

PERFORMANCE OF DYNAMIC SOURCE ROUTING PROTOCOL FOR FIXED AND VARIABLE POWER TRANSMISSIONS IN WIRELESS SENSOR NETWORK

N.Divya¹, U.Hari²

¹PG Scholar, Embedded System Technology, Department of ECE, SRM University (India)

²Asst. Prof, Department of ECE, SRM University (India)

ABSTRACT

A wireless sensor network consists of collection of sensor nodes deployed over a geographical area for monitoring different parameters. The power source of sensor node consists of a battery with a limited energy and it is impossible to recharge the battery, because nodes may be deployed in an unmanned or remote area. Most of the power is consumed by the radio communication involved in the sensor network. So an energy efficient communication scheme has to be designed to improve the network lifetime. DSR protocol is a reactive protocol that makes it possible for all the nodes to find a route to a destination in a multiple network hops dynamically. The network lifetime reduces by forwarding data with more transmission power. The intermediate nodes spend more energy to transmit its own data and forward other nodes data. Therefore the intermediate node drains out of energy soon. To solve this problem the transmission power has to adjusted for different transmissions in the network according to distance towards the destination. The simulation is done using TOSSIM simulator tool.

Keywords: DSR (Dynamic Source Routing) Protocol, Intermediate Nodes, Network Lifetime, Transmission power level, WSN (Wireless Sensor Network)

I. INTRODUCTION

Wireless sensor network (WSN) is the collection of sensor nodes that performs a given task with coordination and in-network processing. These nodes have the potential of sensing, processing and communication of data with each other wirelessly. The basic task of sensor networks is to sense the events, collect data and send it to their destination. On the other hand, WSNs are power constrained distributed systems with low energy, low bandwidth and shorter communication range.

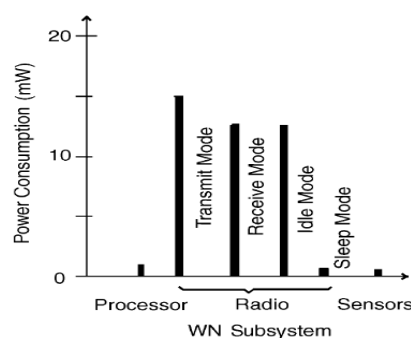


Figure 1: Power Consumption of Different Subsystem of A Sensor Node

Sensor networks require sensing systems that are long-lived and environmentally resilient. Power consumption needs to be taken into account as a design constraint. Out of all functions in a sensor node, the radio communication draws most of the energy as shown in Figure 1.

The wireless sensor node has a constrained power source and replenishment of power may be limited or impossible altogether. In this work micaz motes are considered. Battery operation for sensors used in commercial applications is typically based on two AA alkaline cells or one Li-AA cell. Power management and power conservation are critical functions for sensor networks, and one needs to design energy efficient protocols and algorithms. The function of a sensor node in a sensor field is to detect events, perform local data processing, and transmit processed data. Power consumption can therefore be allocated to three functional domains: sensing, communication, and data processing, each of which requires optimization. In the context of communications, in a multi hop sensor network a node may play the dual role of data collection and processing and of being a data relay point. Most of the power is consumed by the radio communication. So an energy efficient communication scheme has to be designed to improve the network lifetime.

II. RELATED WORK

M. N. Jambli and et al [1] evaluated the capability of AODV on how far it can react to network topology change in Mobile WSN. They investigated the performance metrics namely packet loss and energy consumption of mobile nodes with various speed, density and route update interval (RUI), for 9 nodes in (100×100) m² network. The presented results showed a high percentage of packet loss and the reduction in total network energy consumption of mobile nodes if RUI is getting longer due to serious broken link caused by nodes movement.

Ali Abdul-Majed Ihbeel and Hasein Issa Sigiuk [2] made an attempt to evaluate the performance of DSR routing protocol using some simulation network models, to investigate how well this protocol performs on WSNs, in static and mobile environments, using NS-2 simulator. The performance study will focus on the impact of the network size, network density (up to 450 nodes), and the number of sources (data connections). The performance metrics used in this work are average end-to-end delay, packet delivery fraction, routing overheads, and average energy consumption per delivered packet.

