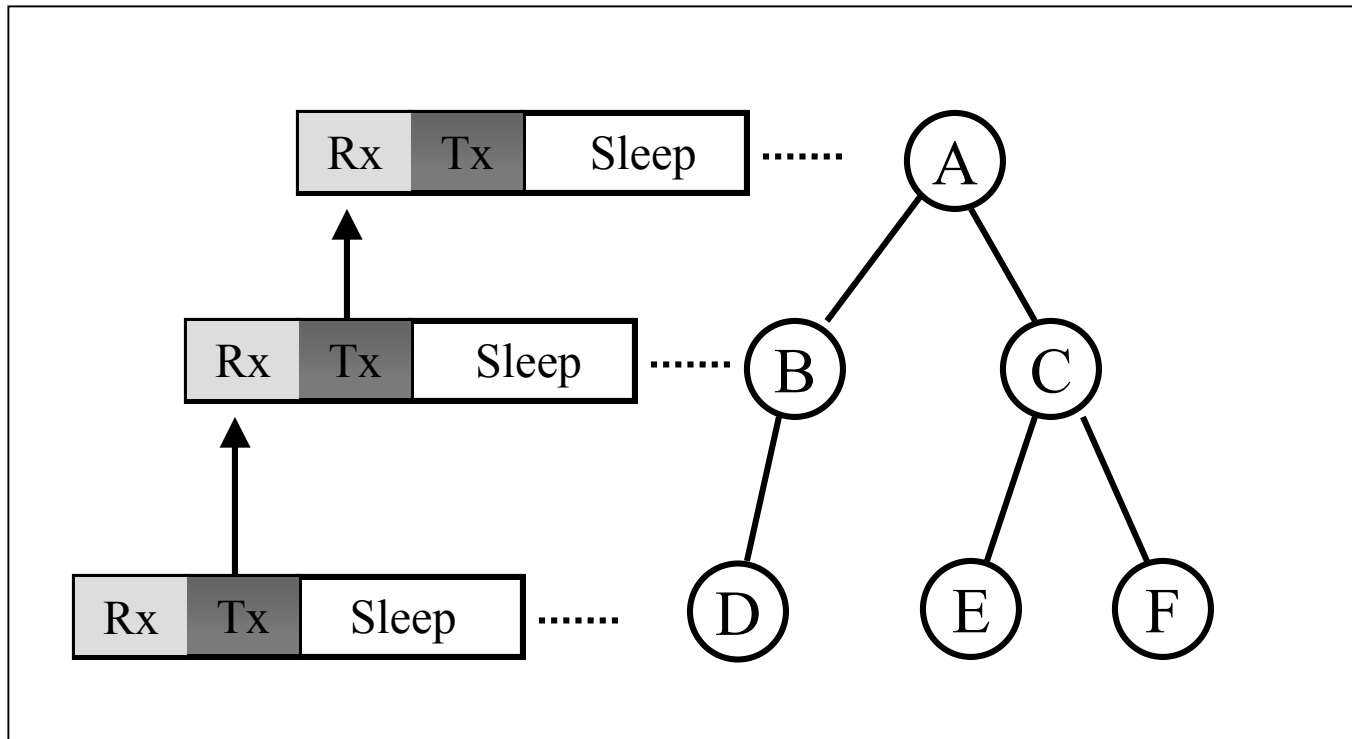


S-MAC Schedule



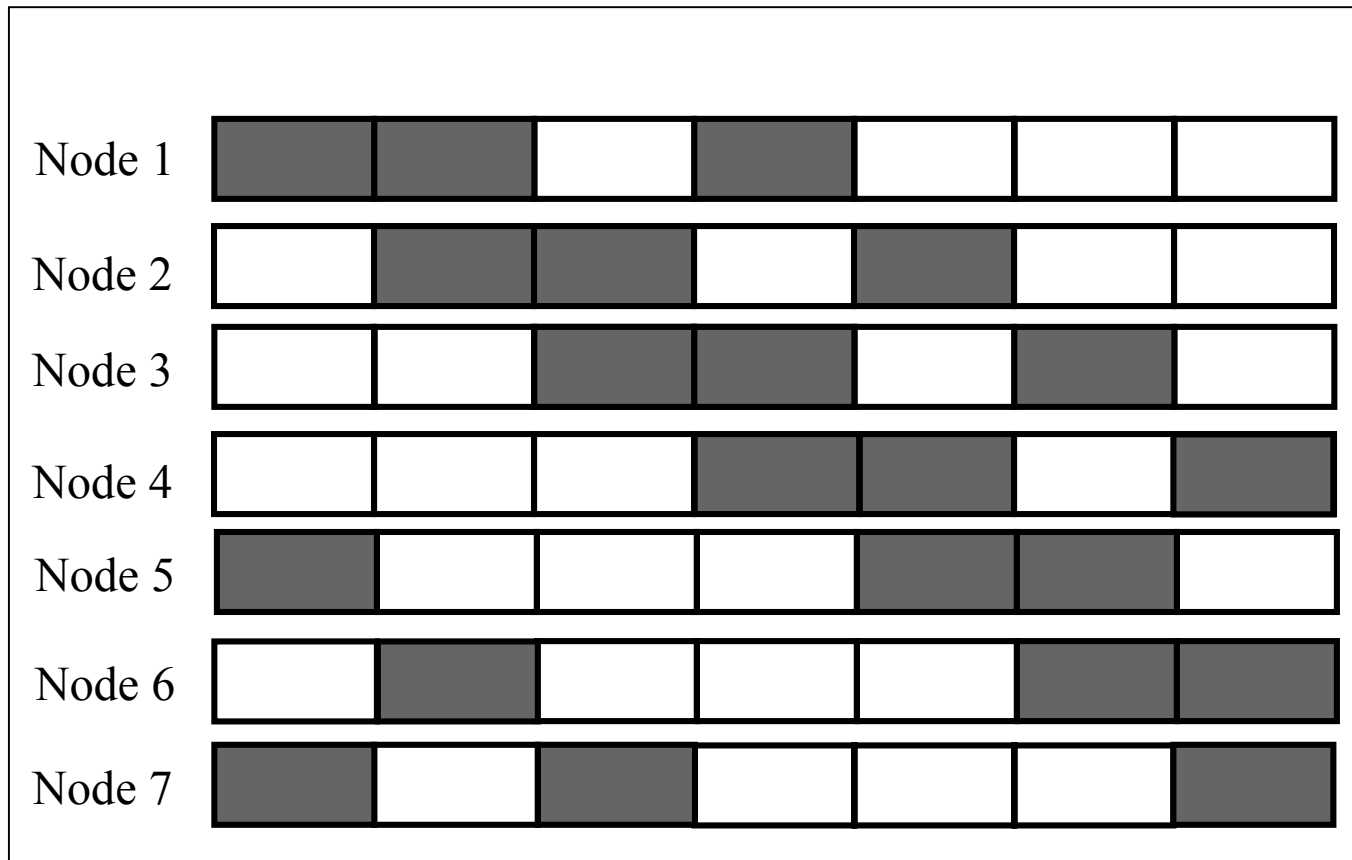
(Ye, Heidemann and Estrin '02)

