

SRINIVASAN COLLEGE OF ARTS & SCIENCE

(Affiliated Bharathidasan University, Tiruchirappalli)

PERAMBALUR – 621 212



Department of Computer Science & Information Technology

COURSE MATERIAL

Subject : WIRELESS SENSOR NETWORKS

Subject Code : P16CS42

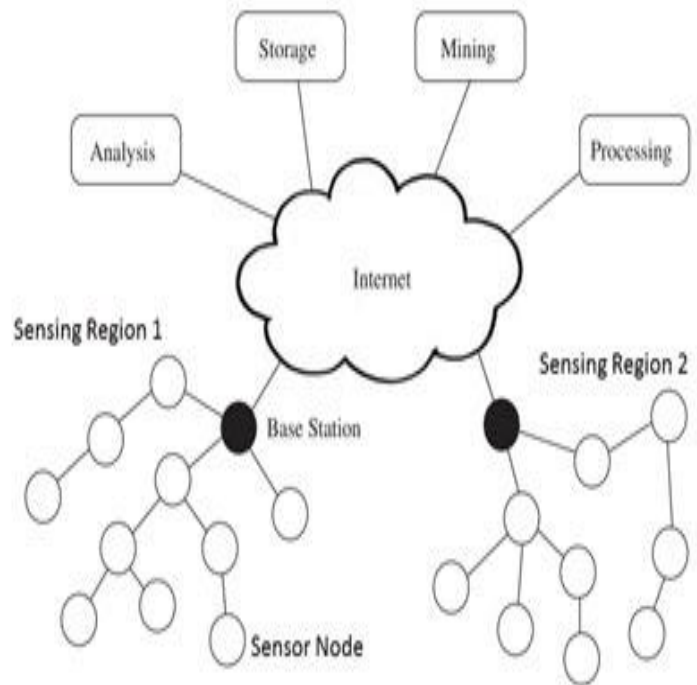
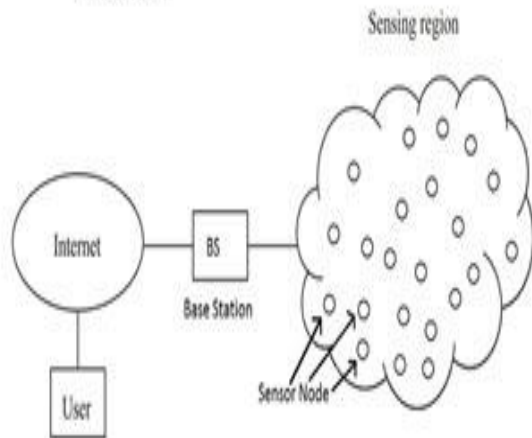
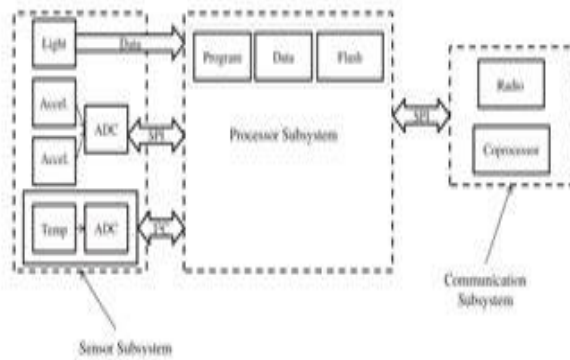
Class : II M.Sc., COMPUTER SCIENCE

Semester : IV

WIRELESS SENSOR NETWORKS

(WSN)

ELECTRONICS HUB



Unit - I

INTRODUCTION

A Wireless Sensor Network (WSN) is a distributed network and it comprises a large number of distributed, self-directed, tiny, low powered devices called sensor nodes alias motes. WSN naturally encompasses a large number of spatially dispersed, petite, battery-operated, embedded devices that are networked to supportively collect, process, and convey data to the users, and it has restricted computing and processing capabilities. Motes are the small computers, which work collectively to form the networks. Motes are energy efficient, multi-functional wireless device . The necessities for motes in industrial applications are widespread. A group of motes collects the information from the environment to accomplish particular application objectives. They make links with each other in different configurations to get the maximum performance. Motes communicate with each other using transceivers. In WSN the number of sensor nodes can be in the order of hundreds or even thousands. In comparison with sensor networks, Ad Hoc networks will have less number of nodes without any infrastructure. The differences between WSN and Ad hoc Networks are presented in the Table given.

Now a days wireless network is the most popular services utilized in industrial and commercial applications, because of its technical advancement in processor, communication, and usage of low power embedded computing devices. Sensor nodes are used to monitor environmental conditions like temperature, pressure, humidity, sound, vibration, position etc. In many real time applications the sensor nodes are performing different tasks like neighbor node discovery, smart sensing, data storage and processing,

data aggregation, target tracking, control and monitoring, node localization, synchronization and efficient routing between nodes and base station.

Table 1.1 Wireless Sensor Networks Vs Ad hoc Networks

Parameters	Wireless Sensor Networks	Ad Hoc Networks
Number of sensor nodes	Large	Medium
Deployment	Densely deployed	Scattered
Failure rate	Prone to failures	Very rare
Topology	Changes very frequently	Very rare
Communication paradigm	Broadcast communication	Point-to-Point communications
Battery	Not replaceable/ Not rechargeable	Replaceable
Identifiers	No unique identifiers	Unique identifiers
Centric	Data centric	Address centric
Fusion / aggregation	Possible	Not suitable
Computational capacities, and memory	Limited	Not limited
Data rate	Low	High
Redundancy	High	Low

Wireless sensor nodes are equipped with sensing unit, a processing unit, communication unit and power unit. Each and every node is capable to perform data gathering, sensing, processing and communicating with other nodes. The sensing unit senses the environment, the processing unit computes the confined permutations of the sensed data, and the communication unit performs exchange of processed information among

neighboring sensor nodes. The basic building block of a sensor node is shown in Figure 1.1.

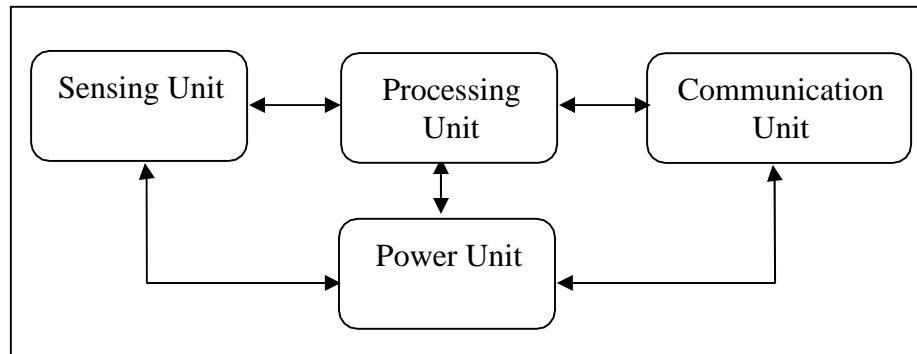


Figure 1.1 Basic Building Blocks of Sensor Node

The sensing unit of sensor nodes integrates different types of sensors like thermal sensors, magnetic sensors, vibration sensors, chemical sensors, bio sensors, and light sensors. The measured parameters from the external environment by sensing unit of sensor node are fed into the processing unit. The analog signal generated by the sensors are digitized by using Analog to Digital converter (ADC) and sent to controller for further processing.

The processing unit is the important core unit of the sensor node. The processor executes different tasks and controls the functionality of other components. The required services for the processing unit are pre-programmed and loaded into the processor of sensor nodes. The energy utilization rate of the processor varies depending upon the functionality of the nodes. The variation in the performance of the processor is identified by the evaluating factors like processing speed, data rate, memory and peripherals supported by the processors. Mostly ATMEGA 16, ATMEGA 128L, MSP 430 controllers [7] are used in

commercial motes. The computations are performed in the processing unit and the acquired result is transmitted to the base station through the communication unit.

In communication unit, a common transceiver act as a communication unit and it is mainly used to transmit and receive the information among the nodes and base station and vice versa. There are four states in the communication unit: transmit, receive, idle and sleep. In general the functionality of the sensor node is shown in Figure1.2.

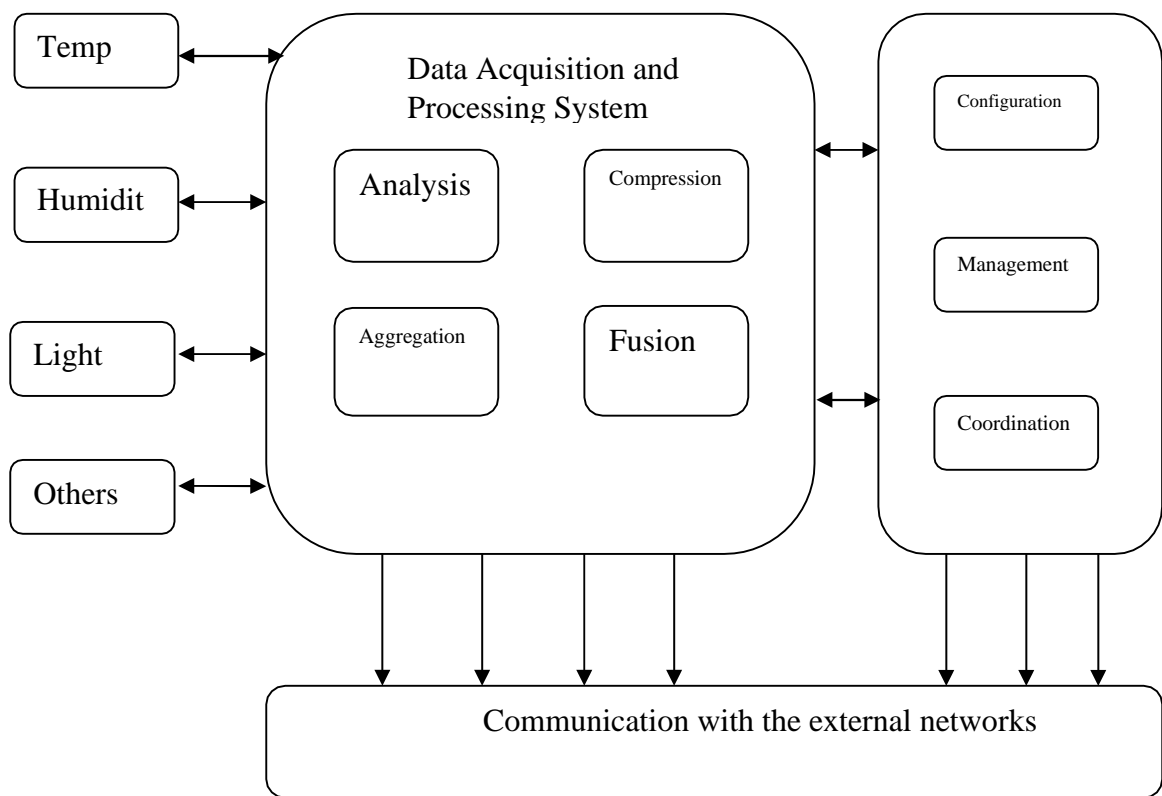


Figure 1.2 Functionality of A Sensor Node

The major characteristics of the sensor node used to evaluate the performance of WSN are[6]

- 1. Fault tolerance:** Each node in the network is prone to unanticipated failure. Fault tolerance is the capability to maintain sensor network functionalities without any break due to sensor node failures.
- 2. Mobility of nodes:** In order to increase the communication efficiency, the nodes can move anywhere within the sensor field based on the type of applications.
- 3. Dynamic network topology:** Connection between sensor nodes follows some standard topology. The WSN should have the capability to work in the dynamic topology.
- 4. Communication failures:** If any node in the WSN fails to exchange data with other nodes, it should be informed without delay to the base station or gateway node.
- 5. Heterogeneity of nodes:** The sensor nodes deployed in the WSN may be of various types and need to work in a cooperative fashion.
- 6. Scalability:** The number of sensor nodes in a sensor network can be in the order of hundreds or even thousands. Hence, WSN designed for sensor networks is supposed to be highly scalable.
- 7. Independency:** The WSN should have the capability to work without any central control point.
- 8. Programmability:** The option for reprogramming or reconfiguring should be available for the WSN to become adaptive for any dynamic changes in the network.
- 9. Utilization of sensors:** The sensors should be utilized in a way that produces the maximum performance with less energy.

10. Impracticality of public key cryptosystems: The limited computation and power resources of sensor nodes often make it undesirable to use public key algorithms.

11. Lack of aprior knowledge of post-deployment configuration: If a sensor network is deployed via random distribution, the protocols will not be aware of the communication status between each nodes after deployment.

The following metrics are used to evaluate the performance of a WSN [8]: network coverage, node coverage, efficiency in terms of system lifetime, effortless deployment, data accuracy, system response time, fault tolerance, scalability, network throughput, sample rate, security, the cost of the network and network architecture used. The individual sensor node in the WSN is evaluated using flexibility, robustness, computation, communication, security, synchronization, node size and cost.

The components of WSN system are sensor node, relay node, actor node, cluster head, gateway and base station which are explained below [2].

Sensor node: Capable of executing data processing, data gathering and communicating with additional associated nodes in the network. A distinctive sensor node capability is about 4-8 MHz, having 4 KB of RAM, 128 KB flash and preferably 916 MHz of radio frequency.

Relay node: It is a midway node used to communicate with the adjacent node. It is used to enhance the network reliability. A relay node is a special type of field device that does not have process sensor or control equipment and as such does not interface with the

process itself. A distinctive relay node processor speed is about 8 MHz, having 8 KB of RAM, 128 KB flash and preferably 916 MHz of radio frequency.

Actor node: It is a high end node used to perform and construct a decision depending upon the application requirements. Typically these nodes are resource rich devices which are outfitted with high quality processing capabilities, greater transmission powers and greater battery life. A distinctive actor node processor capability is about 8 MHz, having 16 KB of RAM, 128 KB flash and preferably 916 MHz of radio frequency [7].

Cluster head: It is a high bandwidth sensing node used to perform data fusion and data aggregation functions in WSN. Based on the system requirements and applications, there will be more than one cluster head inside the cluster. A distinctive cluster head processor is about 4-8 MHz, having 512 KB of RAM, 4 MB flash and preferably 2.4 GHz of radio frequency [7]. This node assumed to be highly reliable, secure and is trusted by all the nodes in the sensor network.

Gateway: Gateway is an interface between sensor networks and outside networks. Compared with the sensor node and cluster head the gateway node is most powerful in terms of program and data memory, the processor used, transceiver range and the possibility of expansion through external memory. A distinctive gateway processor speed is about 16 MHz, having 512 KB of RAM, 32 MB flash and preferably 2.4 GHz of radio frequency.

Base station: It is an extraordinary type of nodes having high computational energy and processing capability.

Attractive functionality of sensor nodes in a WSN includes effortless installation, fault indication, energy level diagnosis, highly reliability, easy coordination with other nodes in the network, control protocols and simple network interfaces with other smart devices. In WSN, based on the sensing range and environment, the sensor nodes are classified into four groups, namely specialized sensing node, generic sensing node, high bandwidth sensing node and gateway node. The radio bandwidth for these sensor nodes are <50 Kbps, <100 Kbps, \approx 500 Kbps and >500 Kbps respectively. On board processing, computational rate and communication ranges differ from node to node in WSN. Particularly for some dedicated application sensor nodes with different capabilities are used. For example, smart specialized sensing nodes are preferred for special purpose devices, intelligent generic sensing node preferred for generic functions. For interconnectivity functions high end smart bandwidth sensing node and gateway nodes are preferred.

Sensor networks are clustered with gateway, relay node, actor node and cluster head, and every other node within the communication range. Cluster is a collection of group of sensor nodes in that particular sensor field. There may be more than one cluster in WSN. Based on the parameters like computation rate, processing speed, storage, and communication range, sensor nodes are identified and selected for WSN formation [9]. Based on the node properties the sensor networks are classified into two types, homogenous sensor networks and heterogeneous sensor networks. In homogenous sensor networks, all sensor nodes have the same property in terms of computation, communication, memory, energy level and reliability. In heterogeneous sensor networks, the nodes are of different capabilities in terms of computation, communication, memory, energy level and reliability. If all the sensor nodes within the cluster are having the same

properties (homogenous) it is referred as distributed WSN (DWSN). Otherwise if the sensor nodes have different properties (heterogeneous) it is called as hierarchical WSN (HWSN). The distributed and hierarchical WSN is shown in Figure 1.3.