III. DYNAMIC SOURCE ROUTING PROTOCOL (DSR)

One of the reactive protocols is dynamic source routing protocol. This protocol makes it possible for all the nodes to find a route to a destination in a multiple network hops dynamically. The distinguishing features of DSR are: low network overhead, no extra infrastructure for administration and the use of source routing. Source routing implies that the sender had full knowledge of the complete hop-by-hop route information to the destination. The protocol is composed of the two main mechanisms of Route Discovery and Route Maintenance. Normally routes are stored in a route cache of each node. When a node likes to communicate to a destination, first it checks for the route for that particular destination in the route cache. If yes, the packets are sent with source route header information to the destination. In the other case, if the route is not available at the route cache; then the node will initiate the route discovery mechanism to get the route first [2].

The route discovery mechanism will flood the network with route request (RREQ) packets, and then the neighbors will receive RREQ packets and check for the route to destination in their route cache. If the route is not in their caches rebroadcast the RREQ, otherwise the node replies to the originator with a route reply (RREP)

packet. Since RREQ and RREP packets both are source routed, original source can obtain the route and add to its route cache. In any case the link on a source route is broken; the source node is notified with a route error (RERR) packet. Once the RERR is received, the source removes the route from its cache and route discovery process is reinitiated.

DSR being a reactive routing protocol has no need to periodically flood the network for updating the routing tables like table-driven routing protocols do. Intermediate nodes are able to utilize the route cache information efficiently to reduce the control overhead.

DSR minimizes the overall network bandwidth overhead because of the fact that it does not use periodic routing messages. By doing so DSR saves battery power as well as avoidance of routing updates that are large enough. However there is a support from the MAC layer that informs the routing protocol of any failure in nodes in DSR. In DSR protocol the forwarding nodes do not save the up-to date routing information, thus DSR takes the use of source routing. DSR describes a flow id option that allows packets to be transmitted on a hop-by-hop basis. This protocol is based on source routing where all the routing information is maintained at mobile nodes. It has two major phases, which are Route Discovery and Route Maintenance. Route Reply would be created only if the message has reached the correct destination node.

All the known routes are stored in the cache by DSR. When a node wants to send data to another node, it first broadcasts an RREQ as shown in Figure 1. This RREQ is received by other nodes and as they receive it they start searching their cache for any available route to the destination node. In case on any unavailable routes this RREQ is forwarded while the address of the current node is being recorded in the hop sequence.

The RREQ propagates in the network until the availability of a route to the destination or the availability of the destination itself. When this happens an RREP is generated and unicasted to the source node. The contents of this RREP packet are the sequence of hops in the network for reaching the destination node. In the discovery of an invalid route an error packet is sent to the source node and once this error packet is received, the hop that has error is removed from the cache of the host and all routes containing this erroneous hop are deleted.

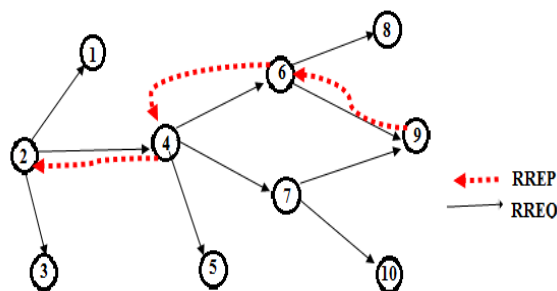


Figure 1- Route Discovery

To make the best use of the limited energy available to the sensor nodes, and hence to enhance the network lifetime, it is important to design modulation scheme, transmit power and hop distance parameters in the network stack. To solve the problems of minimizing energy to send data and finding optimum energy-efficient transmit distances, the concept of energy per bit metric is used [3].

This metric defines a way of comparing energy consumption, the energy per bit (EPB) metric as:

$$EPB = \frac{(B_D + B_P) (P_T + \alpha P_R) T}{B_D} \quad (1)$$

B_D is the average number of data bits and B_P is the average number of preamble bits. The terms P_T and P_R are transmit and receive power, respectively. The parameter α is determined by the MAC protocol and represents the proportion of time spent in receive mode compared to the proportion of time spent in transmit mode. Finally, T is the time to transmit a bit.