D-MAC



(Lu, Krishnamachari and Raghavendra '04)

Asynchronous Schedule



(Zheng, Hou and Sha '03)

Sleep-based Topology Control

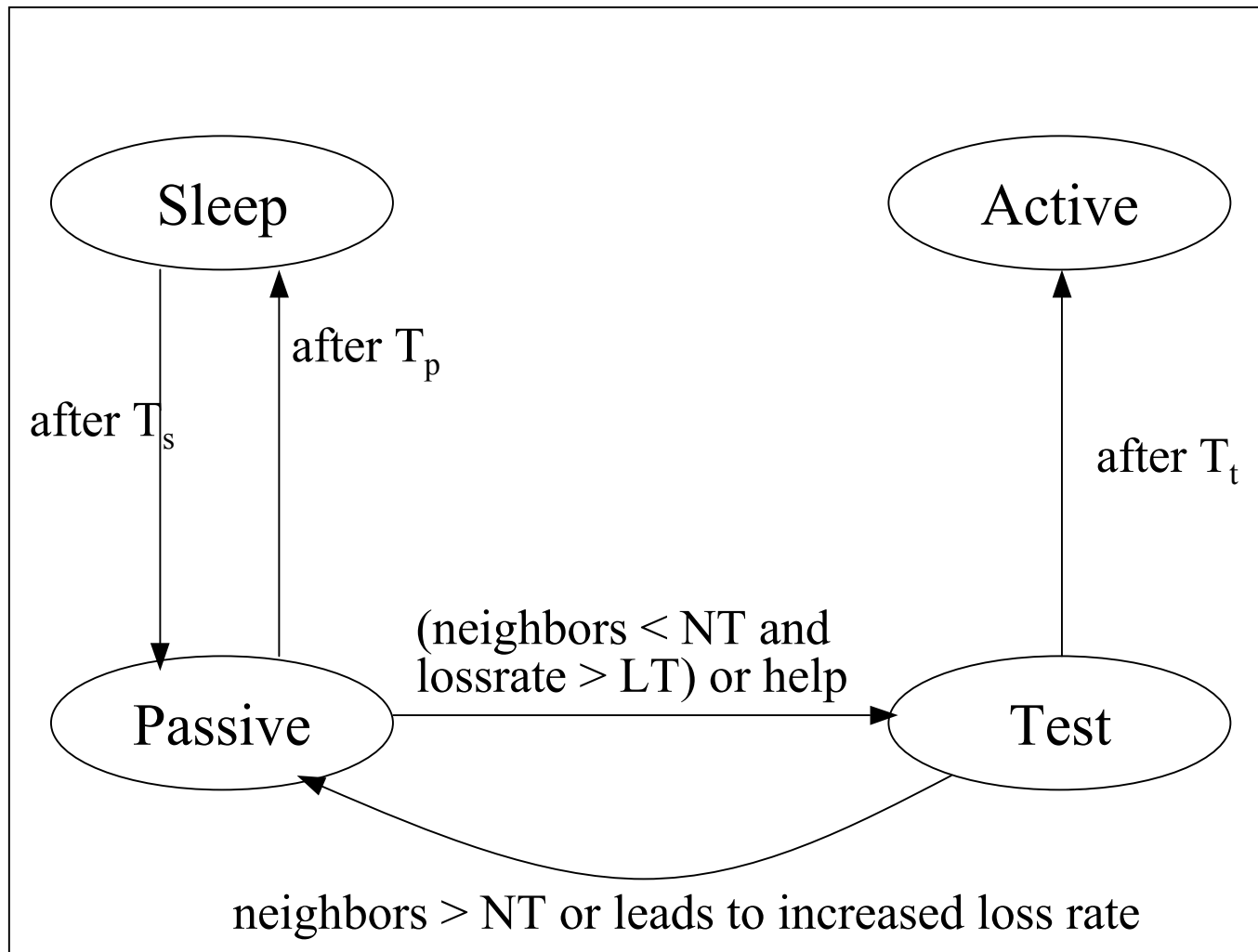
Sleep-based Topology Control

- If network is over-deployed initially, then excess nodes must be kept in sleep mode until necessary for coverage/connectivity (due to failures of other nodes). This is the function of topology control.
- Operate over a much longer time scale than sleep modes for medium access protocols.
- Are typically implemented in a distributed fashion through the use of a finite state machine with states including sleep, active and test modes. Different protocols use different timers and conditions for switching between modes.

Topology Control for Connectivity

- BECA (Xu, Heidemann and Estrin '00): Nodes switch to active mode when there is routing traffic present for them to participate in.
- GAF (Xu, Heidemann and Estrin '00): Geographically organized clusters with one active node in each cluster.
- ASCENT (Cerpa and Estrin '02): Nodes switch to active mode if the number of active neighbors falls below some threshold, or if measured loss rates are high.
- SPAN (Chen *et al.* '01): nodes activate to become coordinators to ensure that any pair of neighboring nodes can communicate directly or through a coordinator node.

State Transitions in ASCENT



Techniques Incorporating Coverage

- PEAS (Ye *et al.* '03): Randomized wakeup with adaptive sleeping, tunable coverage ensures that there is at least one active neighbor within range R_p
- Sponsored Sector (Tian and Georganas '03): Nodes are activated if they determine that their own coverage area is not fully covered by neighboring nodes.
- CCP (Wang *et al.* '03): An integrated protocol using intersections to determine K-coverage.
- LDAS (Wu *et al.*): Probabilistic coverage by ensuring that a constant number (5-11) of active neighbors are awake within range.