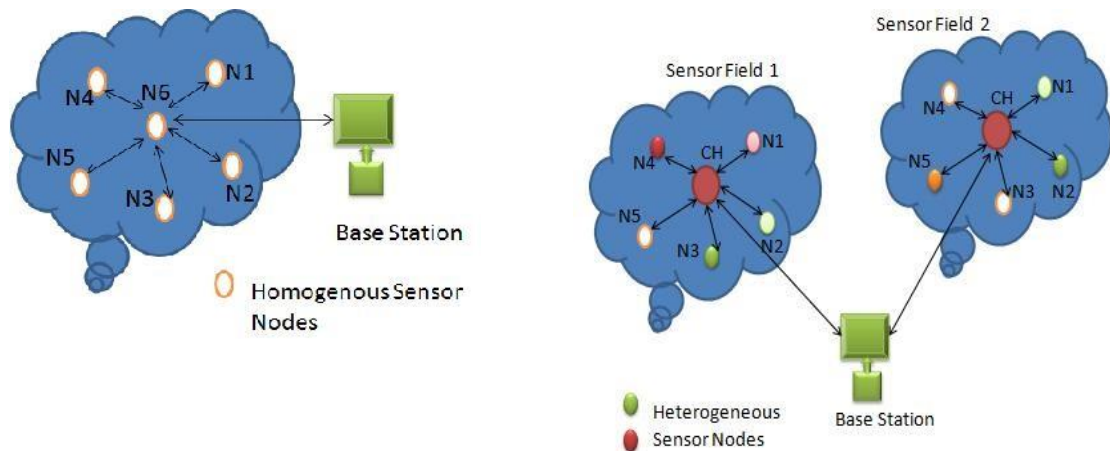


Figure 1.3 Distributed and Hierarchical WSN

Sensor nodes in an open environment regularly sense the physical and environmental changes and transmit the information to the centralized server called a gateway. The computational rate and interaction of sensor nodes with the physical environment is different for different nodes in the network. In real time, sensor nodes are more constrained in its computational energy and storage resources.

The sensor nodes are intelligent to observe an extensive diversity of ambient circumstances that includes flow, temperature, pressure, humidity, moisture, noise levels, mechanical stress, speed, etc. Many novel applications are being developed due to the new concept of micro sensing and wireless networking for these smart sensing devices. Some of the possible assorted applications [24] of WSN 's are temperature control, inventory management, physiological monitoring, habitat monitoring, precision

agriculture, forest fire detection, nuclear, chemical, and biological attack detection, military, transportation, disaster relief, and environmental monitoring.

1.2 WSN ORGANIZATION

Any WSN can be configured [24] as a five layered architecture as explained below

- The physical layer is responsible for frequency selection, modulation and data encryption.
- The data link layer functions as a pathway for multiplexing of data streams, data frame detection, Medium Access control (MAC) and error control.
- The network layer is used to route the data supplied by the transport layer using special multi-hop wireless routing protocols between sensor nodes and sink nodes.
- The transport layer maintains the flow of data if the application layer requires it.
- The application layer makes the hardware and software of the lower layers transparent to the end user.

1.3 ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN DESIGNING WSN

- Sensor networks do not fit into any regular topology, because while deploying the sensor nodes they are scattered [8] [9][10]
- Very limited resources
 - Limited memory,
 - Limited computation

- Limited power
- It comes under fewer infrastructures and also maintenance is very difficult.
- Unreliable communication
 - Unreliable data transfer
 - Conflicts and latency
- Sensor node relies only on battery and it cannot be recharged or replaced.
Hardware design for sensor node should also be considered.
- Unattended operations
 - Exposure to physical attack
 - Remotely managed
 - No central control point
- Achieving synchronization between nodes is also another issue.
- Node failure, topology changes and adding of nodes and deletion of nodes is another challenging issue.
- Because of its transmission nature and hostile environment, security is a challenging issue.
- Based on the applications, sensor node has to be chosen with respect to computation rate.

1.4 SECURITY IN WSN

Sensor networks present exclusive challenges, so conventional security techniques used in traditional networks cannot be applied directly for WSN. The sensor devices are

inadequate in their energy, computation, and communication capabilities. When sensor networks are deployed in a hostile environment, security becomes extremely important, as they are prone to different types of malicious attacks. For example, an adversary can easily listen to the traffic, impersonate one of the network nodes, or intentionally provide misleading information to other nodes. WSN works together closely with their corporal environments, posing new security troubles [11]. As a result, existing security mechanisms are insufficient, and novel ideas are needed.

- Sensor nodes are randomly deployed in an open and unattended environment, so security is critical for such networks
- WSN uses wireless communication, which is predominantly easy to eavesdrop on.
- An attacker can easily inject malicious node in the network.
- WSN involves a large number of nodes in the network. Enforcing security in all the levels is important and also too complex.
- Sensor nodes are resource constraints in terms of memory, energy, transmission range, processing power. Hence asymmetric cryptography is too expensive and symmetric cryptography is used as alternatives.
- Cost of implementing tamper resistant software is very high.

WSN's general security goals [12] are confidentiality, integrity, authentication, availability, survivability, efficiency, freshness and scalability as described in Table 1.2. WSN is susceptible to many attacks because of its transmission nature, resource restriction on sensor nodes and deployment in uncontrolled environments. To ensure the security services in WSN many crypto mechanisms like symmetric and asymmetric

methods are proposed. To achieve security in wireless sensor networks, it is important to be able to encrypt and authenticate messages sent between sensor nodes.

Table 1.2 Security Services

Confidentiality	Keeping node information secret from others but authorized users see it.
Integrity	Possible for the receiver node of a message to confirm that it has not been customized in transit.
Device authentication	Justification of the identity of the device.
Message authentication	Justification the source of information
Validation	To provide correctness of authorization to use or manipulate resources.
Access control	Restricting access to resources.
Revocation	Renunciation of certification or authorization.
Survivability	The lifetime of the sensor node must be extended even the node is compromised.
Nonrepudiation	Preventing the denial of a previous commitment.
Availability	High availability systems in sensor node is aim to remain available at all times preventing service disruptions due to power outages, hardware failures, and system upgrades. Ensuring availability also involves preventing denial-of-service attacks.
Data freshness	Data freshness objective ensures that messages are fresh, meaning that they are in proper order and have not been reused.

In a distinctive circumstance, any two nodes (A and B) exchange data over an insecure channel. A and B want to make sure that their data exchange remains incomprehensible by anyone who might be listening. Furthermore, because A and B are in remote locations, A must be sure that the information it receives from B is not been modified by anyone during transmission. In addition, it must be sure that the information really does originate from B and not someone impersonating B. Cryptography is used to achieve above mentioned problems.

The art and science of keeping communication secure is called cryptography, and it is experienced by cryptographers. Cryptography is a process [27] associated with scrambled plain text (ordinary text, or clear text) into cipher text (a process called encryption), then back again (known as decryption). It is a mathematical techniques connected to aspects of information security such as confidentiality, data integrity, entity authentication, and data origin authentication. The two components required to encrypt data are an algorithm and a key. The algorithm is generally known and the key is kept secret. The key is very large number that should be impossible to guess, and of a size that makes an exhaustive search impractical. In a symmetric cryptosystem [26], the same key is used for encryption and decryption. In an asymmetric cryptosystem, the key used for decryption is different from the key used for encryption. In WSN, cryptographic systems are characterized as which type of operations used for transforming the data, how many numbers of keys used, key size and the way in which the sensor node process the data.

The possible threats [20] among the sensor nodes in WSN are tabulated in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3 Threat Model of WSN

Threat Model	Action
False Node insertion	Feed false data Prevent the true data flow among the nodes
Routing Attack	Alteration of Routing Path Sinkhole, Wormhole Attack
Malicious data	False Observation
Subversion of Node	Extraction of original data from node Misbehavior

The schematic view of crypto functions is shown in Figure 1.4. The taxonomy of cryptographic primitives is shown in Figure 1.5.

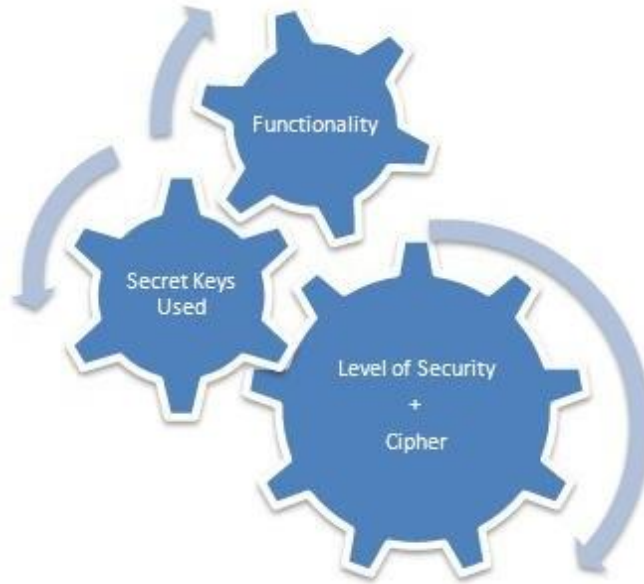


Figure 1.4 Cryptographic Systems

Lars [27] classified and proposed some categories of breaking sensor node information in WSN. These are total break, global deduction, local deduction and information deduction. Total break means, the cryptanalyst finds the key value (K) used in the sensor node, it's very difficult and also time consuming process. Global deduction means cryptanalyst finds the alternate algorithm, local deduction means cryptanalyst finds the equivalent original text and make it try to get the original data from the node. Information deduction means the cryptanalyst gain some information about the key and the data from the sensor node. The security strength of the entire crypto system mainly depends on the secret keys used, not in the algorithm.

To provide secure communications [13] between the sensor nodes in the WSNs, all the messages should be encrypted and authenticated with different secret keys. The total number of keys processed in the sensor node and the network is too high. For that reason,

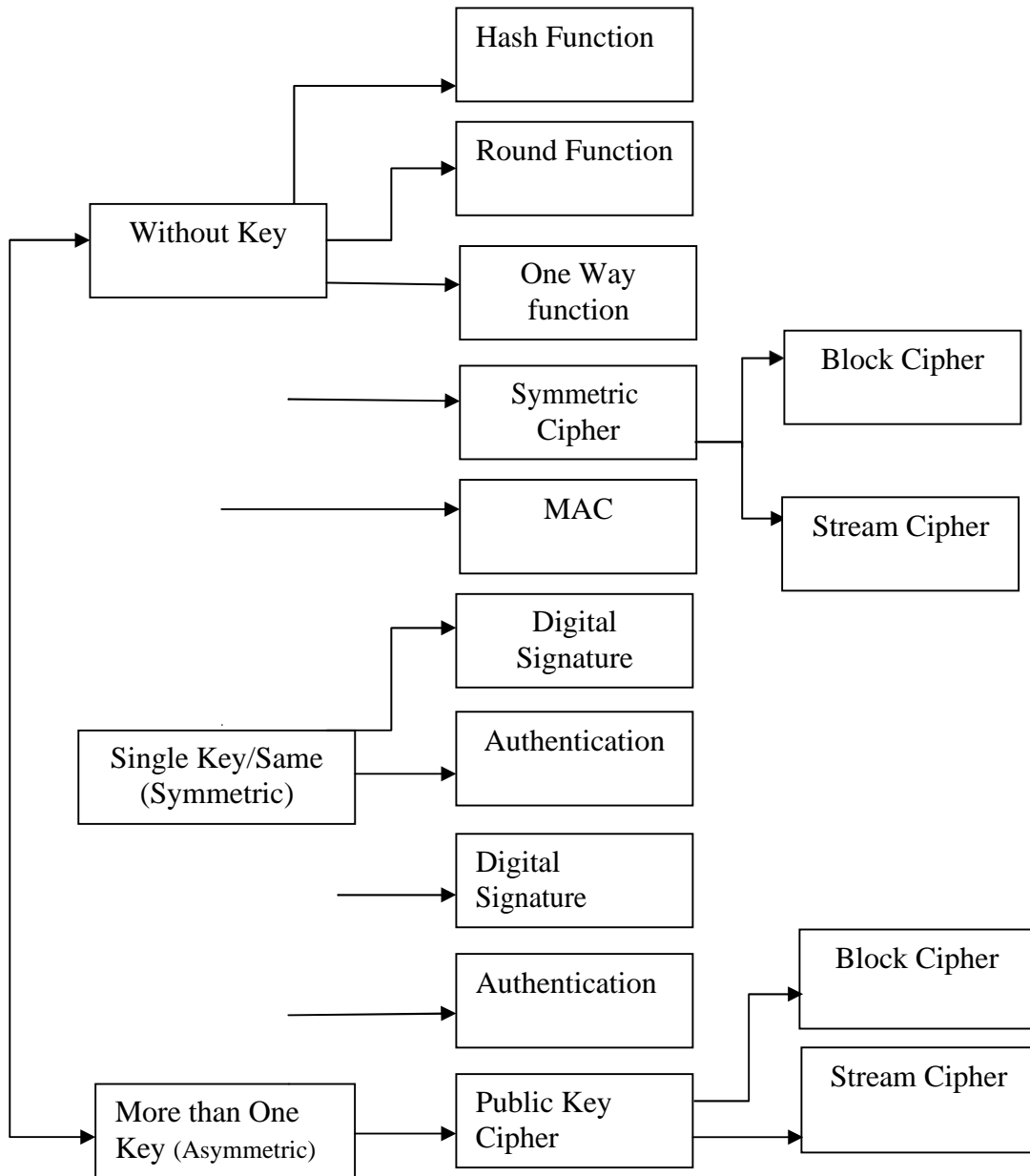


Figure 1.5 Taxonomy of Cryptographic Basics

it is important to design strong and efficient Key Management Schemes (KMS) for WSNs. In an uncontrolled environment, which enable the sensor nodes to communicate

securely with each other nodes using crypto techniques. The reason of key management [26] for WSN is to load, distribute and handle the secret keys in sensor nodes to establish a secure communication among sensor nodes. Security critical applications depend on the key management scheme because it has to provide high fault tolerance when a node get compromised. Whenever the new node wants to add or leave from the network the key management schemes play a vital role. The key updating process during node addition and node deletion are discussed and shown in Figure1.6.

While designing the key management schemes, the important metrics [35] to be evaluated are 1. **Local / global connectivity:** Each node communicates with every other node in the sensor field region.

2. Resilience: Whenever a sensor node is compromised, the key management scheme assures in securing the remaining communication link against nodecapture.