The energy consumed when sending a packet of m bits over one hop wireless link can be expressed as[13],

$$E_L(m,d) = \{E_T(m,d) + P_T T_{st} + E_{encode}\} + \{E_R(m) + P_R T_{st} + E_{decode}\} \quad (2)$$

E_T is energy used by the transmitter circuitry and power amplifier, E_R is energy used by the receiver circuitry, P_T is power consumption of the transmitter circuitry, P_R is power consumption of the receiver circuitry, T_{st} is startup time of the transceiver, E_{encode} is energy used to encode, E_{decode} is the energy used to decode.

Assuming a linear relationship for the energy spent per bit at the transmitter and receiver circuitry E_T and E_R can be written as[13],

$$E_T(m,d) = m (e_{TC} + e_{TA} d^\alpha) \quad (3)$$

$$E_R(m) = m e_{RC} \quad (4)$$

e_{TC} , e_{TA} , and e_{RC} are hardware dependent parameters and α is the path loss exponent whose value varies from 2 (for free space) to 4 (for multipath channel models). The effect of the transceiver startup time, T_{st} , will greatly depend of the type of MAC protocol used[13]. To minimize power consumption it is desired to have the transceiver in a sleep mode as much as possible however constantly turning on and off the transceiver also consumes energy to bring it to readiness for transmission or reception. e_{TA} can be expressed as,

$$e_{TA} = \frac{(S/N)_r (N F_{rx}) (N_o) (BW) (4\pi / \lambda)^\alpha}{(G_{ant}) (\eta_{amp}) (R_{bit})} \quad (5)$$

Where,

$(S/N)_r$ = minimum required signal to noise ratio at the receiver's demodulator for an acceptable E_b/N_o

$N F_{rx}$ = receiver noise figure

N_o = thermal noise floor in a 1 Hertz bandwidth (Watts/Hz)

BW = channel noise bandwidth

λ = wavelength in meters

α = path loss exponent

G_{ant} = antenna gain

η_{amp} = transmitter power efficiency

R_{bit} = raw bit rate in bits per second

IV. POWER SCENARIOS

There are two possible power scenarios

4.1. Variable Transmission Power

In this case the radio dynamically adjust its transmission power so that $(S/N)_r$ is fixed to guarantee a certain level of E_b/N_o at the receiver. The transmission energy per bit is given by[13],

$$\text{Transmission energy per bit} = e_{TA} d^\alpha = \zeta (S/N)_r d^\alpha \quad (6)$$

Since $(S/N)_r$ is fixed at the receiver this also means that the probability p of bit error is fixed to the same value for each link.

4.2. Fixed Transmission Power

In this case the radio uses a fixed power for all transmissions. This case is considered because several commercial radio interfaces have a very limited capability for dynamic power adjustments[13]. In this case it is fixed to a certain value (E_{TA}) at the transmitter and the $(S/N)_r$ at the receiver will then be,

$$(S/N)_r = (E_{TA}) / (\zeta d^a) \quad (7)$$

Since for most practical deployments d is different for each link then $(S/N)_r$ will also be different for each link. This translates on a different probability of bit error for wireless hop.

In this work a DSR protocol performance is studied and analyzed under variable and fixed transmission power. According to the distance between two nodes the transmission power can be adjusted. Thereby we can reduce the consumption of power. Evaluating DSR protocol under various transmission power outperforms the fixed range transmission.

V. TOSSIM

TOSSIM captures the behavior and interactions of networks of thousands of TinyOS motes at network bit granularity. Figure2 shows a graphical overview of TOSSIM.