Routing

Overview

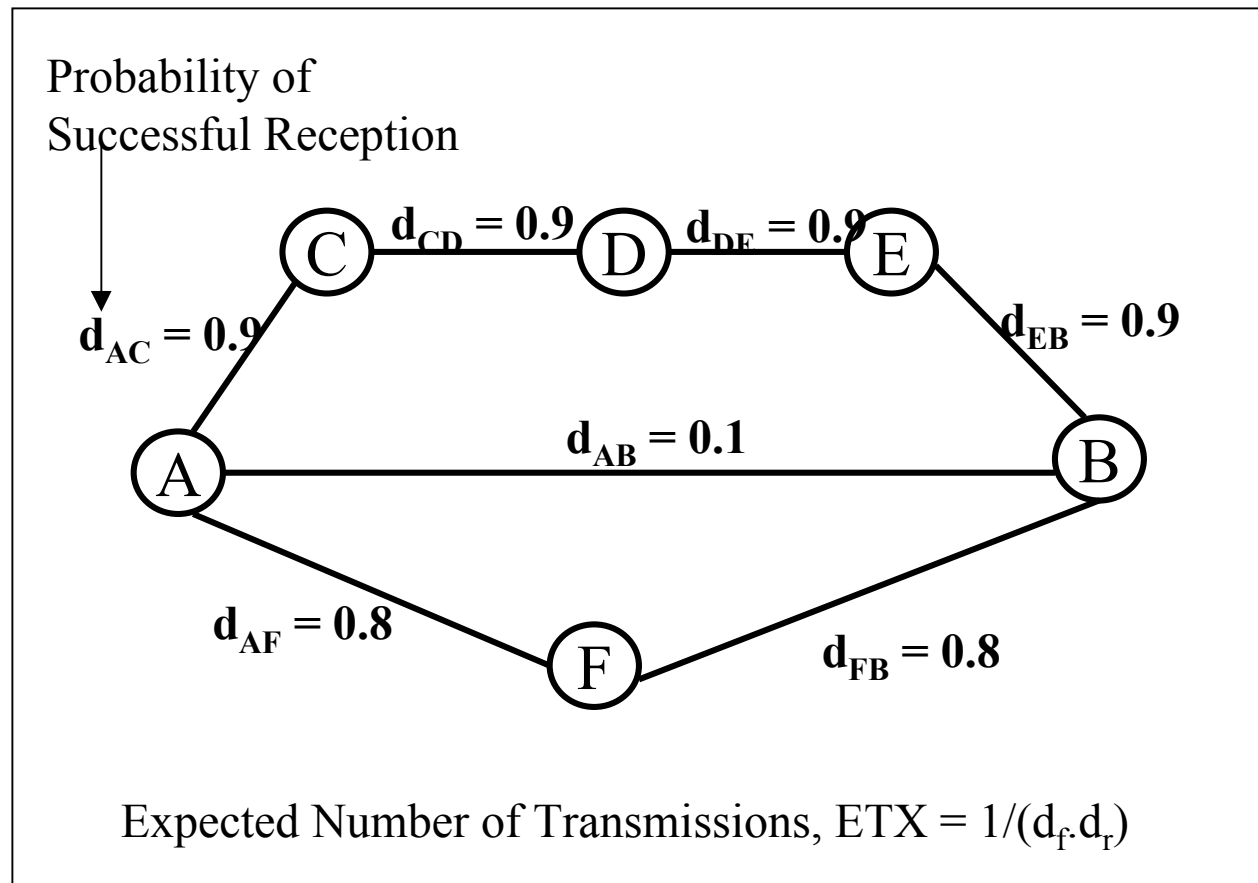
WSN Routing can be made robust and efficient by incorporating different types of local state information:

- Link quality
- Link distance
- Residual energy
- Position information

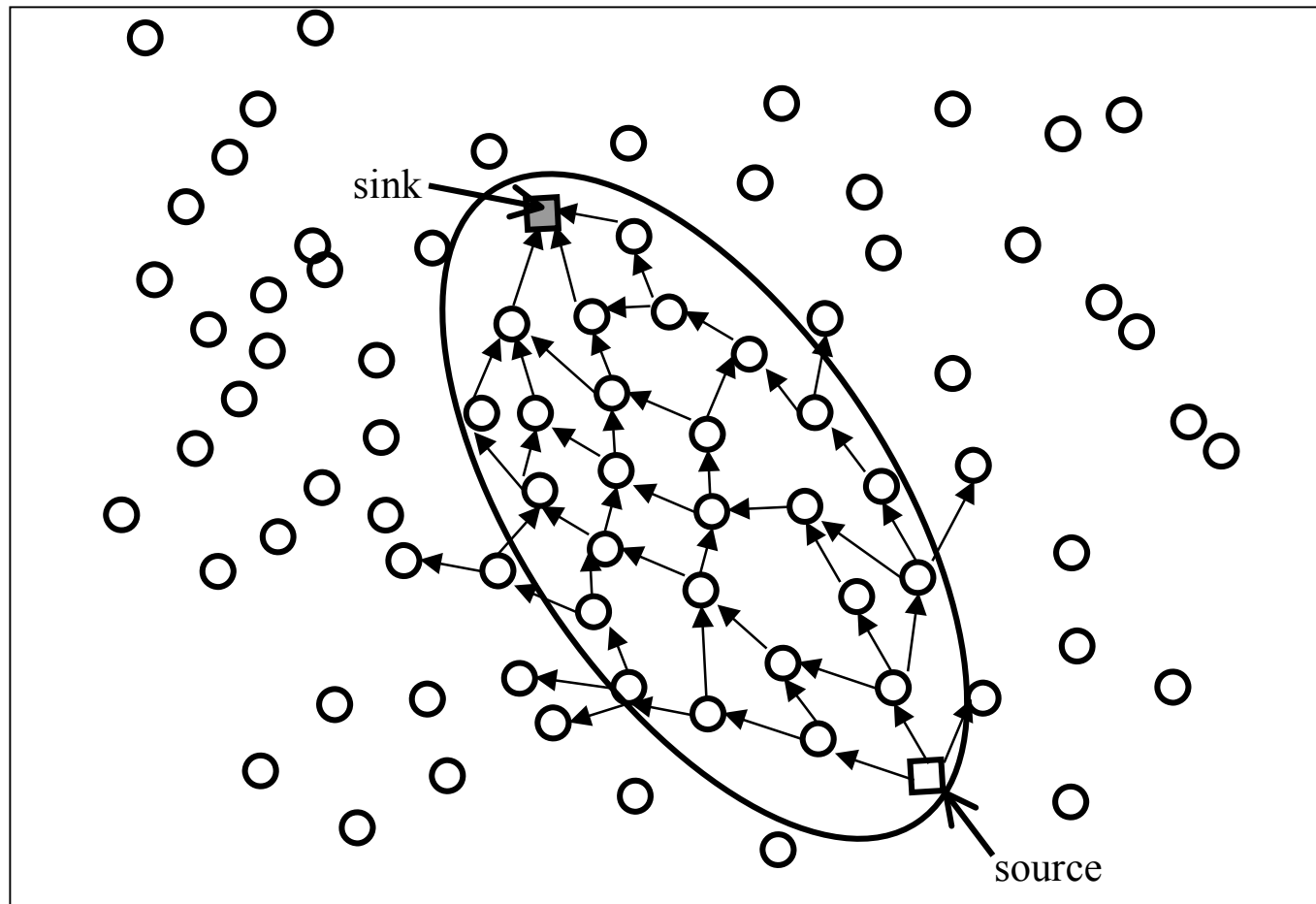
Robust Routing

- Given the unreliable and time varying wireless links, it is very important to provide robust delivery of information.
- There are several approaches to providing robustness:
 - use of appropriate link quality metrics (e.g. ETX, De Couto *et al.* '03)
 - multipath routing (e.g. GRAB, Ye *et al.* '03)
 - wireless diversity-based routing techniques (e.g. ExOR, Biswas and Morris '04)