3. Scalability: Capability to support when large numbers of nodes are added to the sensor network.

4. Efficiency: In terms of storage, communication andcomputation.

Managing efficient cryptographic keys [14] is a difficult problem in case of large dynamic sensor groups. Each time a member is evicted from or added to the group, the group key must be changed. The members of a group must be able to compute a new key efficiently, at the same time forward and backward security must be guaranteed. Forward securing means that any evicted member node cannot determine any future group key, evenwhen

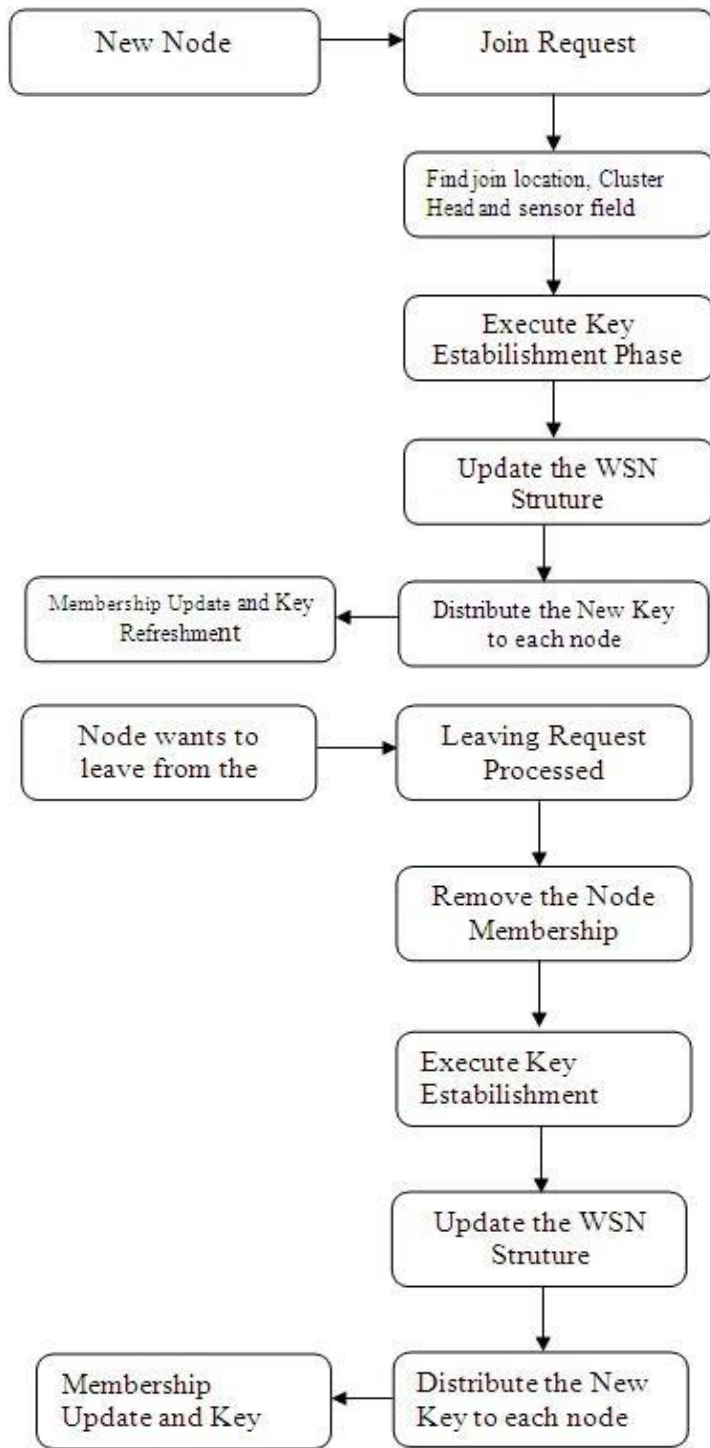


Figure 1.6 Key Refreshment Process In Node Addition and Deletion

performing other tasks. Backward security means that a newly added member node cannot determine any past key, even when working with other new members. Key management for large dynamic group communications raises a problem with scalability. Keys for encryption and authentication purposes must be agreed upon by communicating nodes. Due to resource constraints, achieving such key agreement in wireless sensor networks is nontrivial. Many key agreement [15] schemes used in general networks, such as Diffie-Hellman and public-key based schemes are not suitable for WSN. Pre-distribution of secret keys for all pairs of nodes is not feasible due to the large amount of memory used when the network size is large. In WSN, keying mechanism is classified into two types, these are static and dynamic keying. The comparison between static and dynamic keying are described in Table 1.4[16]

Table1.4 Static Vs Dynamic Key Management

Parameters	Static keying	Dynamic keying
Network lifetime	Short	Long
Key pool	Very large	Small size
Key assignment	Once predeployment	Post deployment
Key generation	Once predeployment	Post deployment
Key distribution	All keys are predistributed to nodes prior to deployment	Subsets of keys are re-distributed to some nodes as needed
Handling node capture	Exposed keys are lost	Exposed keys are altered
Communication cost	Not applicable for administrative keys (Key pre distribution).	High
Storage cost	More keys per node	Fewer keys per node
Handling node addition	Hard	Easy
Network resilience	High	High
Network connectivity	Less	More

During node deployment, the sensor node is clustered into different groups. The node that is placed in restricted areas is called a sensor field. Using key generation server, the keys are generated and loaded into each sensor node; the key storage server is used to store the keys. A node deployment process is described in Figure 1.7.

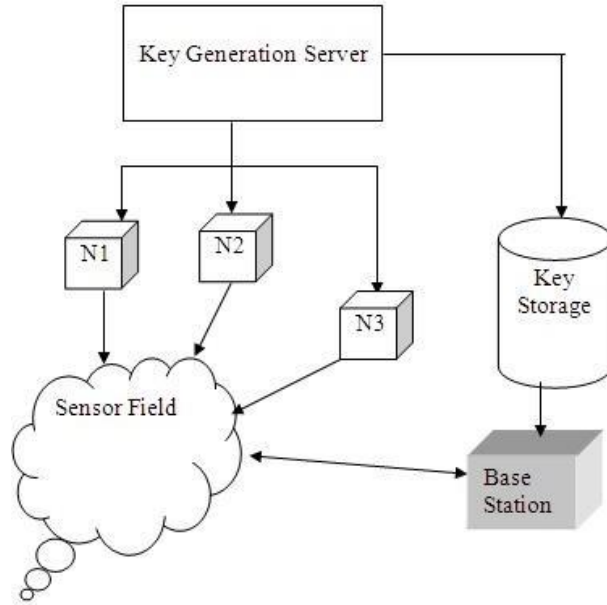


Figure 1.7 Node Deployments

Typical communication pattern in WSN is shown in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5 Communication Pattern in WSN

Source	Purpose
Node to Node	Sensor Readings, Queries
Node to GroupHead, Node to ClusterHead	Sensor Readings, Queries
Node to Base Station	Sensor Readings, Queries
Base Station to all the nodes in the WSN, Cluster Head & Group Head	Queries, Reconfiguration and Routing
Intra Cluster	Among Neighboring Sensor Node, To minimize the total amount of message shared, for Network data processing and data aggregation.

1.5 SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

The research reported in this thesis pertains to authenticated KMS in WSN. From literature survey, the matrix based keying mechanism is suitable for KMS in WSN. All the metrics related to KMS such as key connectivity between nodes, resilience, efficiency and scalability are evaluated against the a proposed work and achieved at an accepted level compared with existing schemes. Authentication at each layer of cluster also implemented using congruence techniques. Depends upon the applications, sensor node has to be incorporated into the network. Various types of sensor nodes are also designed using LPC 2149, LPC 2378 and AT91SAM9263 to set up the efficient WSN.

The research carried out encompasses the following objectives:

- The parameters which affect the quality of key management in WSN are to be identified.
- The problems with existing key management scheme are to be identified.
- Efficient key management protocol along with its competency with sensor node constraints are to be developed and implemented along with an efficient node to node authentication protocol is designed.
- To develop a WSN in real time using ARM processors and implement the proposed hybrid KMS to achieve maximum throughput.

The entire process of the thesis work is consolidated and shown in Figure 1.8.

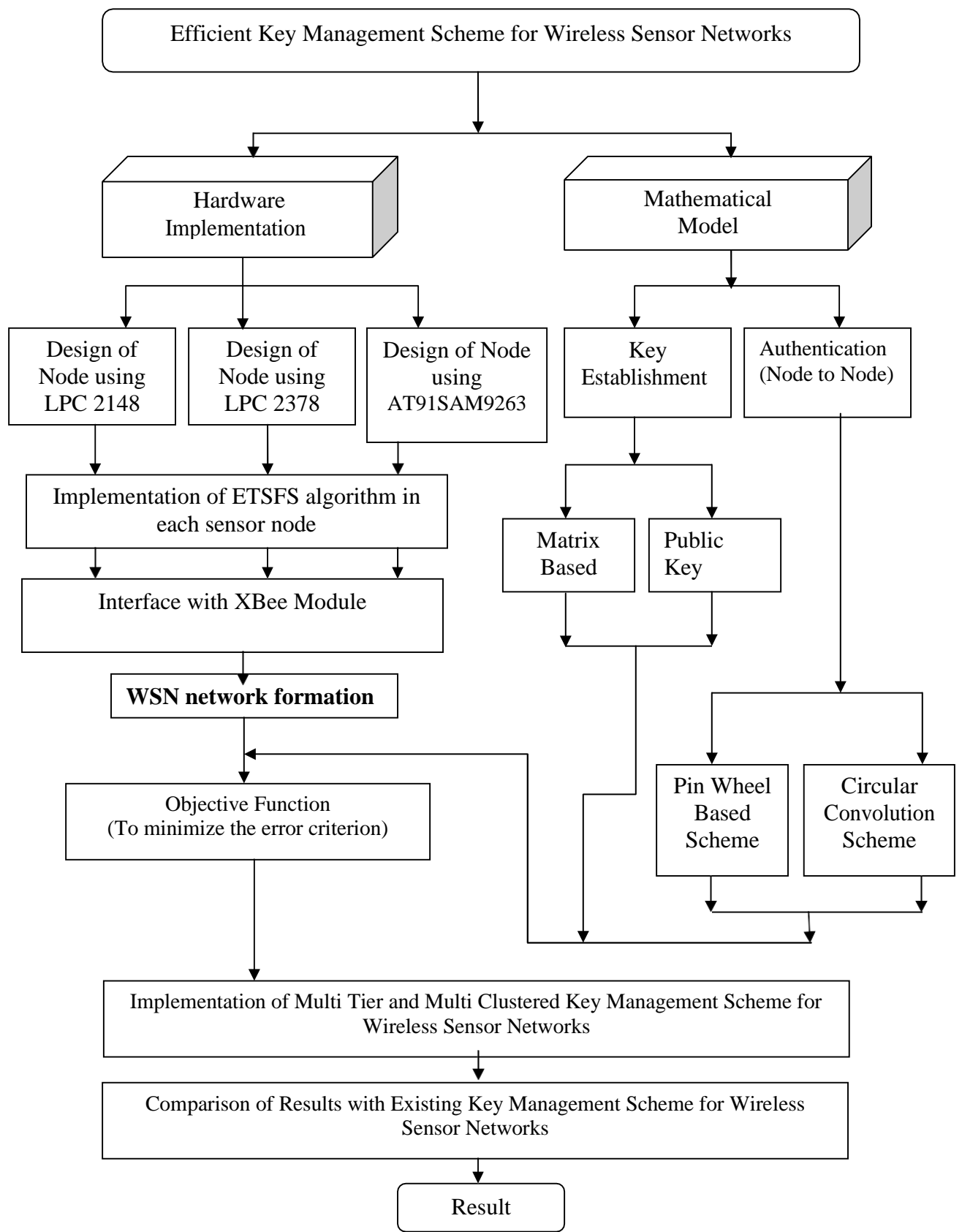


Figure 1.8 Research Scheme

1.6 ORGANIZATION OF THESIS

Chapter 2 presents the literature review with reference to this work. It also presents the relevant research works in KMS for WSN.

Chapter 3 presents 'LU decomposition based KMS. It describes the matrix based KMS techniques for WSN and the performance evaluation is done.

Chapter 4 entitled 'Congruence based pin wheel authentication protocol for WSN' describes how the node authentication has been employed in the proposed WSN and security analysis is performed.

Chapter 5 entitled 'Multi Tier & Multi Clustered WSN using LL^T ', deals with the analytical model of an integrated KMS with authentication, and provides better optimization using matrix based key distribution approach for providing an efficient KMS for WSN. The results are compared with the existing KMS.

Chapter 6 entitled 'Implementation of ARM based sensor nodes' describes the hardware information related to the processing unit of sensor nodes and TSFS implementation in ARM node. The timing analysis for key generating and data encryption are done.

Chapter 7 finally concludes with the contributions of this research work.

SINGLE-NODE ARCHITECTURE:

1.5 HARDWARE COMPONENTS: Choosing the hardware components for a wireless sensor node, obviously the application has to consider size, costs, and energy consumption of the nodes. A basic sensor node comprises five main components such as Controller, Memory, Sensors and Actuators, Communication devices and Power supply Unit.

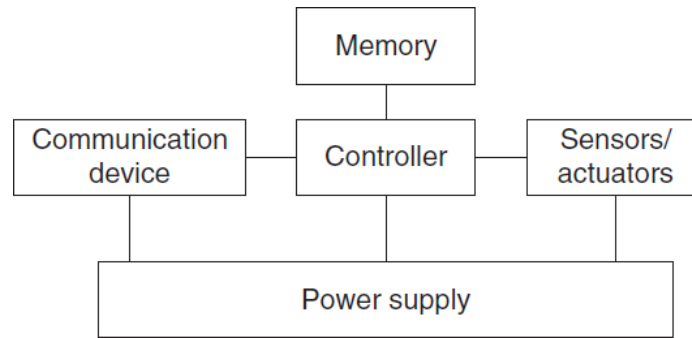


Figure 1.3: Sensor node Hardware components

1.5.1 Controller: A controller to process all the relevant data, capable of executing arbitrary code. The controller is the core of a wireless sensor node. It collects data from the sensors, processes this data, decides when and where to send it, receives data from other sensor nodes, and decides on the actuator's behavior. It has to execute various programs, ranging from time-critical signal processing and communication protocols to application programs; it is the Central Processing Unit (CPU) of the node.

For General-purpose processors applications microcontrollers are used. These are highly overpowered, and their energy consumption is excessive. These are used in embedded systems. Some of the key characteristics of microcontrollers are particularly suited to embedded systems are their flexibility in connecting with other devices like sensors and they are also convenient in that they often have memory built in.

A specialized case of programmable processors are Digital Signal Processors (DSPs). They are specifically geared, with respect to their architecture and their instruction set, for processing large amounts of vectorial data, as is typically the case in signal processing applications. In a wireless sensor node, such a DSP could be used to process data coming from a simple analog, wireless communication device to extract a digital data stream. In broadband wireless communication, DSPs are an appropriate and successfully used platform.

An FPGA can be reprogrammed (or rather reconfigured) "in the field" to adapt to a changing set of requirements; however, this can take time and energy – it is not practical to reprogram an FPGA at the same frequency as a microcontroller could change between different programs.

An ASIC is a specialized processor, custom designed for a given application such as, for example, high-speed routers and switches. The typical trade-off here is loss of flexibility in return for a considerably better energy efficiency and performance. On the other hand, where a microcontroller requires software development, ASICs provide the same functionality in hardware, resulting in potentially more costly hardware development.

Examples: Intel Strong ARM, Texas Instruments MSP 430, Atmel ATmega.

1.5.2 Memory: Some memory to store programs and intermediate data; usually, different types of memory are used for programs and data. In WSN there is a need for Random Access Memory (RAM) to store intermediate sensor readings, packets from other nodes, and so on. While RAM is fast, its main disadvantage is that it loses its content if power supply is interrupted. Program code can be stored in Read-Only Memory (ROM) or, more typically, in Electrically Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory (EEPROM) or flash memory (the latter being similar to EEPROM but allowing data to be erased or written in blocks instead of only a byte at a time). Flash memory can also serve as intermediate storage of data in case RAM is insufficient or when the power supply of RAM should be shut down for some time.

1.5.3 Communication Device: Turning nodes into a network requires a device for sending and receiving information over a wireless channel.

Choice of transmission medium: The communication device is used to exchange data between individual nodes. In some cases, wired communication can actually be the method of choice and is frequently applied in many sensor networks. The case of wireless communication is considerably more interesting because it includes radio frequencies. Radio Frequency (RF)-based communication is by far the most relevant one as it best fits the requirements of most WSN applications.

Transceivers: For communication, both transmitter and receiver are required in a sensor node to convert a bit stream coming from a microcontroller and convert them to and from radio waves. For two tasks a combined device called transceiver is used.

Transceiver structure has two parts as Radio Frequency (RF) frontend and the baseband part.

1. The radio frequency frontend performs analog signal processing in the actual radio frequency band.
2. The baseband processor performs all signal processing in the digital domain and communicates with a sensor node's processor or other digital circuitry.