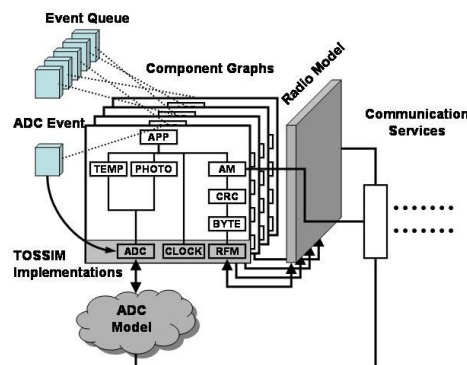


Figure 2: TOSSIM Architecture: Frames, Events, Models, Components, and Services

The TOSSIM architecture is composed of five parts: support for compiling TinyOS component graphs into the simulation infrastructure, a discrete event queue, a small number of re-implemented TinyOS hardware abstraction components, mechanisms for extensible radio and ADC models, and communication services for external programs to interact with a simulation. TOSSIM takes advantage of TinyOS's structure and whole system compilation to generate discrete-event simulations directly from TinyOS component graphs. It runs the same code that runs on sensor network hardware. By replacing a few low-level components (e.g., those shaded in Figure 2), TOSSIM translates hardware interrupts into discrete simulator events; the simulator event queue delivers the interrupts that drive the execution of a TinyOS application. The remainder of TinyOS code runs unchanged. TOSSIM uses a very simple but surprisingly powerful abstraction for its wireless network. The network is a directed graph, in which each vertex is a node, and each edge has a bit error probability [4]-[6].

Compiling to native code allows developers to use traditional tools such as debuggers in TOSSIM. As it is a discrete event simulation, users can set debugger breakpoints and step through what is normally real-time code (such as packet reception) without disrupting operation. It also provides mechanisms for other programs to

interact and monitor a running simulation; by keeping monitoring and interaction external to TOSSIM, the core simulator engine remains very simple and efficient [7].

VI. POWERTOSSIP Z

Hardware power consumption has been incorporated into implementation of PowerTOSSIM z. Capturing the power consumption of an application running on a given mote necessitates tracking of the behaviour of the mote's low level components, such as the microcontroller and the radio chip. An energy estimator must also take into account the interfaces that TinyOS exports to manage them, and their support within TOSSIM.[11]

6.1 Tinyos Interfaces

The TinyOS 2.x power management interfaces are a major improvement over those implemented in TinyOS 1.x. As stated in TEP 112 [8], TinyOS 1.x essentially relied on the application itself to handle the power on/power off states of all the devices. This was accomplished through the use of the StdControl interface, which exports a start and a stop command that any component can call over a given peripheral. This approach simplified the design of PowerTOSSIM 1.x, since most of the calls could then be placed where this interface was implemented, to gain a complete view of the mote's power state. TinyOS 2.x operates differently in that it divides the devices in two classes[11]:

1. The microcontroller, which fundamentally has enough information to independently calculate the power state to use.
2. The peripherals, which have simpler semantics (with the partial exception of the CC2420 Radio Chip, as we will see later on) and two basic power states, on and off.

The relevant power management interfaces and their associated hardware are described in more detail below. Only the devices relevant to our PowerTOSSIM z implementation will be analyzed, with particular emphasis on TOSSIM support and its limitations. This description is at the heart of the design goals and implementation of PowerTOSSIM z, and any future improvements.

6.2 Microcontroller Power Management: The Atm128 Mcu

The Atmega128 is a low-power CMOS 8-bit microcontroller based on the AVR enhanced RISC architecture [9]. It features six software selectable power-save states (shown in Table 1) which range from the IDLE state, which stops the CPU while leaving all the other components active, down to the POWERDOWN state, which disables all the components until the next interrupt or hardware reset. TinyOS exports one interface for the handling of the microcontroller, which is called McuSleep, which exposes a single asynchronous command, sleep(), that is called inside the TinyOS scheduler when the FIFO task queue is empty. The job of the sleep() command is to calculate the correct power state in which to put the microcontroller. The task requires analysis of the state of different registers[11].

Table 1: Atmega128 Power states

POWER STATE	CURRENT
Active	8mA
Idle	4mA
Standby	1mA

ADC Noise Reduction	1mA
Extended Standby	160 μ A
Power-save	9 μ A
Power-down	0.3 μ A

RADIO	CURRENT
Rx	7.03 mA
Tx (power = 00)	3.72 mA
Tx (power = 01)	5.21 mA
Tx (power = 03)	5.37 mA
Tx (power = 06)	6.47 mA
Tx (power = 09)	7.05 mA
Tx (power = 0F)	8.47 mA
Tx (power = 60)	11.57 mA
Tx (power = 80)	13.77 mA
Tx (power = C0)	17.37 mA
Tx (power = FF)	21.48 mA