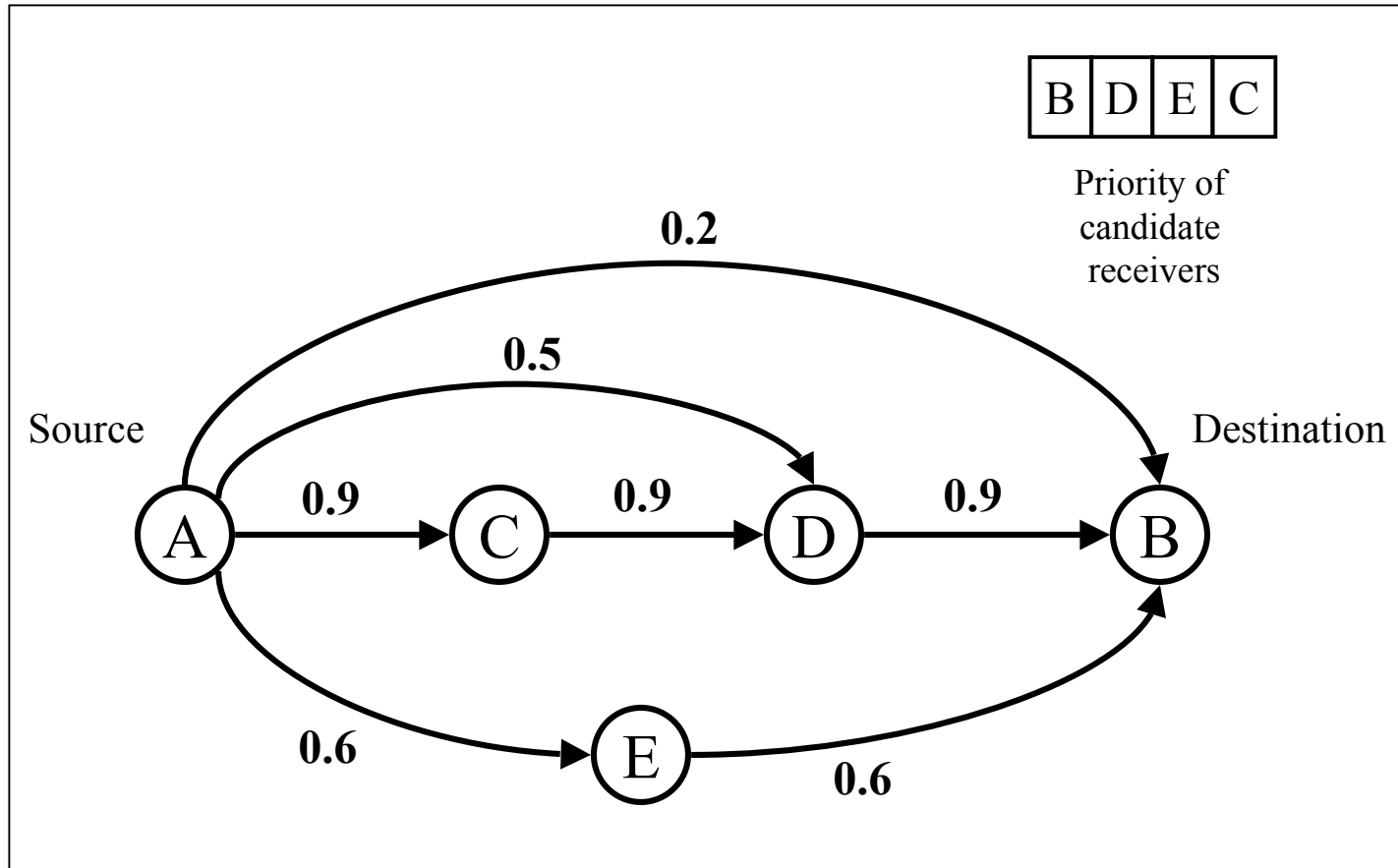
The ETX Metric



Mesh Multipath Routing



Extremely Opportunistic Routing (ExOR)



Energy Efficient Routing

- Key link metrics for energy efficiency include transmission cost T , residual energy R , and initial energy E
- General Formulation (Chang and Tassiulas '00):

$$c_{i,j} = T_{i,j}^a R_i^{-b} E_i^c$$

- Optimization formulations can also be used to determine efficient network flows given a number of constraints.

Flow Optimization Formulations

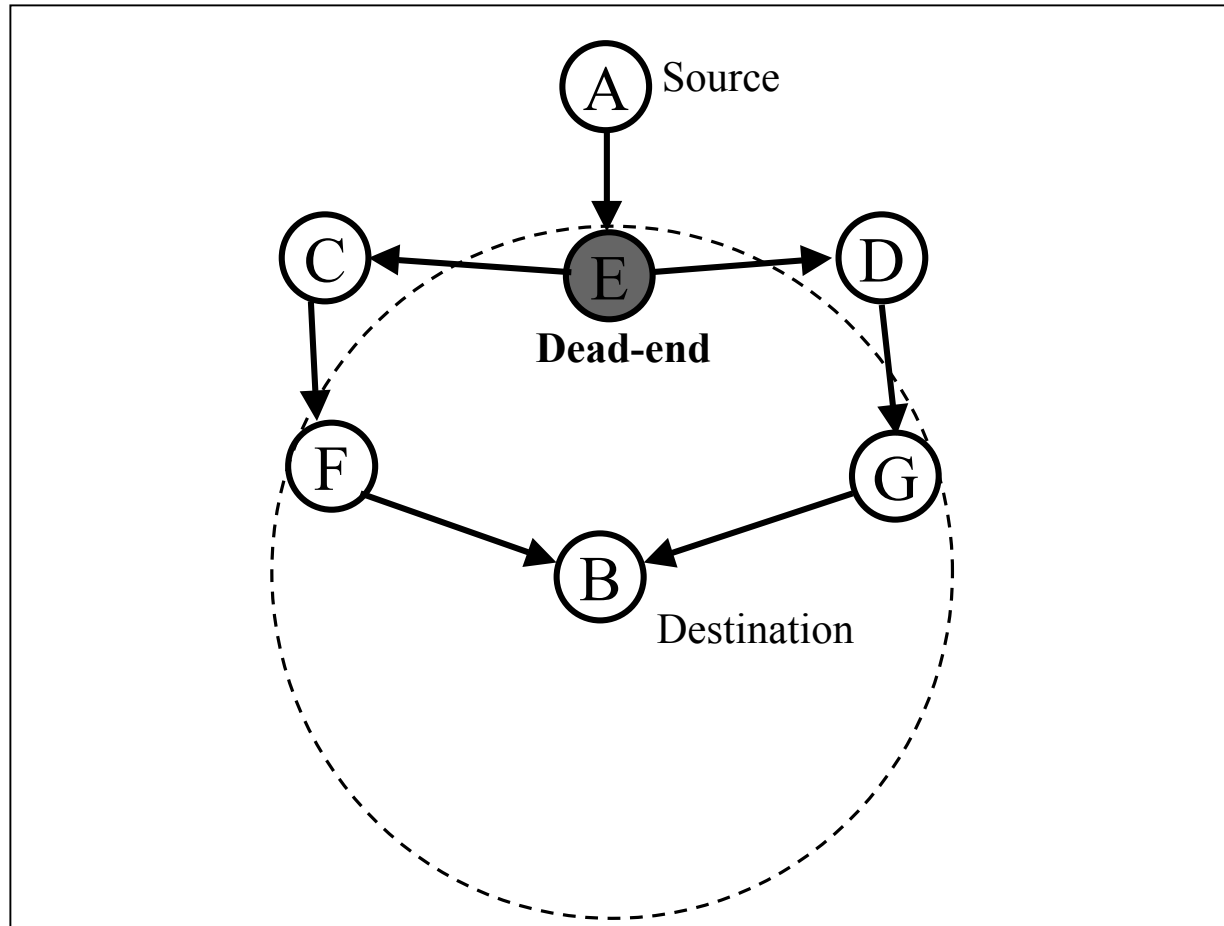
$$\begin{aligned}
 & \max \quad \sum_{j=i}^n f_{i,n+1} \cdot T \\
 \text{s.t. } \forall i \neq (n+1), & \quad \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} f_{ij} - \sum_{j=1}^n f_{ji} \geq 0 \quad (a) \\
 & \quad \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} f_{ij} \cdot C_{ij} + \sum_{j=1}^n f_{ji} \cdot R \right) \cdot T \leq E_i \quad (b) \\
 & \quad \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} f_{ij} + \sum_{j=1}^c f_{ji} \leq B_i \quad (b)
 \end{aligned}$$