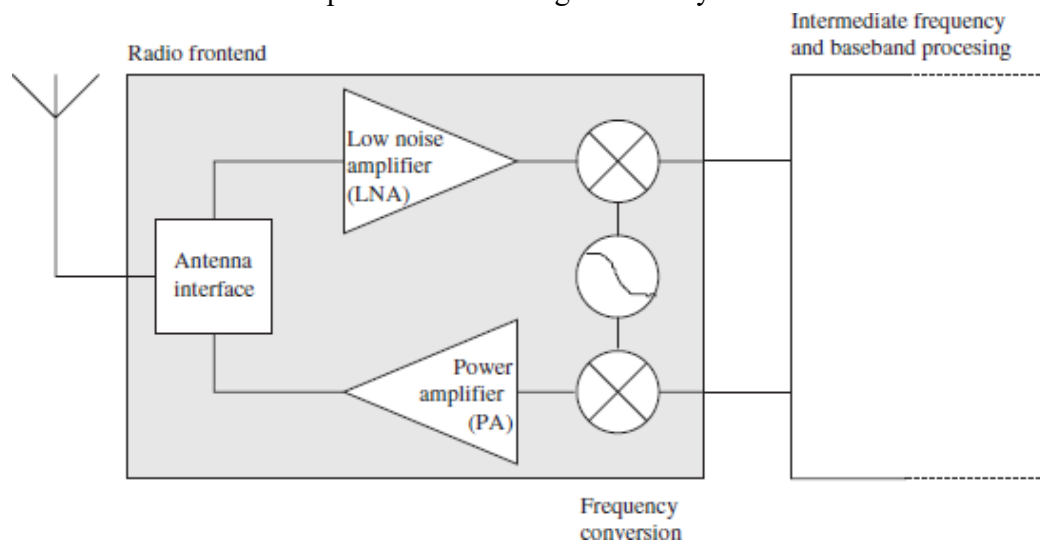


Figure 1.4: RF front end

- ✓ The Power Amplifier (PA) accepts upconverted signals from the IF or baseband part and amplifies them for transmission over the antenna.
- ✓ The Low Noise Amplifier (LNA) amplifies incoming signals up to levels suitable for further processing without significantly reducing the SNR. The range of powers of the incoming signals varies from very weak signals from nodes close to the reception boundary to strong signals from nearby nodes; this range can be up to 100 dB.
- ✓ Elements like local oscillators or voltage-controlled oscillators and mixers are used for frequency conversion from the RF spectrum to intermediate frequencies or to the baseband. The incoming signal at RF frequencies f_{RF} is multiplied in a mixer with a fixed-frequency signal from the local oscillator (frequency f_{LO}). The resulting intermediate-frequency signal has frequency $f_{LO} - f_{RF}$. Depending on the RF frontend architecture, other elements like filters are also present.

Transceiver tasks and characteristics:

- Service to upper layer:* A receiver has to offer certain services to the upper layers, notably to the Medium Access Control (MAC) layer. Sometimes, this service is packet oriented; sometimes, a transceiver only provides a byte interface or even only a bit interface to the microcontroller.
- Power consumption and energy efficiency:* The simplest interpretation of energy efficiency is the energy required to transmit and receive a single bit.
- Carrier frequency and multiple channels:* Transceivers are available for different carrier frequencies; evidently, it must match application requirements and regulatory restrictions.
- State change times and energy:* A transceiver can operate in different modes: sending or receiving, used different channels, or be in different power-safe states.
- Data rates:* Carrier frequency and used bandwidth together with modulation and coding determine the gross data rate.
- Modulations:* The transceivers typically support one or several of on/off-keying, ASK, or similar modulations.
- Coding:* Some transceivers allow various coding schemes to be selected.
- Transmission power control:* Some transceivers can directly provide control over the transmission power to be used; some require some external circuitry for that purpose. Usually, only a discrete number of power levels are available from which the actual transmission power can be chosen. Maximum output power is usually determined by regulations.
- Noise figure:* The noise figure NF of an element is defined as the ratio of the Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) ratio SNR_I at the input of the element to the SNR ratio SNR_O at the element's output: $NF = \frac{SNR_I}{SNR_O}$. It describes the degradation of SNR due to the element's operation and is typically given in dB: $NF \text{ dB} = SNR_I \text{ dB} - SNR_O \text{ dB}$.
- Gain:* The gain is the ratio of the output signal power to the input signal power and is typically given in dB. Amplifiers with high gain are desirable to achieve good energy efficiency.
- Power efficiency:* The efficiency of the radio front end is given as the ratio of the output power to the overall power consumed by the front end; for a power amplifier, the efficiency describes the ratio of the output signal's power to the power consumed by the overall power amplifier.
- Receiver sensitivity:* The receiver sensitivity (given in dBm) specifies the minimum signal power at the receiver needed to achieve a prescribed E_b/N_0 or a prescribed bit/packet error rate.
- Range:* The range of a transmitter is clear. The range is considered in absence of interference; it evidently depends on the maximum transmission power, on the antenna characteristics.
- Blocking performance:* The blocking performance of a receiver is its achieved bit rate in the presence of an interfering transmitter.
- Out of band emission:* The inverse to adjacent channel suppression is the out of band emission of a transmitter. To limit disturbance of other systems, or of the WSN itself in a multichannel setup, the transmitters should produce as little as possible of transmission power outside of its prescribed bandwidth, centered around the carrier frequency.

- **Carrier sense and RSSI:** In many medium access control protocols, sensing whether a wireless channel, the carrier, is busy (another node is transmitting) is a critical information. The receiver has to be able to provide that information. The signal strength that which an incoming data packet has been received can provide useful information a receiver has to provide this information in the Received Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI).
- **Frequency stability:** The frequency stability denotes the degree of variation from nominal center frequencies when environmental conditions of oscillators like temperature or pressure change.
- **Voltage range:** Transceivers should operate reliably over a range of supply voltages. Otherwise, inefficient voltage stabilization circuitry is required.

1.5.4 Sensors and actuators: The actual interface to the physical world: devices that can observe or control physical parameters of the environment.

Sensors can be roughly categorized into three categories as

- **Passive, omnidirectional sensors:** These sensors can measure a physical quantity at a point of the sensor node without actually manipulating the environment by active probing—in this sense, they are passive. Moreover, some of these sensors actually are self-powered in the sense that they obtain the energy they need from the environment—energy is only needed to amplify their analog signal.
- **Passive, narrow-beam sensors** These sensors are passive as well, but have a well-defined notion of direction of measurement.
- **Active sensors** This last group of sensors actively probe the environment, for example, a sonar or radar sensor or some types of seismic sensors, which generate shock waves by small explosions. These are quite specific—triggering an explosion is certainly not a lightly undertaken action—and require quite special attention.

Actuators: Actuators are just about as diverse as sensors, yet for the purposes of designing a WSN that convert electrical signals into physical phenomenon.

1.5.5 Power supply: As usually not there, the power supply is available, some form of batteries are necessary to provide energy. Sometimes, some form of recharging by obtaining energy from the environment is available as well (e.g. solar cells). There are essentially two aspects: Storing energy and Energy scavenging.

Storing energy: Batteries

- **Traditional batteries:** The power source of a sensor node is a battery, either non-rechargeable (“primary batteries”) or, if an energy scavenging device is present on the node, also rechargeable (“secondary batteries”).

Primary batteries			
Chemistry	Zinc-air	Lithium	Alkaline
Energy (J/cm ³)	3780	2880	1200
Secondary batteries			
Chemistry	Lithium	NiMHd	NiCd
Energy (J/cm ³)	1080	860	650

TABLE 1.1: Energy densities for various primary and secondary battery types
Upon these batteries the requirements are

- Capacity: They should have high capacity at a small weight, small volume, and low price. The main metric is energy per volume, J/cm^3 .
- Capacity under load: They should withstand various usage patterns as a sensor node and consume quite different levels of power over time and actually draw high current in certain operation modes.
- Self-discharge: Their self-discharge should be low. Zinc-air batteries, for example, have only a very short lifetime (on the order of weeks).
- Efficient recharging: Recharging should be efficient even at low and infrequently available recharge power.
- Relaxation: Their relaxation effect—these are self-recharging of an empty or almost empty battery when no current is drawn from it, based on chemical diffusion processes within the cell—should be clearly understood. Battery lifetime and usable capacity is considerably extended if this effect is leveraged.
- DC-DC Conversion: Unfortunately, batteries alone are not sufficient as a direct power source for a sensor node. One typical problem is the reduction of a battery's voltage as its capacity drops. An ADC-DC converter can be used to overcome this problem by regulating the voltage delivered to the node's circuitry. To ensure a constant voltage even though the battery's supply voltage drops, the DC-DC converter has to draw increasingly higher current from the battery when the battery is already becoming weak, speeding up battery death. The DC-DC converter does consume energy for its own operation, reducing overall efficiency.

Energy scavenging: Depending on application, high capacity batteries that last for long times, that is, have only a negligible self-discharge rate, and that can efficiently provide small amounts of current. Ideally, a sensor node also has a device for **energy scavenging**, recharging the battery with energy gathered from the environment—solar cells or vibration-based power generation are conceivable options.

- Photovoltaics: The well-known solar cells can be used to power sensor nodes. Available power depends on whether nodes are used outdoors or indoors, and on time of day and whether for outdoor usage. The resulting power is somewhere between $10 \mu W/cm^2$ indoors and $15 mW/cm^2$ outdoors. Single cells achieve a fairly stable output voltage of about 0.6V (and have therefore to be used in series) as long as the drawn current does not exceed a critical threshold, which depends on the light intensity. Hence, solar cells are usually used to recharge secondary batteries.
- Temperature gradients: Differences in temperature can be directly converted to electrical energy.
- Vibrations: One almost pervasive form of mechanical energy is vibrations: walls or windows in buildings are resonating with cars or trucks passing in the streets, machinery often has low frequency vibrations. Both amplitude and frequency of the vibration and ranges from about $0.1 \mu W/cm^3$ up to $10,000 \mu W/cm^3$ for some extreme cases. Converting vibrations to electrical energy can be undertaken by various means, based on electromagnetic, electrostatic, or piezoelectric principles.
- Pressure variations: Somewhat akin to vibrations, a variation of pressure can also be used as a power source.
- Flow of air/liquid: Another often-used power source is the flow of air or liquid in windmills or turbines. The challenge here is again the miniaturization, but some of the work on millimeter scale MEMS gas turbines might be reusable.

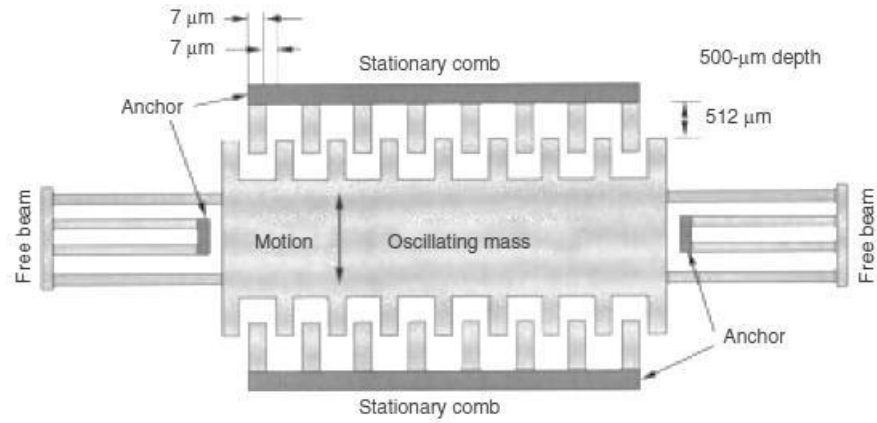


Figure 1.5 A MEMS device for converting vibrations to electrical energy, based on a variable capacitor

Energy source	Energy density
Batteries (zinc-air)	1050–1560 mWh/cm ³
Batteries (rechargeable lithium)	300 mWh/cm ³ (at 3–4 V)
Energy source	Power density
Solar (outdoors)	15 mW/cm ² (direct sun) 0.15 mW/cm ² (cloudy day)
Solar (indoors)	0.006 mW/cm ² (standard office desk) 0.57 mW/cm ² (<60 W desk lamp)
Vibrations	0.01–0.1 mW/cm ³
Acoustic noise	3 · 10 ⁻⁶ mW/cm ² at 75 dB 9, 6 · 10 ⁻⁴ mW/cm ² at 100 dB
Passive human-powered systems	1.8 mW (shoe inserts)
Nuclear reaction	80 mW/cm ³ , 10 ⁶ mWh/cm ³

TABLE 1.2: Comparison of energy sources

1.7 ENERGY CONSUMPTION OF SENSOR NODES:

In previous section we discussed about energy supply for a sensor node through batteries that have small capacity, and recharging by energy scavenging is complicated and volatile. Hence, the energy consumption of a sensor node must be tightly controlled. The main consumers of energy are the controller, the radio frontends, the memory, and type of the sensors. One method to reduce power consumption of these components is designing low-power chips, it is the best starting point for an energy-efficient sensor node. But any advantages gained by such designs can easily be squandered/wasted when the components are improperly operated. Second method for energy efficiency in wireless sensor node is reduced functionality by using multiple states of operation with reduced energy consumption. These modes can be introduced for all components of a sensor node, in particular, for controller, radio frontend, memory, and sensors.

1.7.1 Microcontroller energy consumption: For a controller, typical states are “active”, “idle”, and “sleep”. A radio modem could turn transmitter, receiver, or both on or off. At time t_1 , the microcontroller is to be put into sleep mode should be taken to reduce power consumption from P_{active} to P_{sleep} . If it remains active and then the next event occurs at time t_{event} , then a total energy is $E_{active} = P_{active}(t_{event} - t_1)$. On the other hand, requires a time τ_{down} until sleep mode has been reached. Let the average power consumption during this phase is $(P_{active} + P_{sleep})/2$. Then, P_{sleep} is consumed until t_{event} . The energy saving is given by

$$E_{saved} = (t_{event} - t_1)P_{active} - (\tau_{down}(P_{active} + P_{sleep})/2 + (t_{event} - t_1 - \tau_{down})P_{sleep}) \quad (4)$$

Once the event to be processed occurs, however, an additional overhead of

$$E_{overhead} = \tau_{up}(P_{active} + P_{sleep})/2 \quad (5)$$

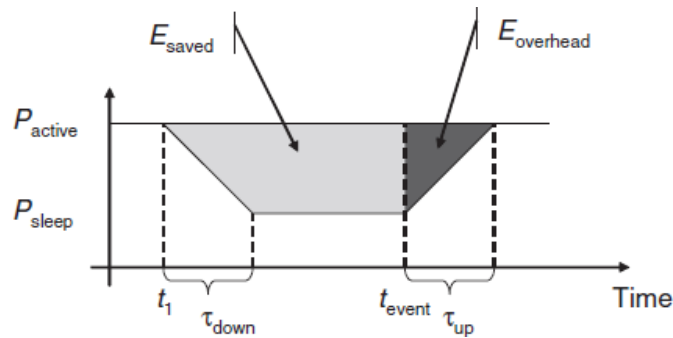


Figure 1.6 Energy savings and overheads for sleep modes

Switching to sleep mode is only beneficial if $E_{\text{overhead}} < E_{\text{saved}}$ or, equivalently, if the time to the next event is sufficiently large:

$$(t_{\text{event}} - t_1) > \frac{1}{2} \left(\tau_{\text{down}} + \frac{P_{\text{active}} + P_{\text{sleep}}}{P_{\text{active}} - P_{\text{sleep}}} \tau_{\text{up}} \right) \quad (6)$$

Examples:

Intel StrongARM

The Intel StrongARM provides three sleep modes:

- ✓ In *normal mode*, all parts of the processor are fully powered. Power consumption is up to 400mW.
- ✓ In *idle mode*, clocks to the CPU are stopped; clocks that pertain to peripherals are active. Any interrupt will cause a return to normal mode. Power consumption is up to 100mW.
- ✓ In *sleep mode*, only the real-time clock remains active. Wakeup occurs after a timer interrupt and takes up to 160ms. Power consumption is up to 50μW.

Texas Instruments MSP 430

The MSP430 family features a wide range of operation modes: One fully operational mode, which consumes about 1.2mW (all power values given at 1MHz and 3V). There are four sleep modes in total. The deepest sleep mode, LPM4, only consumes 0.3μW, but the controller is only woken up by external interrupts in this mode. In the next higher mode, LPM3, a clock is also still running, which can be used for scheduled wakeups, and still consumes only about 6μW. **Atmel ATmega**
The Atmel ATmega 128L has six different modes of power consumption, which are in principle similar to the MSP430 but differ in some details. Its power consumption varies between 6mW and 15mW in idle and active modes and is about 75μW in power-down modes.

1.7.2 Memory energy consumption: The most relevant kinds of memory are on-chip memory and FLASH memory. Off-chip RAM is rarely used. In fact, the power needed to drive on-chip memory is usually included in the power consumption numbers given for the controllers. Hence, the most relevant part is FLASH memory. In fact, the construction and usage of FLASH memory can heavily influence node lifetime. The relevant metrics are the read and write times and energy consumption. Read times and read energy consumption tend to be quite similar between different types of FLASH memory. Energy consumption necessary for reading and writing to the Flash memory is used on the Micranodes. Hence, writing to FLASH memory can be a time- and energy-consuming task that is best avoided if somehow possible.