This result is compared to the actual lowest possible state to which the MCU is allowed to go. Since some external peripherals may require the MCU to not go below a given power state (for example if it will require the CPU soon and the tradeoff between time spent in a low-power state and wake-up latency is not favorable), TinyOS allows them to specify the lowest acceptable power state through the `Mcu Power Override`. `Lowest State()` command. Despite first appearances, TOSSIM does not offer support for fine tracking of the behaviour of the microcontroller. A port of the `Mcu Sleep` components exists, together with a representation of the hardware registers as entries in a global array of `uint8_t` entries. However, these registers are never modified, and the `Mcu Sleep` component itself is not wired inside the TOSSIM scheduler (which is missing a call to the `sleep()` command when there are no tasks available). The power state of the microcontroller is of some importance to our battery model: we assume that battery recovery can only take place with the MCU in `POWERSAVE` or `POWERDOWN` modes. Therefore the TOSSIM scheduler is extended to call `Mcu Sleep`. `sleep()` and we basic tracking of some of the components' state is performed to allow Power TOSSIM 2 to report meaningful values for the MCU state. The `atm128` implementation also tracks the use of the LED and other ports. LEDs are connected to Port G of the `atm128` microcontroller, a 5 bit port. Bits 0, 1 and 2 are used to directly manipulate the LED state, while bit 4 acts as a broadcast bit (controlling all the three LEDs at the same time). The state of the SPI bus can be derived from the use of the flash and the radio stack (which both use the SPIbus). TOSSIM uses the Simple Fcfs Arbiter to emulate the `atm128` SPI bus (which allows some tracking of the resources requiring and releasing the SPI bus)[11].

6.3 Peripheral Power Management

TinyOS 2.x divides the power management interfaces into two distinct classes, the microcontroller and the peripherals. A richer set of interfaces (with respect to TinyOS 1.x) is offered for power management of peripherals, described in TEP 115 [10] which can be categorized into two different models: explicit power management and implicit power management. Our work does not focus on the latter (as used by the `at45db` flash

memory components); simplistically, it can be understood as powering on or off a given device with the explicit power management interface once the resource has been granted (in the case of the at45db interface, the SPI bus). A more detailed description is available in [10].

VII. SIMULATION RESULTS

7.1 Energy Consumption

Figure 3 shows the energy consumption per delivered packet: This measure the energy expended per delivered data packet.

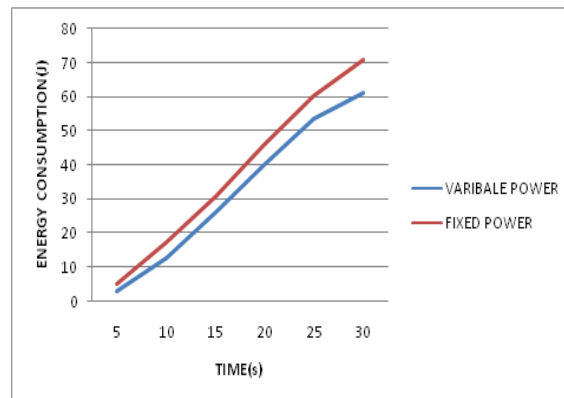


Figure 3- Comparison of Energy Consumption

7.2 Throughput

It is the rate of successful message delivery over a communication channel as shown in Figure 4. Throughput is measured in bits per second (bit/s or bps)

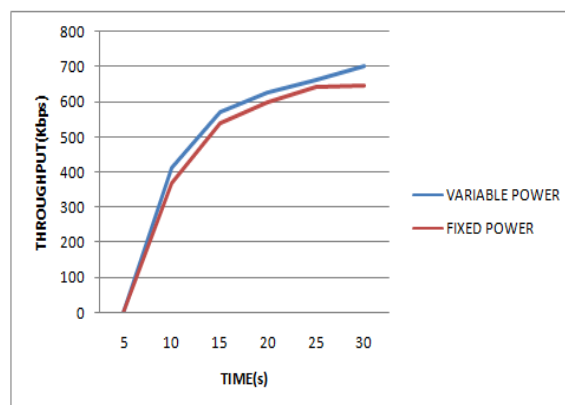


Figure 4- Comparison of Throughput

VIII. CONCLUSION

On comparing the performance of DSR protocol under fixed and variable power transmission is studied and analyzed. Power transmissions when varied according to the number of hops in-between seems to be more energy-efficient compared to fixed power transmission in wireless sensor network. Therefore the network lifetime can be enhanced.

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