Over a given interval, maximize total data obtained at the sink node, subject to per-node constraints on (a) flow conservation, (b) available energy, and (c) available bandwidth.

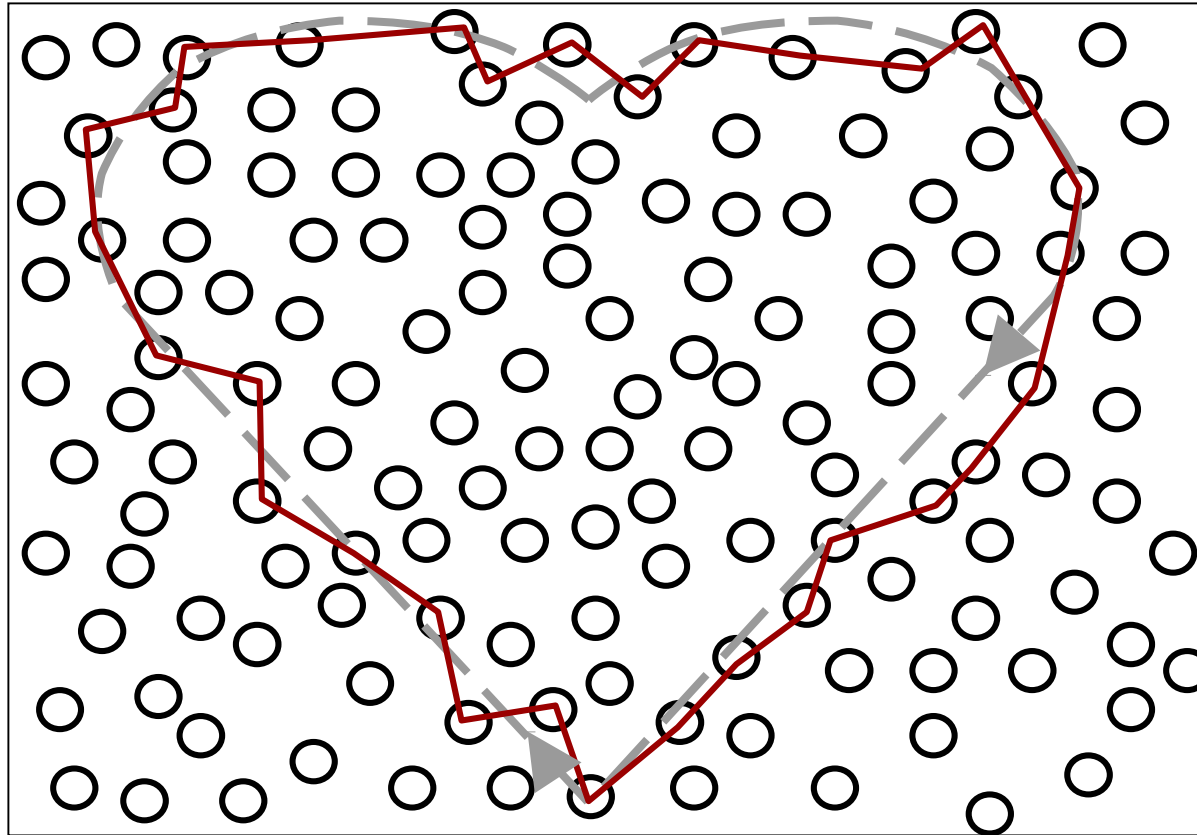
Geographic Routing

- Geographic routing techniques are of interest in WSN where there is ready availability of position information.
- In the basic greedy geographic technique, the packet is forwarded at each step to the neighbor whose position is closest to destination (Finn '87)
- Greedy forwarding, however, is susceptible to problem of dead-ends (Bose *et al.* '99, Karp and Kung '00)
- Trajectory based forwarding allows packets to traverse arbitrary paths (Niculescu and Nath '03)