1.7.3 Radiotransceivers energy consumption: A radiotransceiver has essentially two tasks: transmitting and receiving data between a pair of nodes. Similar to microcontrollers, radio transceivers can operate in different modes, the simplest ones are being turned on or turned off. To accommodate the necessary low total energy consumption, the transceivers should be turned off most of the time and only be activated when necessary—they work at a low duty cycle.

The energy consumed by a transmitter is due to two sources: one part is due to RF signal generation, which mostly depends on chosen modulation and target distance. Second part is due to electronic components necessary for frequency synthesis, frequency conversion, filters, and so on. The transmitted power is generated by the amplifier of a transmitter. Its own power

consumption P_{amp} depends on its architecture $P_{amp} = \alpha_{amp} + \beta_{amp} P_{tx}$. where α_{amp} and β_{amp} are constants depending on process technology and amplifier architecture. The energy to transmit a packet n -bits long (including all headers) then depends on how long it takes to send the packet, determined by the nominal bitrate R and the coding rate R_{code} , and on the total consumed power during transmission.

$$E_{tx}(n, R_{code}, P_{amp}) = T_{start} P_{start} + \frac{n}{RR_{code}} (P_{txElec} + P_{amp}) \quad \text{-----}(7)$$

Similar to the transmitter, the receiver can be either turned off or turned on. While being turned on, it can either actively receive a packet or can be idle, observing the channel and ready to receive. Evidently, the power consumption while it is turned off is negligible. Even the difference between idling and actually receiving is very small and can, for most purposes, be assumed to be zero. To elucidate, the energy E_{rcvd} required to receive a packet has a startup component $T_{start} P_{start}$ similar to the transmission case when the receiver had been turned off (startup times are considered equal for transmission and receiving here); it also has a component that is proportional to the packet time. During this time of actual reception, receiver circuitry has to be powered up, requiring a (more or less constant) power of P_{rxElec} .

$$E_{rcvd} = T_{start} P_{start} + \frac{n}{RR_{code}} P_{rxElec} + n E_{decBit} \quad \text{-----}(8)$$

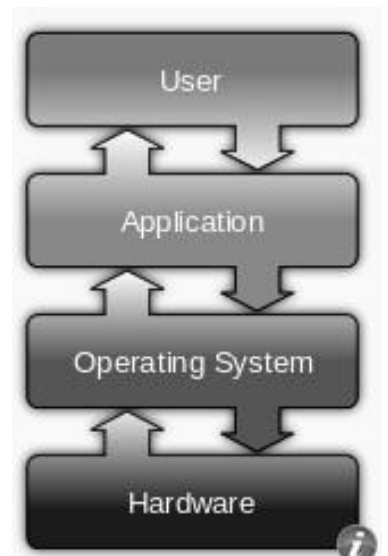
1.7.4 Power consumption of sensor and actuators:

Providing any guidelines about the power consumption of the actual sensors and actuators is impossible because of the wide variety of these devices. For example, passive light or temperature sensors—the power consumption can possibly be ignored in comparison to other devices on a wireless node. For others, active devices like sonar (A measuring instrument that sends out an acoustic pulse in water and measures distances in terms of time for the echo of the pulse to return), power consumption can be quite considerable in the dimensioning of power sources on the sensor node, not to overstress batteries.

1.8 OPERATING SYSTEMS AND EXECUTION ENVIRONMENTS:

1.8.1 Embedded operating systems:

- ✓ An operating system (OS) is system software that manages computer hardware and software resources and provides common services for computer programs.
- ✓ For hardware functions such as input and output and memory allocation, the operating system acts as an intermediary between programs and the computer hardware.
- ✓ An embedded system is some combination of computer hardware and software, either fixed in capability or programmable, that is specifically designed for a particular function.
- ✓ Embedded operating systems are designed to be used in embedded computer systems. They are able to operate with a limited number of resources. They are very compact and extremely efficient by design.



1.8.2 TinyOS:

- ✓ TinyOS is an open-source, flexible and application-specific operating system for wireless sensor networks.
- ✓ Wireless sensor network consists of a large number of tiny and low-power nodes, each of which executes simultaneous and reactive programs that must work with strict memory and power constraints.

- ✓ TinyOS meets these challenges and has become the platform of choice for sensor networks such as limited resources and low-power operation.
- ✓ Salient features of TinyOS are
 - A simple event-based concurrency model and split-phase operations influence the development phases and techniques when writing application code.
 - It has a component-based architecture which provides rapid innovation in implementation while reducing code size as required by the difficult memory constraints inherent in wireless sensor networks.
 - TinyOS's component library includes network protocols, distributed services, sensor drivers, and data acquisition tools.
 - TinyOS's event-driven execution model enables fine-grained power management, yet allows the scheduling flexibility made necessary by the unpredictable nature of wireless communication and physical world interfaces.

1.8.3 Programming paradigms and application programming interfaces:

❖ **Concurrent Programming:** Concurrent processing is a computing model in which multiple processors execute instructions simultaneously for better performance. Concurrent means something that happens at the same time as something else. Tasks are broken down into subtasks that are then assigned to separate processors to perform simultaneously, instead of sequentially as they would have to be carried out by a single processor. Concurrent processing is sometimes said to be synonymous with parallel processing.

❖ **Process-based concurrency:** Most modern, general-purpose operating systems support concurrent (seemingly parallel) execution of multiple processes on a single CPU. Using processes you are forced to deal with communication through messages, which is the Erlang (A unit of traffic intensity in telephone system) way of doing communication. Data is not shared, so there is no risk of data corruption. Fault-tolerance and scalability is the main advantages of using processes vs. threads. Another advantage of processes is that they can crash and you are perfectly OK with that, because you just restart them (even across network hosts). If a thread crashes, it may crash the entire process, which may bring down your entire application.

❖ **Event-based programming:** In computer programming, event-driven programming is a programming paradigm in which the flow of the program is determined by events such as user actions (mouse clicks, key presses), sensor outputs, or messages from other programs/threads. Event-driven

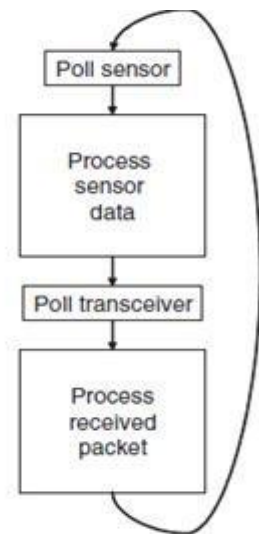


Figure 1.8 Sequential programming model

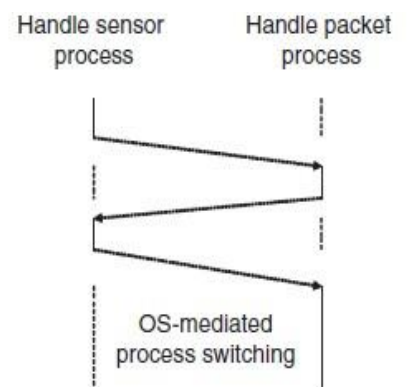


Figure 1.9 Process-based programming model

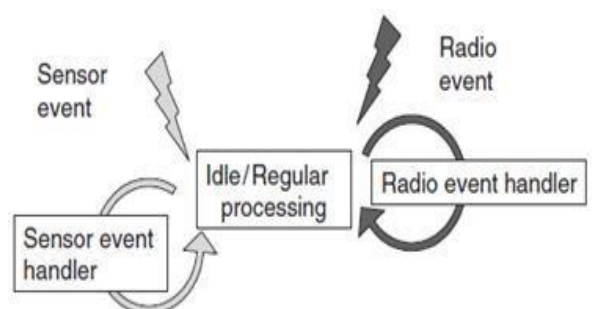


Figure 1.10 Event-based programming model

programming is the dominant paradigm used in Graphical User Interfaces (GUI-type of user interface that allows user to interact with the electronic devices through graphical icons) and other applications. The system essentially waits for any event to happen, where an event typically can be the availability of data from a sensor, the arrival of a packet, or the expiration of a timer. Such an event is then handled by a short sequence of instructions that only store the fact that this event has occurred and store the necessary information.

- ❖ **Interfaces to the operating system:** A boundary across which two independent systems meet and act on or communicate with each other. In computer technology, there are several types of interfaces. User interface - the keyboard, mouse, menu of a computer system. The user interface allows the user to communicate with the operating system. Stands for "Application Programming Interface." An API is a set of commands, functions, protocols, and objects (wireless links, nodes) that programmers can use to create software or interact with an external system (sensors, actuators, transceivers). It provides developers with standard commands for performing common operations so they do not have to write the code from scratch.

1.8.4 Structure of operating system and protocol stack: The traditional approach to communication protocol structuring is to use layering: individual protocols are stacked on top of each other, each layer only using functions of the layer directly. This layered approach has great benefits in keeping the entire protocol stack manageable, in containing complexity, and in promoting modularity and reuse. For the purposes of a WSN, however, it is not clear whether such a strictly layered approach will serve. A protocol stack refers to a group of protocols that are running concurrently that are employed for the implementation of network protocol suite. The protocols in a stack determine the interconnectivity rules for a layered network model such as in the OSI or TCP/IP models.

1.8.5 Dynamic energy and power management: Switching individual components into various sleep states or reducing their performance by scaling down frequency and supply voltage and selecting particular modulation and coding are prominent examples for improving energy efficiency. To control these possibilities, decisions have to be made by the operating system, by the protocol stack, or potentially by an application when to switch into one of these states. Dynamic Power Management (DPM) on a system level is the problem at hand. One of the complicating factors to DPM is the energy and time required for the transition of a component between any two states. If these factors were negligible, clearly it would be optimal to always & immediately go into the mode with the lowest power consumption possible.

NETWORK ARCHITECTURE: It introduces the basic principles of turning individual sensor nodes into a wireless sensor network. In this optimization goal of how a network should function are discussed as

- ✓ Sensor network scenarios
- ✓ Optimization goals and figures of merit
- ✓ Gateway concepts

1.9 SENSOR NETWORK SCENARIOS:

1.9.1 Types of sources and sinks: Source is any unit in the network that can provide information (sensor node). A sink is the unit where information is required, it could belong to the sensor network or outside this network to interact with another network or a gateway to another larger Internet. Sinks are illustrated by Figure 1.11, showing sources and sinks in direct communication.

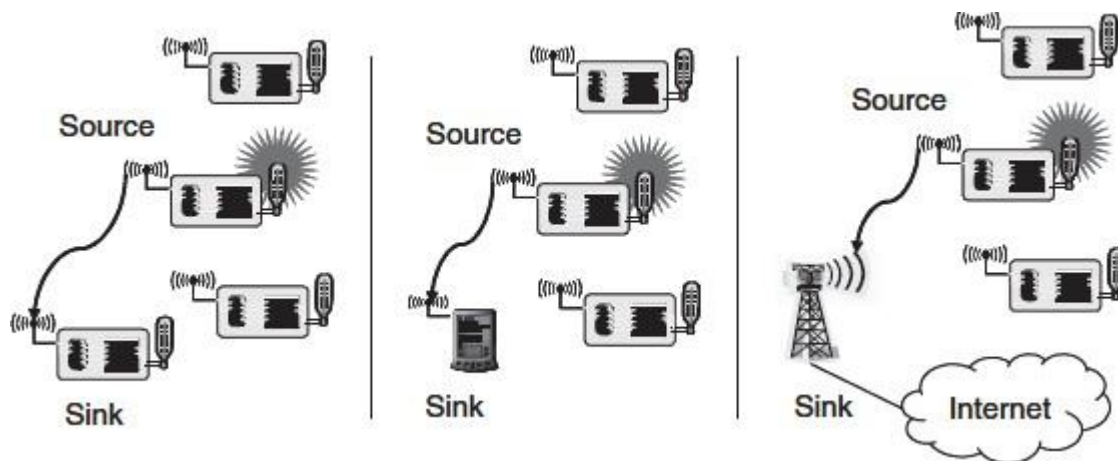


Figure 1.11 Three types of sinks in a very simple, single-hop sensor network

1.9.2 Single-hop versus multi-hop networks:

Because of limited distance the direct communication between source and sink is not always possible. In WSNs, to cover a lot of environment the data packet taking multi hops from source to the sink. To overcome such limited distances it is better to use relay stations. The data packet taking multi hops from source to the sink as shown in Figure 1.12. Depending on the particular application of having an intermediate sensor node at the right place is high.

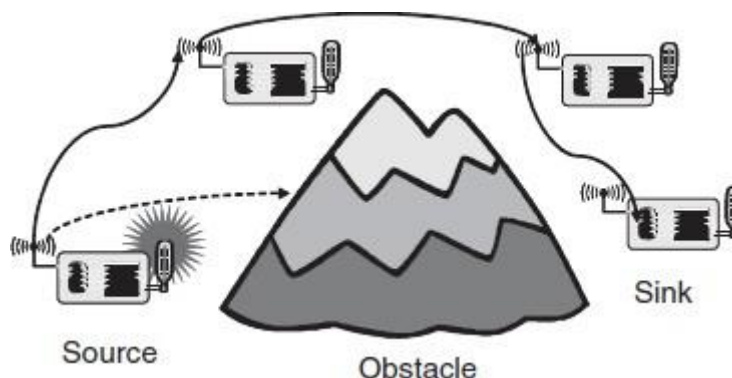


Figure 1.12 Multi-hop networks: As direct communication is impossible because of distance and/or obstacles

Multi-hopping also improves the energy efficiency of communication as it consumes less energy to use relays instead of direct communication, the radiated energy required for direct communication over a distance d is $c d^\alpha$ (where c is some constant, $\alpha \geq 2$ is the path loss coefficient) and using a relay at distance $d/2$ reduces this energy to $2c(d/2)^\alpha$

This calculation considers only the radiated energy. It should be pointed out that only multi-hop networks operating in a store and forward fashion are considered here. In such a network, a node has to correctly receive a packet before it can forward it somewhere. Cooperative relaying (reconstruction in case of erroneous packet reception) techniques are not considered here.

1.9.3 Multiple sinks and sources: In many cases, multiple sources and multiple sinks are present. Multiple sources should send information to multiple sinks. Either all or some of the information has to reach all or some of the sinks. This is illustrated in Figure 1.13.

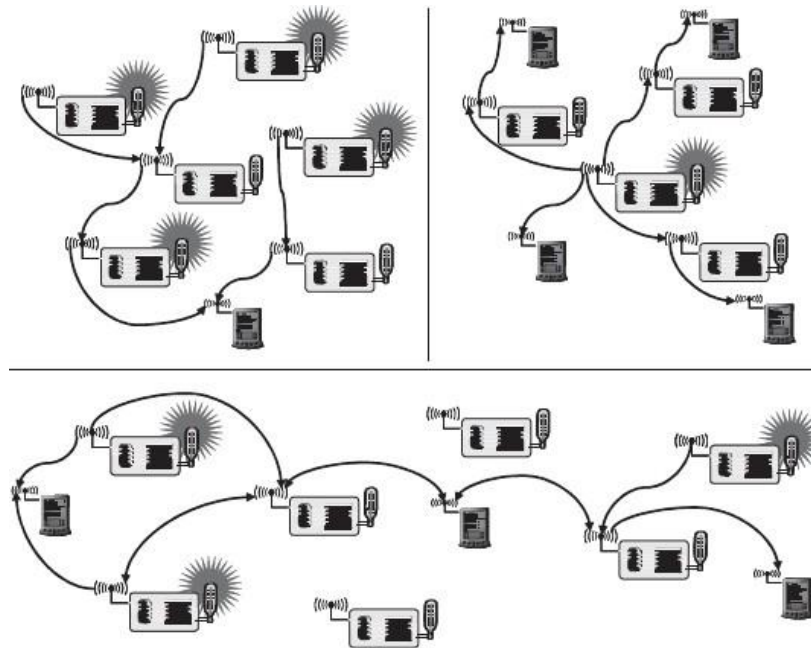


Figure 1.13 Multiple sources and/or multiple sinks.

Note how in the scenario in the lower half, both sinks and active sources are used to forward data to the sinks at the left and right end of the network.

1.9.4 Three types of mobility: In the scenarios discussed above, all participants were stationary. But one of the main virtues of wireless communication is its ability to support mobile participants. In wireless sensor networks, mobility can appear in three main forms

- a. Node mobility
- b. Sink mobility
- c. Event mobility

1.9.4(a) Node Mobility: The wireless sensor nodes themselves can be mobile. The meaning of such mobility is highly application dependent. In examples like environmental control, node mobility should not happen; in livestock surveillance (sensor nodes attached to cattle, for example), it is the common rule. In the face of node mobility, the network has to reorganize to function correctly.

1.9.4(b) Sink Mobility: The information sinks can be mobile. For example, a human user requested information via a PDA while walking in an intelligent building. In a simple case, such a requester can interact with the WSN at one point and complete its interactions before moving on. In many cases, consecutive interactions can be treated as separate, unrelated requests.

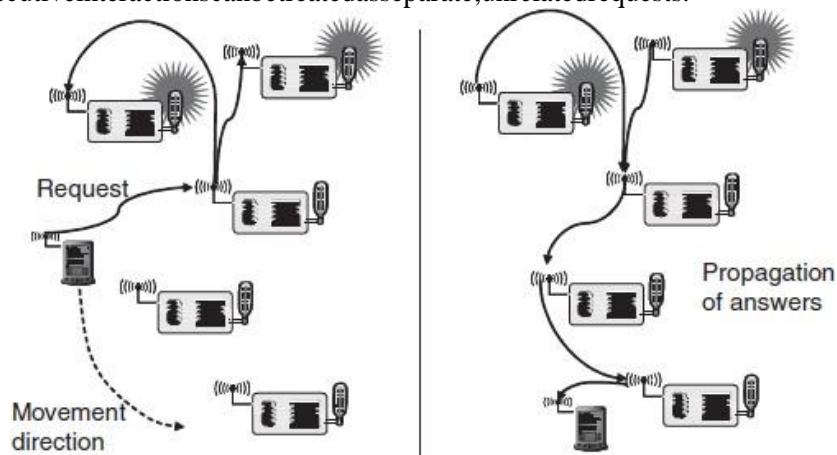


Figure 1.14 Sink mobility: A mobile sink moves through a sensor network as information is being retrieved *on its behalf*

1.9.4(c) Event Mobility: In tracking applications, the cause of the events or the objects to be tracked can be mobile. In such scenarios, it is (usually) important that the observed event is covered by a sufficient number of sensors at all time. As the event source moves through the network, it is accompanied by an area of activity within the network – this has been called the frisbee model. This notion is described by Figure 1.15, where the task is to detect a moving elephant and to observe it as it moves around

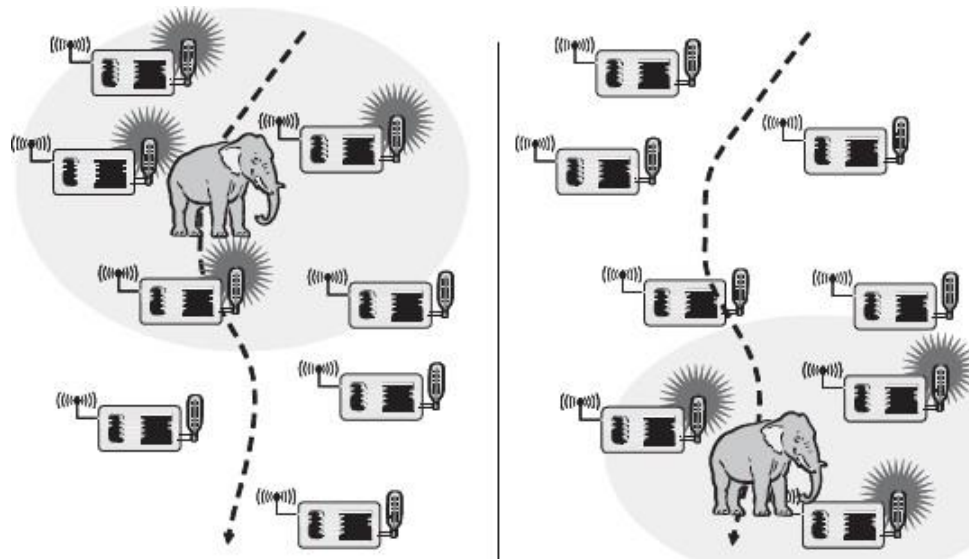


Figure 1.15 Area of sensor nodes detecting an event – an elephant – that moves through the network along with the event source (dashed line indicate the elephant’s trajectory; shaded ellipse the activity area following or even preceding the elephant)

1.10 OPTIMIZATION GOALS AND FIGURES OF MERIT:

For all WSN scenarios and application types have to face the challenges such as

- ✓ How to optimize a network and how to compare these solutions?
- ✓ How to decide which approach is better?
- ✓ How to turn relatively inaccurate optimization goals into measurable figures of merit?

For all the above questions the general answer is obtained from

- ❖ Quality of service
- ❖ Energy efficiency
- ❖ Scalability
- ❖ Robustness

1.10.1 Quality of service: WSNs differ from other conventional communication networks in the type of service they offer. These networks essentially only move bits from one place to another. Some generic possibilities are

- ✓ **Event detection/reporting probability**- The probability that an event that actually occurred is not detected or not reported to an information sink that is interested in such an event. For example, not reporting a fire alarm to a surveillance station would be a severe shortcoming.
- ✓ **Event classification error**- If events are not only to be detected but also to be classified, the error in classification must be small
- ✓ **Event detection delay**- It is the delay between detecting an event and reporting it to any/all interested sinks
- ✓ **Missing reports**- In applications that require periodic reporting, the probability of undelivered reports should be small
- ✓ **Approximation accuracy**- For function approximation applications, the average/maximum absolute or relative error with respect to the actual function.
- ✓ **Tracking accuracy** Tracking applications must not miss an object to be tracked, the reported positions should be as close to their real positions as possible, and the error should be small.

1.10.2 Energy efficiency: Energy efficiency should be optimization goal. The most commonly considered aspects are:

- ✓ **Energy per correctly received bit**-How much energy is spent on average to transport one bit of information (payload) from the transmitter to the receiver.
- ✓ **Energy per reported (unique) event**-What is the average energy spent to report one event
- ✓ **Delay/energy trade-offs**-“urgent” events increase energy investment for a speedy reporting event. Here, the trade-off between delay and energy overhead is interesting
- ✓ **Network lifetime** The time for which the network is operational
- ✓ **Time to first node death**-When does the first node in the network run out of energy or fail and stop operating?
- ✓ **Network half-life**-When have 50% of the nodes run out of energy and stopped operating
- ✓ **Time to partition**-When does the first partition of the network in two (or more) disconnected parts occur?
- ✓ **Time to loss of coverage** the time when for the first time any spot in the deployment region is no longer covered by any node's observations.
- ✓ **Time to failure of first event notification** A network partition can be seen as irrelevant if the unreachable part of the network does not want to report any events in the first place.

1.10.3 Scalability: The ability to maintain performance characteristics irrespective of the size of the network is referred to as scalability. With WSN potentially consisting of thousands of nodes, scalability is an obviously essential requirement. The need for extreme scalability has direct consequences for the protocol design. Often, a penalty in performance or complexity has to be paid for small networks. Architectures and protocols should implement appropriate scalability support rather than trying to be as scalable as possible. Applications with a few dozen nodes might admit more-efficient solutions than applications with thousands of nodes.

1.10.4 Robustness: Wireless sensor networks should also exhibit an appropriate robustness. They should not fail just because a limited number of nodes run out of energy, or because their environment changes and severes existing radiolinks between two nodes. If possible, these failures have to be compensated by finding other routes.

1.11 GATE WAY CONCEPTS:

1.11.1 Need for gateways:

- ✓ For practical deployment, a sensor network only concerned with itself is insufficient.
- ✓ The network rather has to be able to interact with other information devices for example to read the temperature sensors in one's home while traveling and accessing the Internet via wireless.
- ✓ Wireless sensor networks should also exhibit an appropriate robustness
- ✓ They should not fail just because of a limited number of nodes run out of energy or because of their environment changes and break existing radiolinks between two nodes.
- ✓ If possible, these failures have to be compensated by finding other routes.

Figure 1.16 shows this networking scenario, The WSN first of all has to be able to exchange data with such a mobile device or with some sort of gateway, which provides the physical connection to the Internet. The WSN support standard wireless communication technologies such as IEEE 802.11. The design of gateways becomes much more challenging when considering their logical design. One option is to regard a gateway as a simpler router between Internet and sensor network.

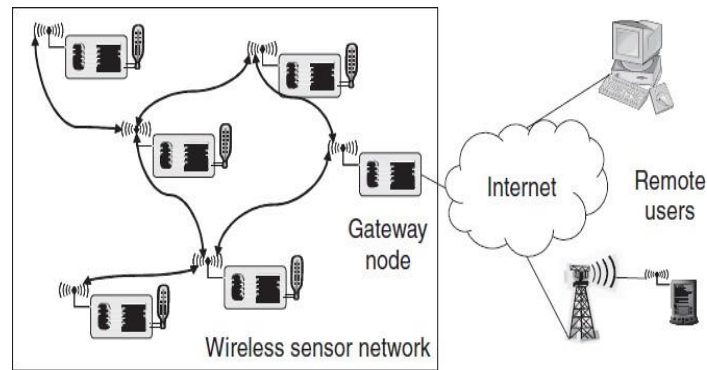


Figure 1.16 A wireless sensor network with gateway node, enabling access to remote clients via the Internet

1.1.1.2 WSN to Internet communication: Assume that the initiator of a WSN–Internet communication resides in the WSN.

- ✓ For example, a sensor node wants to deliver an alarm message to some Internet host.
- ✓ The first problem to solve is how to find the gateway from within the network
- ✓ Basically, a routing problem to a node that offers a specific service has to be solved, integrating routing and service discovery
- ✓ If several such gateways are available, how to choose between them?
- ✓ In particular, if not all Internet hosts are reachable via each gateway or at least if some gateways should be preferred for a given destination host?
- ✓ How to handle several gateways, each capable of IP networking, and the communication among them?
- ✓ One option is to build an IP overlay network on top of the sensor network
- ✓ How to map a semantic notion (“Alert Alice”) to a concrete IP address?
- ✓ Even if the sensor node does not need to be able to process the IP protocol, it has to include sufficient information (IP address and port number, for example) in its own packets;
- ✓ the gateway then has to extract this information and translate it into IP packets.
- ✓ An ensuing question is which source address to use here—the gateway in a sense has to perform tasks similar to that of a Network Address Translation (NAT) device.

Remote requester

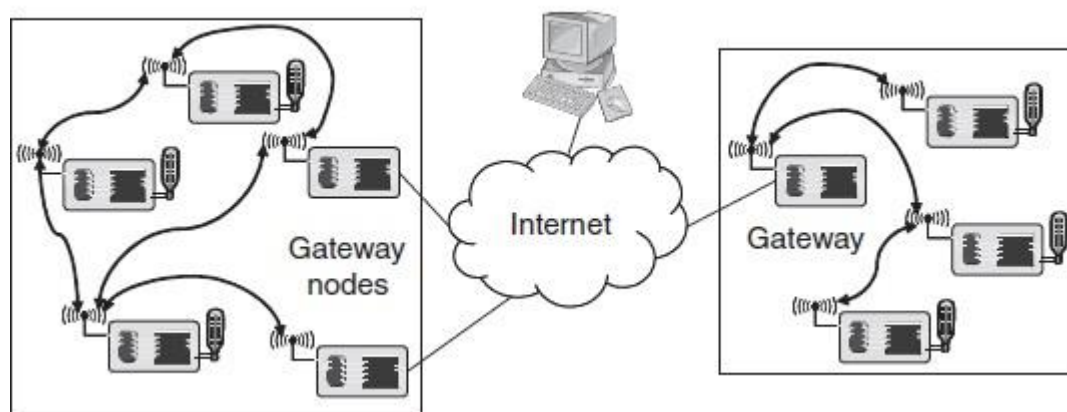
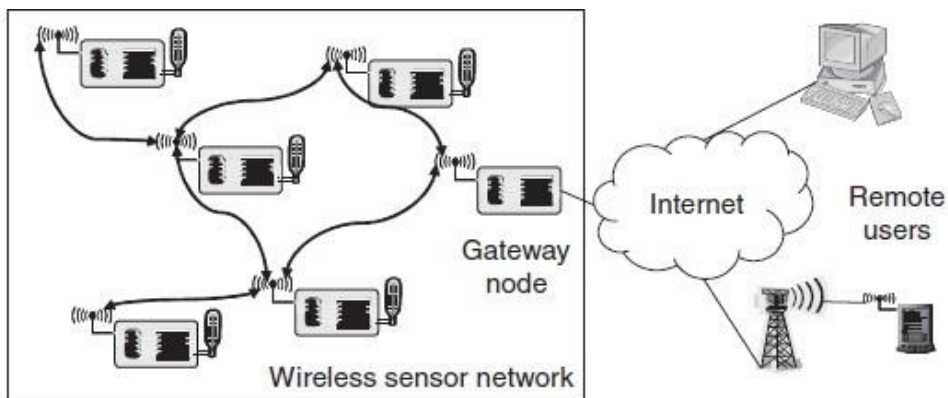


Figure 1.17: A wireless Sensor Network with gateway node, enabling access to remote clients via the WSN

1.1.1.3 Internet to WSN communication: The case of an Internet-based entity trying to access services of a WSN is even more challenging.

- ✓ This is fairly simple if this requesting terminal is able to directly communicate with the WSN.
- ✓ The more general case is, however, a terminal “far away” requesting the service, not immediately able to communicate with any sensor node and thus requiring the assistance of a gateway node

- ✓ First of all, again the question is how to find out that there actually is a sensor network in the desired location, and how to find out about the existence of a gateway node?
- ✓ Once there requesting terminal has obtained this information, how to access the actual services.
- ✓ The requesting terminal can instead send a properly formatted request to this gateway, which acts as an application-level gateway
- ✓ The gateway translates this request into the proper intrasensor network protocol interactions
- ✓ The gateway can then mask, for example, a data-centric data exchange within the network behind an identity-centric exchange used in the Internet
- ✓ It is by no means clear that such an application-level protocol exists that represents an actual simplification over just extending the actual sensor network protocol to the remote terminal
- ✓ In addition, there are some clear parallels for such an application-level protocol with so-called Web Service Protocols, which can explicitly describe services and the way they can be accessed



A wireless sensor network with gateway node, enabling access to remote clients via the Internet

Figure 1.18: A wireless Sensor Network with gateway node, enabling access to remote clients via the internet

1.1.1.4 WSNtunnelling:

- ✓ The gateways can also act as simple extensions of one WSN to another WSN. The idea is to build a larger, “virtual” WSN out of separate parts, transparently “tunneling” all protocol messages between these two networks and simply using the Internet as a transport network.
- ✓ This can be attractive, but care has to be taken not to confuse the virtual link between two gateway nodes with a real link;
- ✓ Otherwise, protocols that rely on physical properties of a communication link can get quite confused (e.g. time synchronization or localization protocols).

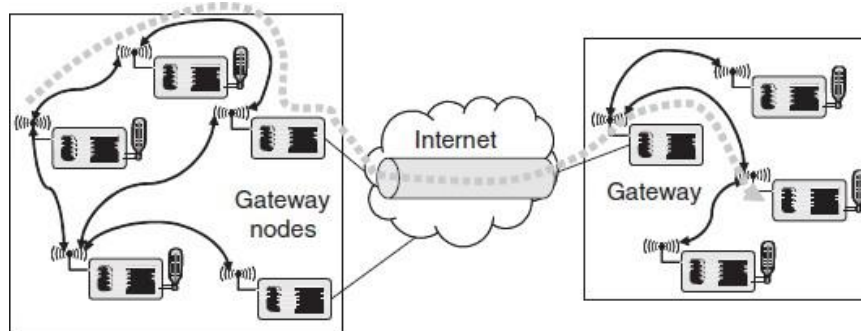


Figure 1.19 Connecting two WSNs with a tunnel over the Internet

UNIT –III

PHYSICAL LAYER AND TRANSCEIVER DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS IN WSNs:

Wireless sensor networks have characteristics that are different from traditional wireless networks. For example, nodes have more simple power constraints, although they may transmit at shorter distances and lower data rates. In this Chapter, we consider the specific physical layer requirements of wireless sensor networks, taking into consideration the particular characteristics and usage setups of wireless sensor networks. We find that spread spectrum technologies meet the requirements much better than narrowband technologies. Furthermore, Ultra- Wideband technologies are found to be a promising emerging alternative.

Wireless sensor networks share many of the problems and challenges of traditional wireless networks, such as the nature of the challenges presented by multipath wireless channels, as well as bandwidth and power constraints. There are additional challenges and constraints that are in WSN as size and cost, from which other constraints like power, processing power and memory constraints are derived.