Dead-end with Greedy Geographic Forwarding



Trajectory Based Forwarding

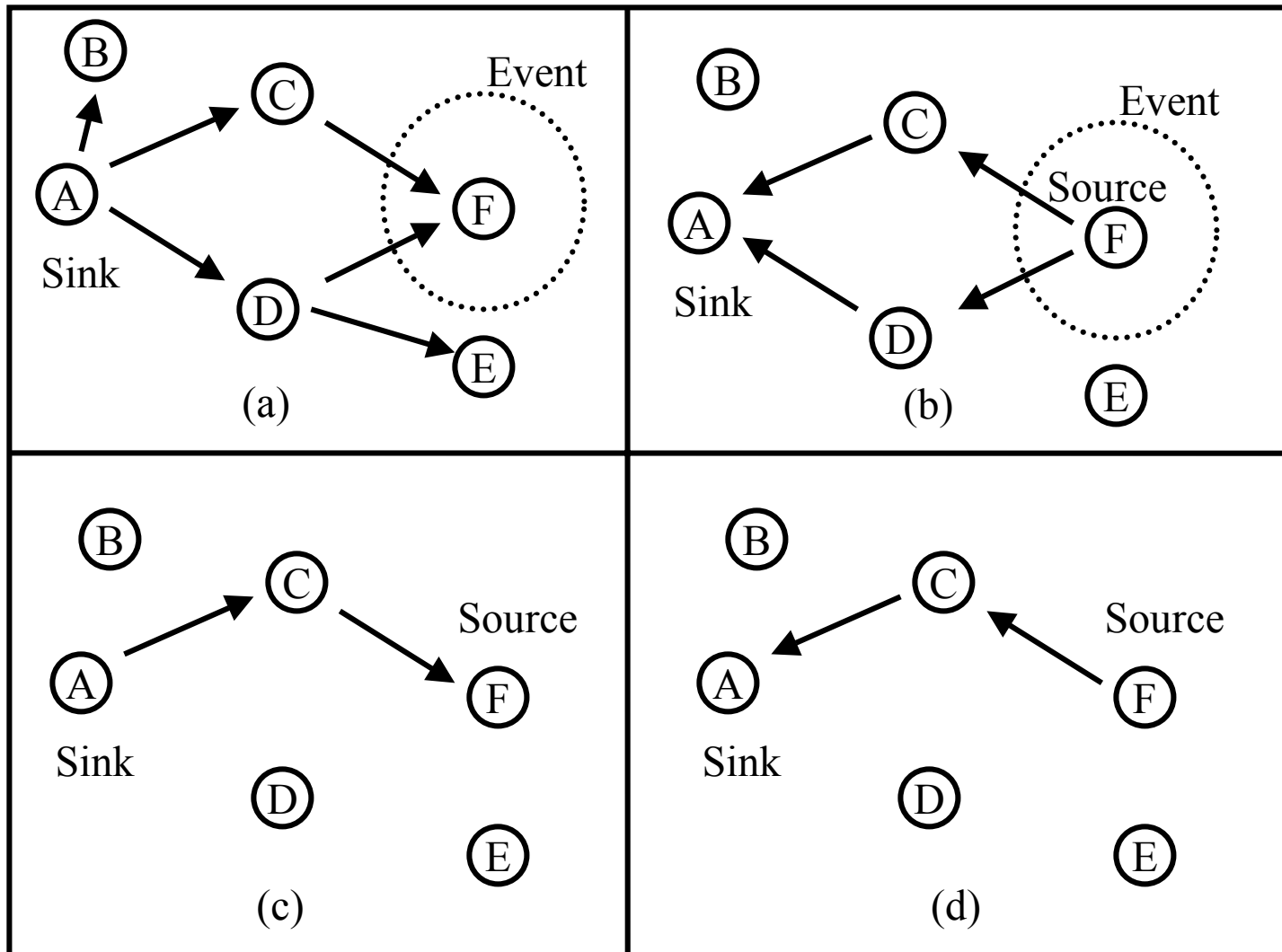


Data Centric Networking

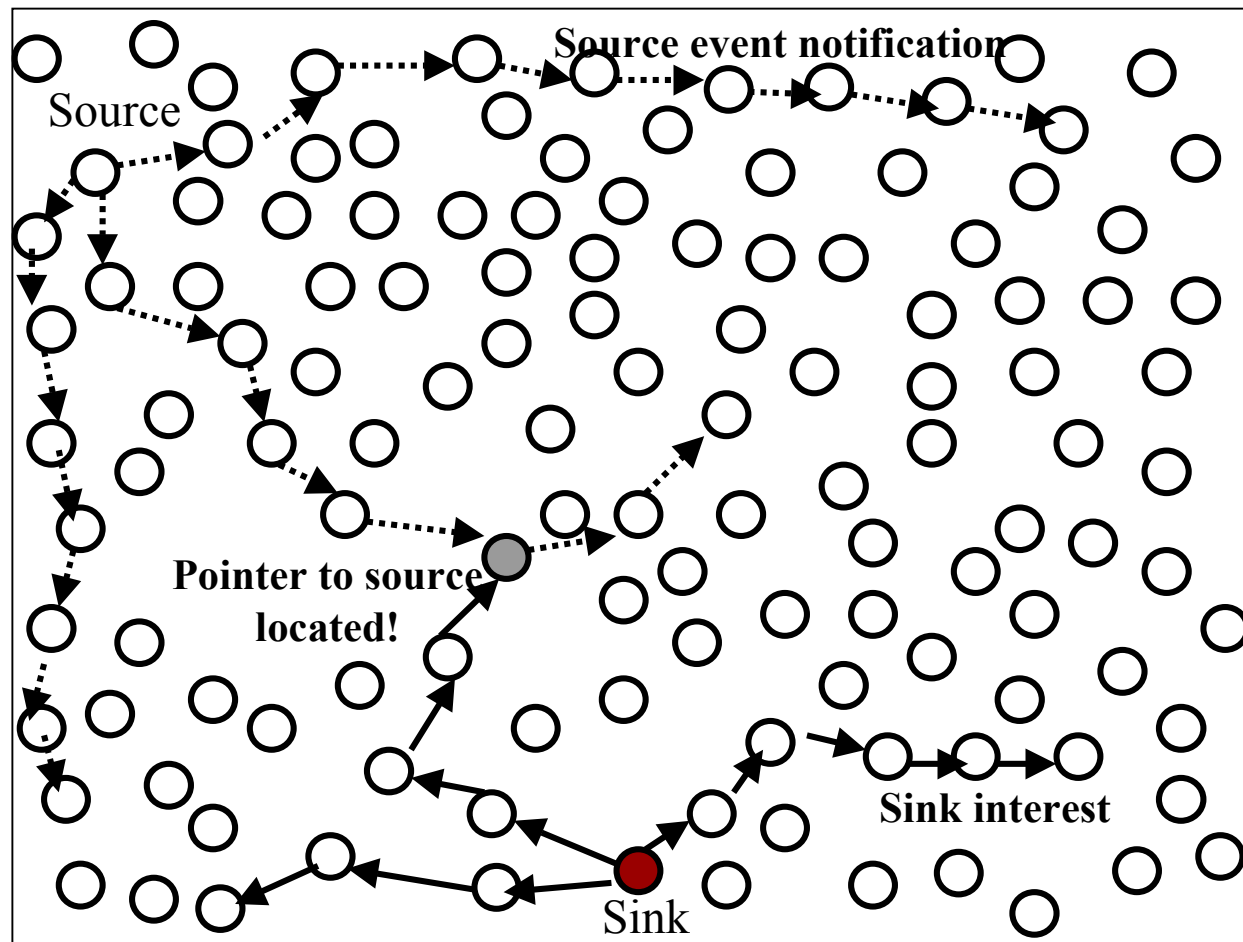
Data-Centric Operation

- Uniquely appropriate to sensor networks because of their application-specific nature
- Data centric routing, storage, and querying techniques are based on application-level content names instead of network address.
- Twin advantages:
 - lower overhead due to removal of address indirection,
 - greater energy savings by allowing easier in-network processing (including refinement, aggregation and compression)