In general, there may be both sensing and non-sensing nodes in a wireless sensor network, i.e. all sensors are nodes but not all nodes are sensors. The non-sensing nodes assist in communications but don't themselves sense data. The non-sensing nodes may have less power constraints than do the sensing nodes.

2.1.1 Physical Layer Requirements/Considerations:

The physical layer in wireless networked sensors has to be designed with sensor networking requirements in mind. In particular

- The Communication device must be containable in a small size, since the sensor nodes are small. So cheaper, slightly larger antennas may be acceptable in those cases.
- The Communication devices must be cheap, since the sensors will be used in large numbers in a redundant fashion.
- The radio technology must work with higher layers in the protocol stack to consume low power levels.

For all the above reasons, the physical layer cannot be too complex. Therefore, *the nature and complexity of the physical layer* processing is an important consideration in selecting a physical layer technology for wireless networked sensors.

Another consideration is *interference from other devices* that are not part of the wireless sensor network. Since nodes are densely deployed in wireless sensor networks, they may interfere more with one another than in traditional wireless networks. Although the lower transmission powers of the devices help reduce the interference they cause to one another, interference is still

a problem. Sophisticated noise canceling algorithms such as antenna arrays to be used.

Furthermore, *link layer and physical layer synchronization* is an important issue. For sensor networks, the link and physical layers must be designed to allow relative synchronization between communicating nodes.

Yet another consideration in evaluating physical layers for wireless sensor networks is in the *capability to re-use radio technology*. This applies to sensors where the sensing itself relies on radio waves. Unless excessive interference between sensing and communications signals can be avoided, the benefits of radio reuse may not be realizable.

Next one is *Antenna considerations*, the desired small form factor of the overall sensor nodes restricts the size and the number of antennas. If the antenna is much smaller than the carrier's wavelength, it is hard to achieve good antenna efficiency, that is, with ill-sized antennas one must spend more transmit energy to obtain the same radiated energy. With small sensor node cases, it will be hard to place two antennas with suitable distance to achieve receive diversity. The antennas should be spaced apart at least 40–50% of the wavelength used to achieve good effects from diversity.

Finally, the ability to do *physical layer multicasting* is useful. By physical layer multicasting, we mean that a signal can be sent to multiple receivers at the same time, but not necessarily broadcast. The desired receivers are able to receive the desired signal, and the other receivers to filter it out, at the physical layer. Of course, the filtering can be done higher in the protocol stack as well, but that consumes more resources than physical layer multicasting.

2.1.2 Physical layer Evaluation of Technologies:

We consider 3 main classes of physical layer technologies for use in wireless sensor networks, based on bandwidth considerations:

- a) Narrowband technologies
- b) Spread spectrum technologies
- c) Ultra-Wideband (UWB) technologies.

(a) Narrow band Technologies: Narrow-band technologies employ a radio bandwidth, W , that is narrow in the sense that it is on the order of the symbol rate. In fact, if M -ary symbols are used (using higher-level modulation schemes), then each symbol conveys $\log_2 M$ bits of information.

Therefore the bandwidth efficiency is $\frac{R}{W}$ — where R is the data rate in bits per unit time. $\frac{R}{W}$ is often

described in bits per second per hertz. Note that the Shannon capacity, in bits per second per hertz, can be expressed as $C = W \log_2 \left(1 + \frac{P}{N} \right)$ (1)

Where

In Majority of traditional systems bandwidth is limited due to regulatory and/or licensing constraints in narrow frequencies. An important objective in the design of such systems is to maximize achievable data rate. Therefore, it becomes desirable to increase W , which may increase

the .Sincerealmodulationschemesdonotachievecapacity,sothemodulationschemeslike

4QAM, 16QAM and 64-QAM are used.

(b) Spread spectrum technologies: The advantages of spread spectrum systems over narrow band systemsincludes

- Lowprobabilityofdetection
- Lowprobabilityofinterrupt
- Ability to communicate with low power
- Noise-like signals and noise-like interference to other receivers
- Robustness to narrow-band interference
- Multiple-access to the same frequency band by several transmitters
- Robustness to multipath channel impairments

Properly designed spread spectrum systems can achieve higher effective SNR than equal-rate narrowband systems, for the same transmit power. This gain, at the expense of bandwidth, is often quantified as processing gain, which is the ratio of transmission bandwidth to data bandwidth.

Advantages 3 through 5 are especially useful for sensor networks. In addition, spread spectrum is good for physical layer multicasting. There are a variety of spread spectrum technologies, the most widespread of which is Direct-Sequence Spread Spectrum (DS-SS). In DS-SS, a narrowband signal is “spread” into a wideband signal, by modulating it with a high rate chip sequence. The chip sequence is pseudorandom, giving the resultant signal its characteristic properties. Another common variety of spread spectrum is Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum (FH-SS). In FH-SS, the spreading is achieved by “hopping” the signal over a wide range of frequencies, where the sequence of hopped to frequencies is pseudo-random.

(c) Ultra-Wideband (UWB) technologies: Ultra-Wideband (UWB) technology can be thought of as an extreme case of spread spectrum technology with many proposed applications in communications. Its characteristics include:

- (i) Large bandwidths. The transmission bandwidths employed by UWB systems is usually much larger than the transmission bandwidths of typical spread spectrum systems, being on the order of gigahertz rather than megahertz.
- (ii) Large fractional bandwidths. UWB systems tend to have relatively larger fractional bandwidths than traditional communication systems.

The technologies are now compared according to various criteria, and rated. The ratings are collected together in TABLE- 2.1. The ratings are on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being the worst rating (very poor) and 5 being the best (very good).

S. No	Criterion	Narrow Band	Spread Spectrum	UWB
1	Device Size	4	4	4
2	Cost	3	3	4
3	Power Consumption	2	4	5
4	Low range, Low data rate	3	4	5
5	Robustness to interference	1	4	5
6	Robustness to Noise	2	4	5
7	Ease of Synchronization	3	5	2
8	Radio Reusability	2	2	4
9	Physical Layer multicast	1	4	5
10	Regularity Issues	2	4	3

Table 2.1: Rating of technologies by criteria

2.2 PERSONAL AREANETWORKS(PANs):

1. Thomas Zimmerman was the first research scientist to introduce the idea of Personal Area Network(PAN).
2. The communication network established for the purpose of connecting computer devices of personal use is known as PAN (Personal AreaNetwork).
3. When a network is established by connecting phone lines to PDAs (Personal Digital Assistants), this communication is known as PAN (Personal AreaNetwork).
4. PANs can be wired (USB or FireWire) or wireless (infrared, ZigBee, Bluetooth,UWB).
5. Wireless Personal Area Network (WPAN) can perform really efficient operations if we connect them with specializeddevices.
6. The range of a PAN typically is a fewmeters.
7. Examples of wireless PAN, or WPAN, devices include cell phone headsets, wireless keyboards, wireless mice, printers, bar code scanners and gameconsoles.

2.2.1 Examples for PANs:

Examples-1:

1. Blue tooth wireless PAN:

- ✓ These are referred as Pico nets. Pico nets are Ad hoc networks.
- ✓ Pico nets work over a range of 200 metres and transmit data of about 2100 Kbit/sec.
- ✓ The Bluetooth technology is based on IEEE 802.15 standard.
- ✓ The wearable and portable computer devices communicate with each other.
- ✓ In this process of hand shake, an electric field is generated around people, and they emit Picoamps.
- ✓ These emissions complete the circuit and hence an exchange of information takes place.

Examples-2:

2. ZigBee:

- ✓ It is a short-range, low-power computer networking protocol that complies with the IEEE 802.15.4 standard.
- ✓ In the U.S., ZigBee devices operate in the 902-928 MHz and 2.4 GHz unlicensed bands.
- ✓ ZigBee employs DS-SS modulation with a gross data rate of 40 kb/s in the 900 MHz band and 250 kb/s in the 2.4 GHz band.
- ✓ There are three types of ZigBee devices:
 - ZigBee Coordinator (ZC)*: Forming the root of the network tree and bridging to other networks,
 - ZigBee Router (ZR)*: It can run an application function as well as act as an intermediary router by passing data from other devices.
 - ZigBee End Device (ZED)*: It contains just enough functionality to talk to its parent node. It can sleep most of the time, extending its battery life.

Examples-3:

3. Ultra-WideBand (UWB):

- ✓ It is a radio technology useful for short-range, high-bandwidth communications that does not create harmful interference to users sharing the same band.
- ✓ A pulse-based UWB method is the basis of the IEEE 802.15.4a draft standard

Examples-4:

4. Wi-Fi or WiMAX

- ✓ Wi-Fi or WiFi is a technology for wireless local area networking with devices based on the IEEE 802.11 standards.

2.3 HIDDEN NODE AND EXPOSED NODE PROBLEM:

In WSN, to exchange data two exchange control frames are used before transmitting data

1. Request to Send (RTS)
2. Clear to Send (CTS)

RTS/CTS is the optional mechanism used by the 802.11 wireless networking protocol to reduce frame collisions introduced by the hidden node problem. The RTS/CTS frames can cause a new problem called the exposed terminal problem. These control frames duty includes

1. If sender sees CTS, transmits data.
2. If other node sees CTS, will idle for specified period.
3. If other node sees RTS but not CTS, free to send

2.3.1 Hidden terminal problem:

Other senders' information are hidden from the current sender, so that transmissions at the same receiver cause collisions. That is for example if two persons are trying to communicate third person at the same time, then third person will be in dilemma to which person he has to communicate. At that time for proper communication one of the sender' will hide another sender by dominating. In the similar fashion other senders' information are hidden from the current sender. This problem is called "**Hidden terminal/Node problem**"

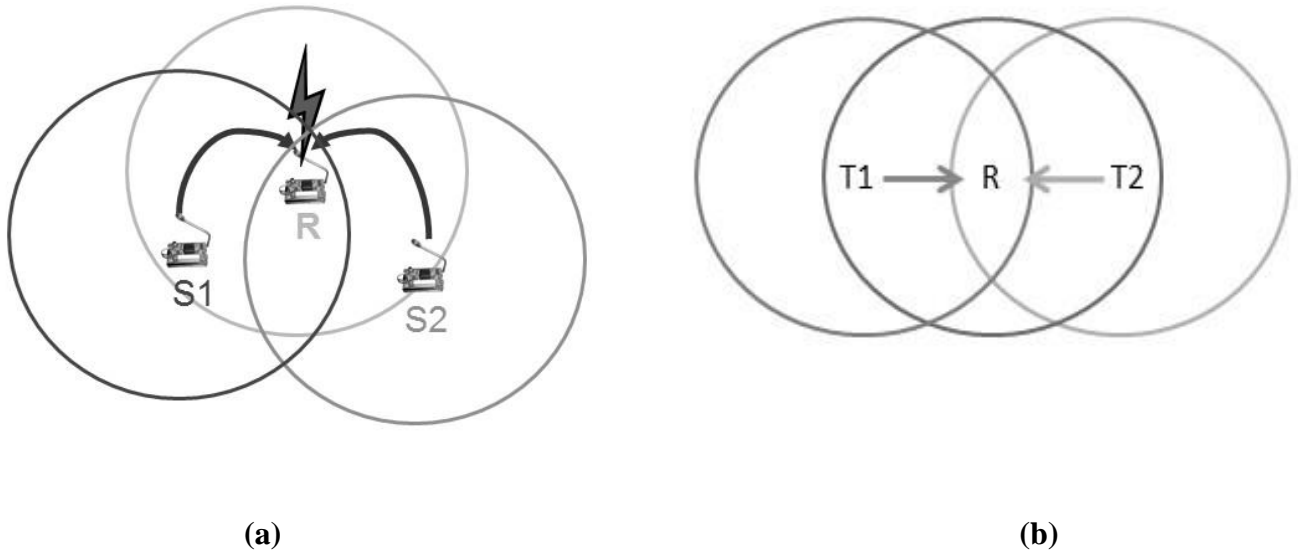


Figure 2.1 (a) & (b) Hidden node problem

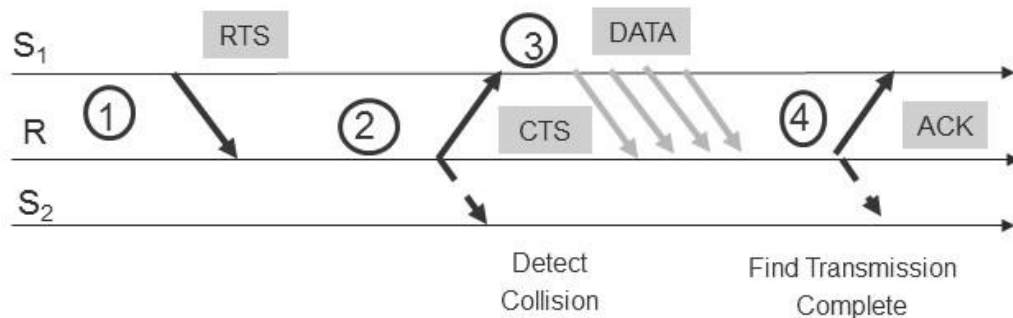


Figure 2.2 Data transmission in Hidden node problem

From figure 2.1(b) we can observe that transmitters T1 and T2 can't see each other, both send to receiver R. Then RTS/CTS can help

- Both T1 and T2 would send RTS that R would see first.
- R only responds with one CTS (say, echoing T1's RTS).
- T2 detects that CTS doesn't match and won't send.

2.3.2 Exposed terminal problem:

- ✓ The sender mistakenly thinks that the medium is in use, so that it unnecessarily defers the transmission. That is for example if in a communication network there are two transmitters and two receivers, then one sender/transmitter exchanges RTS-CTS with one receiver, then second sender mistakenly thinks that the medium is in use, so it needlessly submits the transmission. From figure 2.3(b) we can observe that T1 sending to R1, T2 wants to send to R2. As T2 receives packets, carrier sense would prevent it from sending to R2, even though wouldn't interfere. Then RTS/CTS can help
 - T2 hears RTS from T1, but not CTS from R1

- T2 knows its transmission will not interfere at T1's receiver
- T2 is safe to transmit to R2.

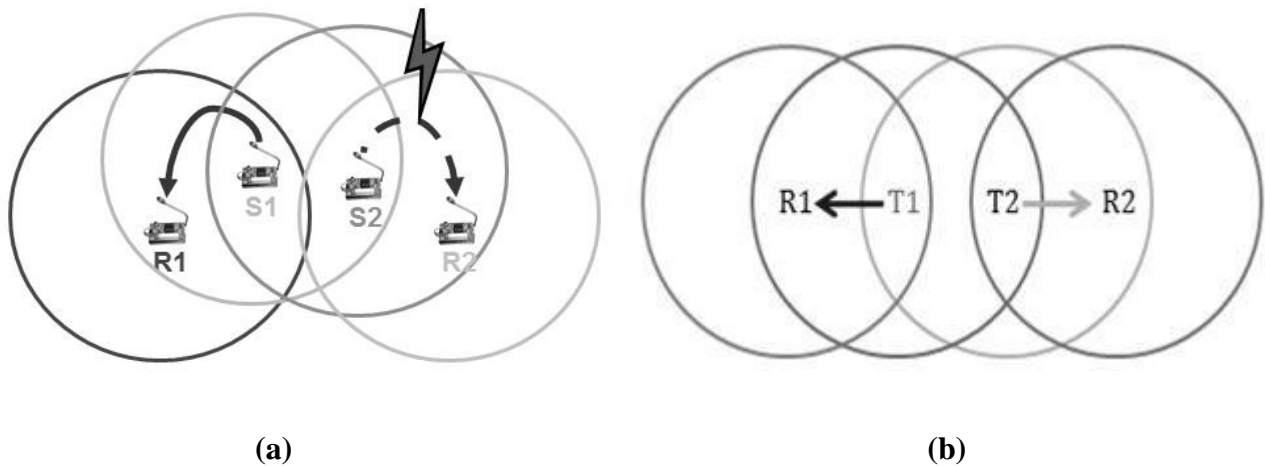


Figure 2.3 (a) & (b) Exposed Node/terminal problem

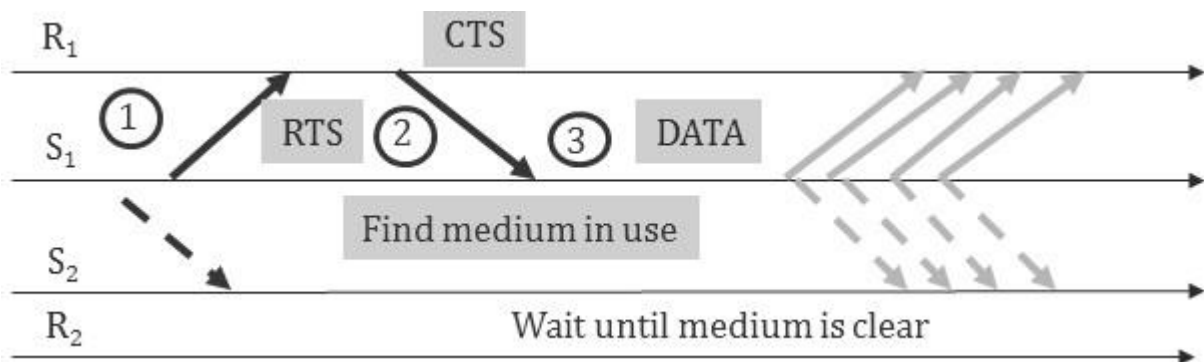


Figure 2.4 Data transmission in Exposed node problem 2.4

Wireless Ad-hoc Networks (WANETs):

Wireless ad hoc network (WANET) is a decentralized technology designed for the establishment of a network anywhere and anytime without any fixed infrastructure to support the mobility of the users in the network. The network is ad-hoc because each node is willing to forward data for other nodes. Wireless ad-hoc networks can be further classified by their application:

1. **Mobile ad hoc networks (MANETs):** MANET is a continuously self-configuring, infrastructure-less network of mobile devices connected without wires.
2. **Vehicular ad hoc networks (VANETs):** VANETs are used for communication between vehicles and roadside equipment.
3. **Intelligent vehicular ad hoc networks:** In VANETs are a kind of artificial intelligence that helps vehicles to behave in intelligent manners during vehicle-to-vehicle collisions, accidents. Vehicles are using radio waves to communicate with each other.