Directed Diffusion Routing



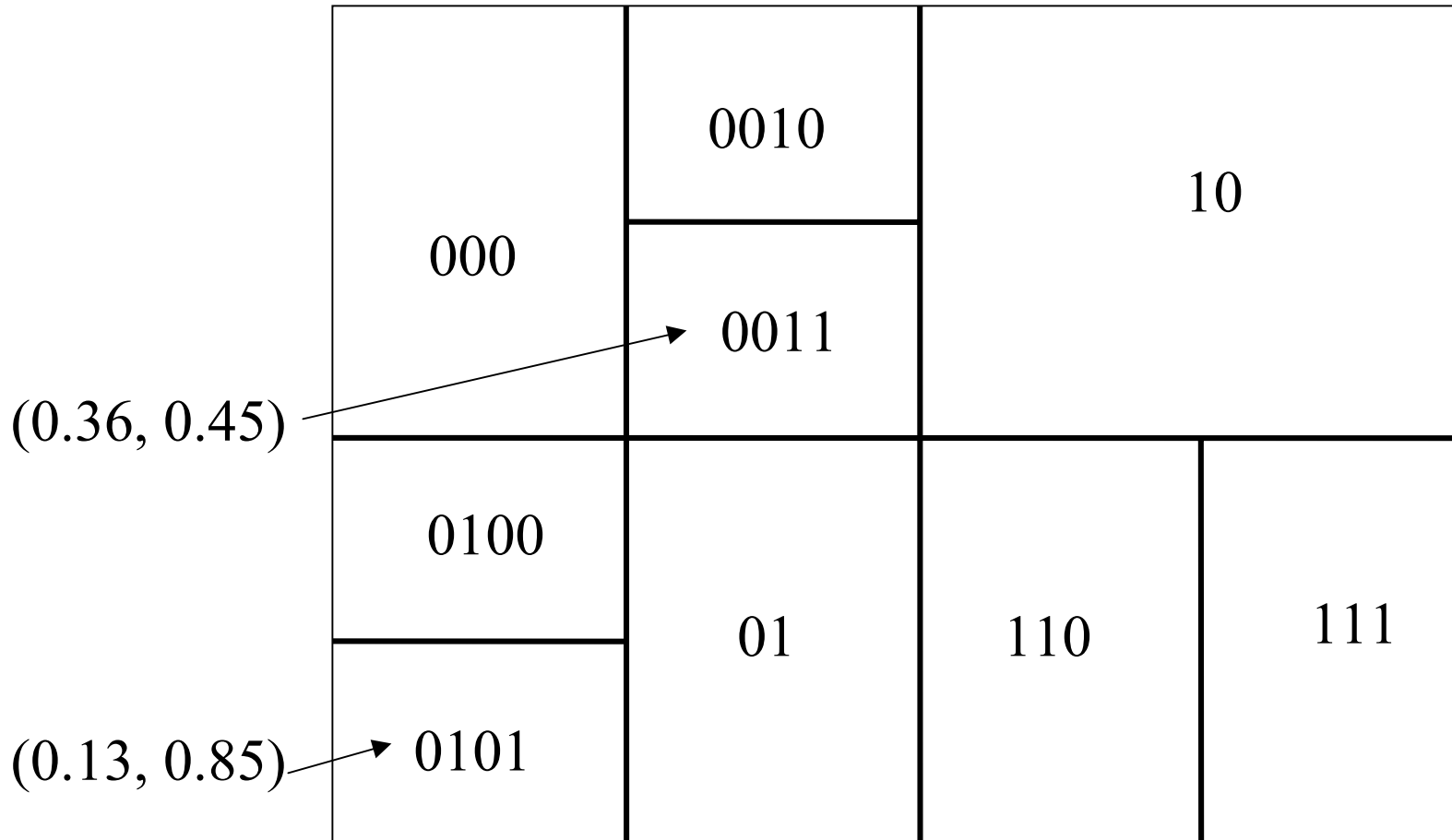
Rumor Routing



Data-Centric Storage

- Store sensor measurements within the network in an organized manner to allow for efficient retrieval.
- The GHT mechanism (Ratnasamy *et al.* '03) hashes event names to a unique geographic location for storage and retrieval.
- The DIM mechanism (Li *et al.* '03) hashes multidimensional ranges to a unique binary code, and binary codes to a unique geographic zone for storage and retrieval.

DCS for Multidimensional Range Queries (DIM)



The Database Perspective

- Treat the sensor network as a distributed database.
- Can then use a simple SQL-like language to query and task the WSN. E.g. TinyDB/TinySQL (Madden *et al.* '02)

```
SELECT max{temperature}, locationID FROM sensors  
  
WHERE lightIntensity > 120  
  
EPOCH DURATION 30s
```

- Allows for easy in-network aggregation and optimization of query plans

Transport

Key Issues

- Many transport-level QoS guarantees are essential in WSN: reliable delivery, priority delivery, delay guarantee, energy efficient delivery, fairness, application-specific quality of gathered information, etc.
- Challenges include channel loss, bandwidth limitation, interference and congestion, bursty traffic, buffer size and computational constraints.

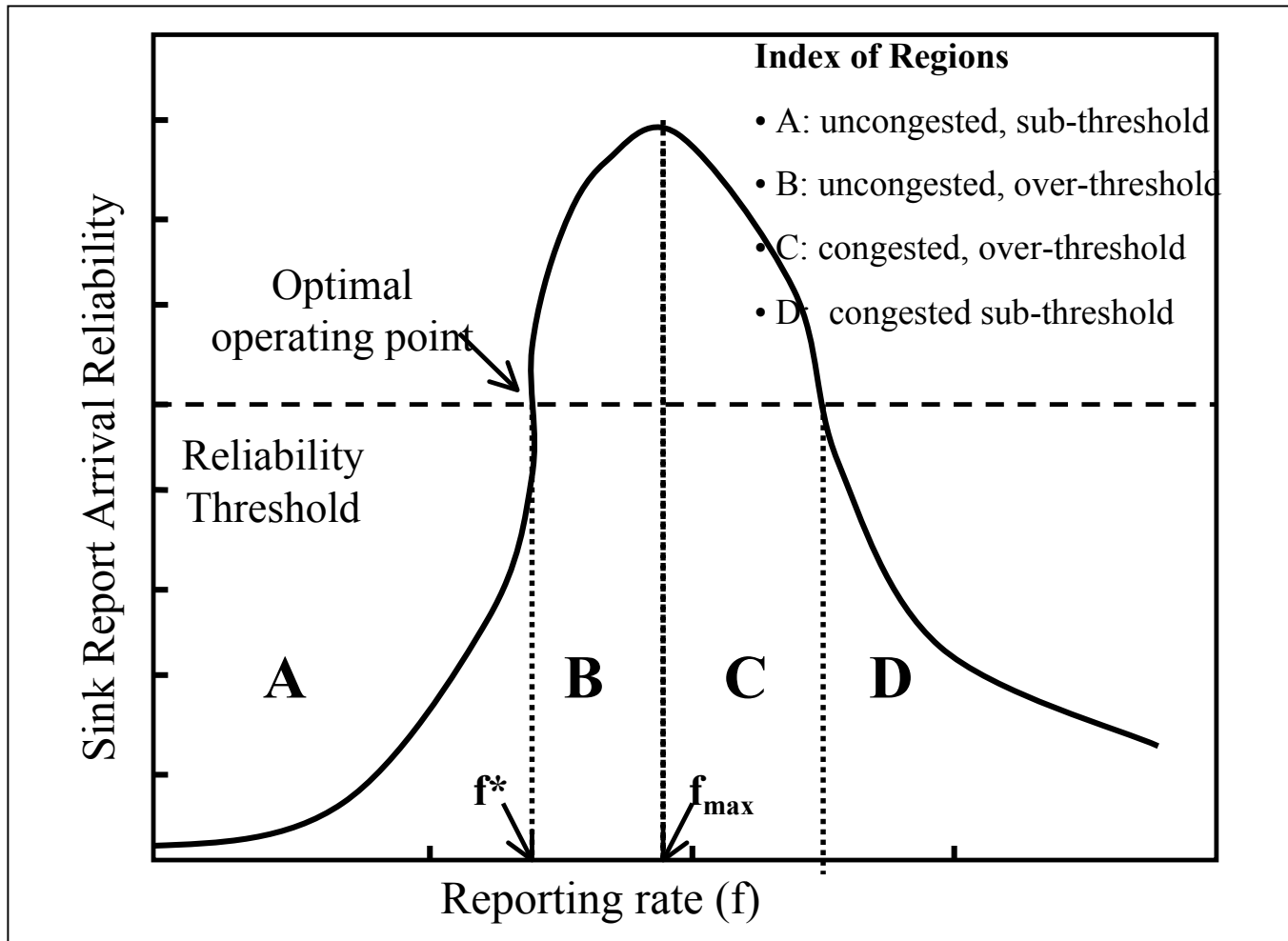
Transport Design Parameters

- Rate Control
- Scheduling Policy
- Drop Policy
- MAC backoff
- Use of explicit notification messages
- ACKS

Transport Techniques for WSN

- PSFQ (Wan, Campbell and Krishnamurthy '02), RMST (Stann and Heidemann '03) : advocate the use of message sequencing and hop-by-hop NACKs for reliable message transfer.
- ARC (Woo and Culler '01), CODA (Wan, Eisenman, Campbell '03): open loop rate control based on hop-by-hop back-pressure
- ESRT (Sankarasubramaniam, Akan and Akyildiz '03): closed loop rate control based on application-specific feedback from sink

ESRT



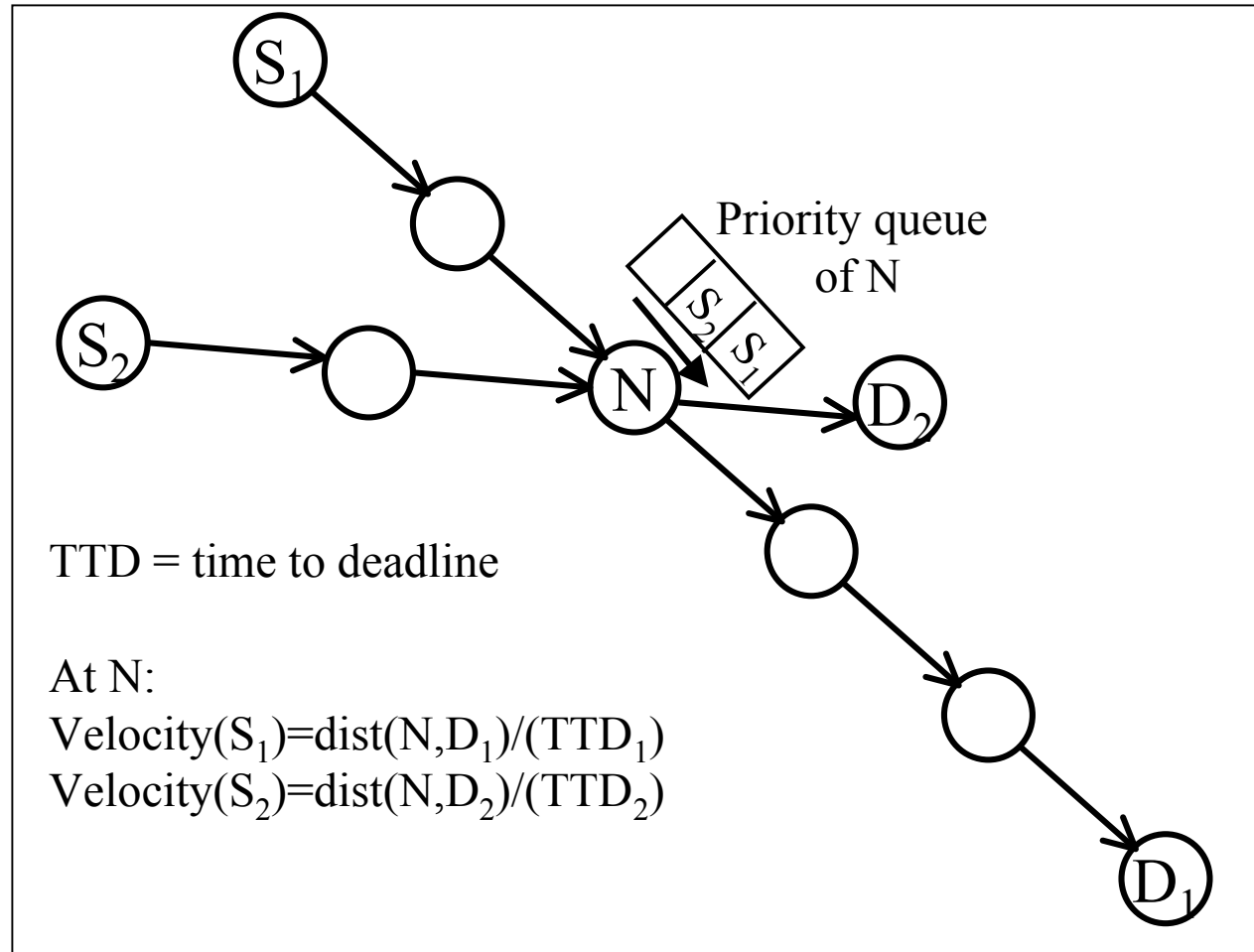
Real Time Transport

- SPEED (He, Stankovic, *et al.* '03): each node estimates expected speed of packet delivery through each neighbor. A speed threshold is used to decide whom to forward the packet to, or if the packet should be dropped.

$$v_{i,j} = \frac{L_i - L_j}{t_{i,j}}$$

- VMS (Lu *et al.* '02): A velocity is calculated dynamically for each packet at each intermediate location, given a deadline. Scheduling is monotonic with velocity

Velocity Monotonic Scheduling



Other Topics

Further Topics

- Asymptotic network capacity
- Hardware and software tools
- Tracking point targets and diffuse phenomena
- Programming, middleware, and systematic design
- Security issues and protocols

Conclusions

Conclusions

- WSN are a widely applicable, major emerging technology.
- They bring a whole host of novel research challenges pertaining to energy efficiency, robustness, scalability, self-configuration, etc.
- These challenges must be tackled at multiple levels through different protocols and mechanisms.
- Existing partial solutions offer much hope for the future, but much work remains to be done.

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