4. **Smart-Phone Ad-hoc networks (SPANs):** SPANs influence the existing hardware (primarily Bluetooth and Wi-Fi) in commercially available smartphones to create peer-to-peer networks without depends on cellular carrier networks, wireless access points, or traditional network infrastructure.
5. **Internet-based Mobile Ad-hoc networks (iMANETs):** iMANETs are ad hoc networks that link mobile nodes and fixed Internet-gateway nodes.

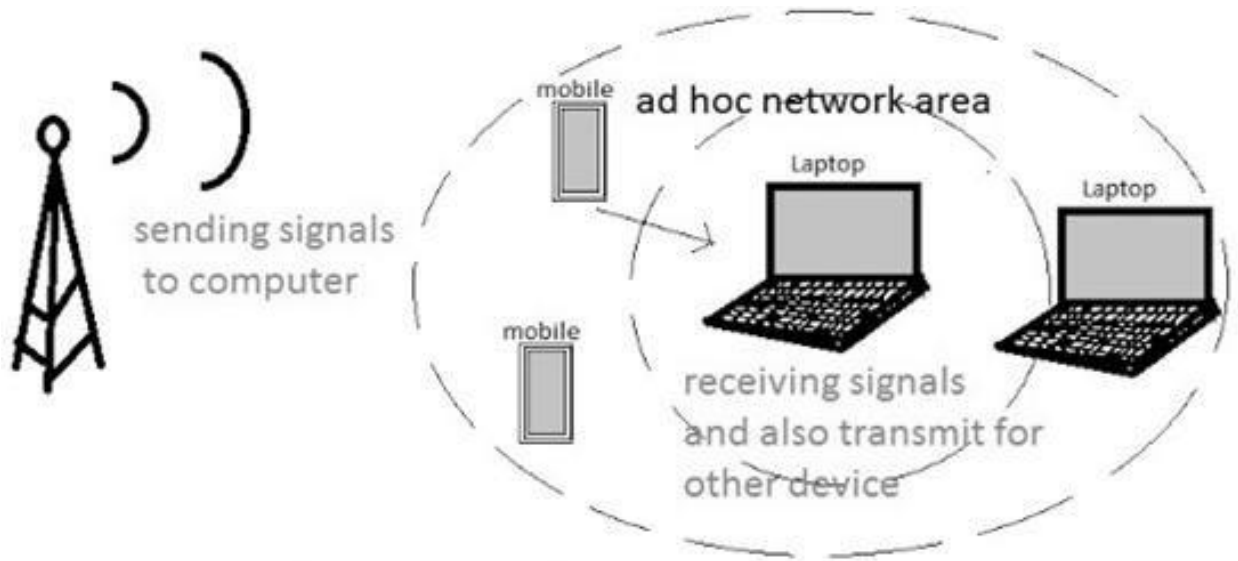


Figure 2.5 Example of Wireless Ad-hoc Network (WANET)

2.5 Mobile Ad-HOC Networks(MANETs):

A Mobile Ad-hoc Network is a collection of independent mobile nodes that can communicate to each other via radio waves. A mobile ad-hoc network (MANET) is a continuously self-configuring, infrastructure-less network of mobile devices connected wirelessly. Each device in a MANET is free to move independently in any direction, and will therefore change its links to other devices frequently. The mobile nodes that are in radio range of each other can directly communicate, whereas others need the aid of intermediate nodes to route their packets. Each of the nodes has a wireless interface to communicate with each other.

Example of MANETs: Node 1 and node 3 are not within range of each other, however the node 2 can be used to forward packets between node 1 and node 2. The node 2 will act as a router and these three nodes together form an ad-hoc Network.

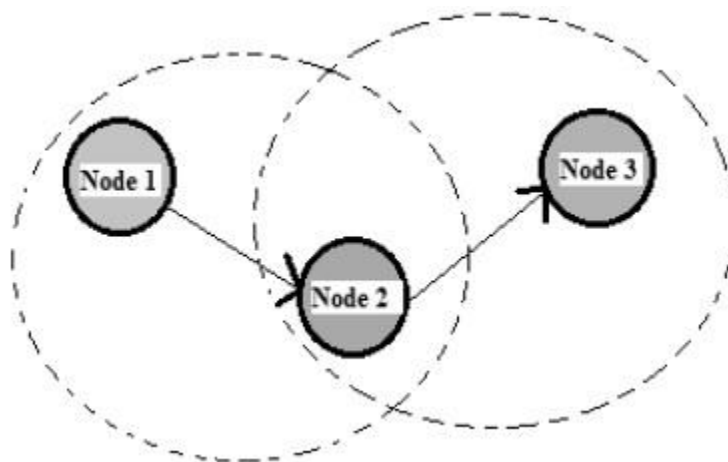


Figure 2.6: Example of MANETs

2.5.1 MANETs Characteristics:

1. *Distributed operation:* There is no central control of the network operations, the control of the network is distributed among the nodes.
2. *Multi hop routing:* When a node tries to send information to other nodes which is out of its range, the packet should be forwarded via one or more intermediate nodes.

3. *Autonomous terminal*: In MANET, each mobile node is an independent node (could function as host/router).
4. *Dynamic topology*: Nodes are free to move arbitrarily with different speeds; thus, the network topology may change randomly and at unpredictable time.
5. *Light-weight terminals*: The nodes at MANET are mobile with less CPU capability, low power storage and small memory size.
6. *Shared Physical Medium*: The wireless communication medium is accessible to any entity with the appropriate equipment and adequate resources.

2.5.2 MANETs Challenges:

1. *Limited bandwidth*: Wireless link continue to have significantly lower capacity than infrastructured networks. In addition, the realized throughput of wireless communication after accounting for the effect of multiple access, fading, noise, and interference conditions, etc., is often much less than a radio's maximum transmission rate.
2. *Dynamic topology*: Dynamic topology membership may disturb the trust relationship among nodes. The trust may also be disturbed if some nodes are detected as compromised.
3. *Routing Overhead*: In wireless ad hoc networks, nodes often change their location within network. So, some stale routes are generated in the routing table which leads to unnecessary routing overhead.
4. *Hidden terminal problem*: The hidden terminal problem refers to the collision of packets at a receiving node due to the simultaneous transmission of those nodes that are not within the direct transmission range of the sender, but are within the transmission range of the receiver.
5. *Packet losses due to transmission errors*: Ad hoc wireless networks experiences a much higher packet loss due to factors such as increased collisions due to the presence of hidden terminals, presence of interference, uni-directional links, frequent path breaks due to mobility of nodes.
6. *Mobility-induced route changes*: The network topology in an ad hoc wireless network is highly dynamic due to the movement of nodes; hence an on-going session suffers frequent path breaks. This situation often leads to frequent route changes.
7. *Battery constraints*: Devices used in these networks have restrictions on the power source in order to maintain portability, size and weight of the device.
8. *Security threats*: The wireless mobile ad hoc nature of MANETs brings new security challenges to the network design. As the wireless medium is vulnerable to eavesdropping and ad hoc network functionality is established through node cooperation, mobile ad hoc networks are intrinsically exposed to numerous security attacks.

2.5.3 MANETVULNERABILIES:

Vulnerability is a weakness in security system. A particular system may be vulnerable to unauthorized data manipulation because the system does not verify a user's identity before allowing data access.

MANET is more vulnerable than wired network. Some of the vulnerabilities are as follows:

1. *Lack of centralized management:* MANET doesn't have a centralized monitor server. The absence of management makes the detection of attacks difficult because it is not easy to monitor the traffic in a highly dynamic and large scale ad-hoc network.
2. *No predefined Boundary:* In mobile ad-hoc networks we cannot precisely define a physical boundary of the network. The nodes work in a nomadic environment where they are

allowed to join and leave the wireless network. As soon as an adversary comes in the radio range of a node it will be able to communicate with that node.

1. *Cooperativeness:* Routing algorithm for MANETs usually assumes that nodes are cooperative and non-malicious. As a result a malicious attacker can easily become an important routing agent and disrupt network operation.
2. *Limited power supply:* The nodes in mobile ad-hoc network need to consider restricted power supply, which will cause several problems. A node in mobile ad-hoc network may behave in a selfish manner when it is finding that there is only limited power supply.
3. *Adversary inside the Network:* The mobile nodes within the MANET can freely join and leave the network. The nodes within network may also behave maliciously. This is hard to detect that the behavior of the node is malicious. Thus this attack is more dangerous than the external attack.

2.5.2 ROUTING PROTOCOLS:

Ad-Hoc network routing protocols are commonly divided into three main classes as Proactive, Reactive and Hybrid protocols.

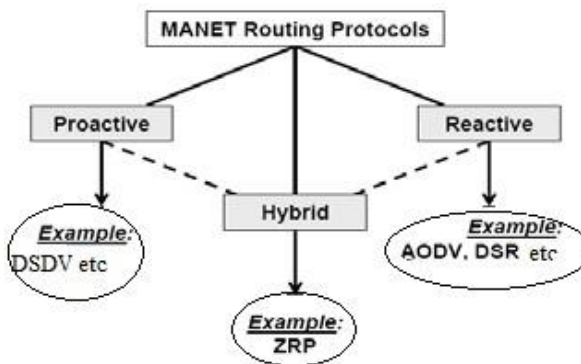


Figure 2.7 Routing protocols in MANETs

1) *Proactive Protocols*: Proactive, or table-driven routing protocols. In proactive routing, each node has to maintain one or more tables to store routing information, and any changes in network topology need to be reflected by propagating updates throughout the network in order to maintain a consistent network view. Examples of such schemes are the conventional routing schemes: Destination sequenced distance vector (DSDV). They attempt to maintain consistent, up-to-date routing information of the whole network. It minimizes the delay in communication and allows nodes to quickly determine which nodes are present or reachable in the network.

2) *Reactive Protocols*: Reactive routing is also known as on-demand routing protocol since they do not maintain routing information or routing activity at the network nodes if there is no communication. If a node wants to send a packet to another node then this protocol searches for the route in an on-demand manner and establishes the connection in order to transmit and receive the packet. The route discovery occurs by flooding the route request packets throughout the network. Examples of reactive routing protocols are the Ad-hoc On-demand Distance Vector routing (AODV) and Dynamic Source Routing (DSR).

3) *Hybrid Protocols*: They introduce a hybrid model that combines reactive and proactive routing protocols. The Zone Routing Protocol (ZRP) is a hybrid routing protocol that divides the network into zones. ZRP provides a hierarchical architecture where each node has to maintain additional topological information requiring extra memory.

2.5.3 Security Attacks in MANETs:

These attacks can be categorized into two types based on behavior as Passive or Active attack.

1. *Passive attacks*: It does not alter the data transmitted within the network. But it includes the unauthorized "listening" to the network traffic or accumulates/collects data from it.
2. *Active attacks*: Active attacks are very severe attacks on the network that prevent message flow between the nodes.

They can be internal or external. Active attacks are classified into three groups:

- a) *Dropping Attacks*: Compromised nodes or selfish nodes can drop all packets that are not destined for them.
- b) *Modification Attacks*: These attacks modify packets and disturb the overall communication between network nodes.
- c) *Fabrication Attacks*: In this attacker sends fake messages to the neighbouring nodes without receiving any related message.

2.5.4 MANET Applications:

Some of the typical applications include:

1. *Military battlefield*: Ad-Hoc networking would allow the military to take advantage of commonplace network technology to maintain an information network between the soldiers, vehicles, and military information headquarters.
2. *Collaborative work*: For some business environments, the need for collaborative computing might be more important outside office environments than inside and where people do need to have outside meetings to cooperate and exchange information on a given project.
3. *Local level*: Ad-Hoc networks can autonomously link an instant and temporary multimedia network using notebook computers to spread and share information among participants at a e.g. conference or classroom. Another appropriate local level application might be in home networks where devices can communicate directly to exchange information.
4. *Personal Area Network and Bluetooth*: A personal area network is a short range, localized network where nodes are usually associated with a given person. Short-range MANET such as Bluetooth can simplify the inter communication between various mobile devices such as a laptop, and a mobile phone.
5. *Commercial Sector*: Ad hoc can be used in emergency/rescue operations for disaster relief efforts, e.g. in fire, flood, or earthquake. Emergency rescue operations must take place where non-existing or damaged communications infrastructure and rapid deployment of a communication network is needed.

2.6 Vehicular ad hoc networks(VANETs):

VANETs are used for communication between vehicles and roadside equipment. A Vehicular Ad- Hoc Network or VANET is a sub form of Mobile Ad-Hoc Network or MANET that provides communication between vehicles and between vehicles and road-side base stations with an aim of providing efficient and safe transportation. A vehicle in VANET is considered to be an intelligent mobile node capable of communicating with its neighbors and other vehicles in the network. VANET introduces more challenges aspects as compare to MANET because of high mobility of nodes and fast topology changes in VANET. Various routing protocols have been designed and presented by researchers after considering the major challenges involved in VANETs. VANET can achieve affective communication between moving node by using different ad-hoc networking tools such as Wi-fi IEEE 802.11 b/g, WiMAX IEEE 802.10, Bluetooth,IRA.

2.6.1 Characteristics of VANETs

There are various appealing and attractive features that make a difference from other types of networks.

- 1) *High Mobility*: The nodes present in VANETs move at a very high speed. These moving nodes can be protected saved from attacks and other security threats only if their location is predicable. High mobility leads to various other issues inVANET
- 2) *Rapidly Changing Network Topology*: Vehicles moving at high speed in VANET lead to quick changes in networktopology.
- 3) *No Power constraints*: Power constraint always exists in various networks but in VANETs vehicles are able to provide power to on board unit (OBU) via the long life battery. So energy constraint is not always an essential challenge as inMANETs.
- 4) *Unbounded Network Size*: The network size in VANET is geographically unbounded because it can be generated for one city or onecountry.
- 5) *Time Critical*: Timely delivery of information is very essential. Actions can be performed accordingly only when information is available when it isrequired.
- 6) *Frequent changing information*: Ad-Hoc nature of VANET motivates the nodes to gather information from other vehicles and roadside units. As vehicles move and change their path, information related to traffic and environment also changes veryrapidly.
- 7) *Wireless Communication*: Nodes are connected and exchange their information through wireless.
- 8) *Variable network density*: The network density is changed according to traffic density; it is very high in traffic jam and low in suburbantraffic.
- 9) *High computability ability*: Due to computational resources and sensors, the computational capacity of the node isincreased.

2.6.2 Components ofVANETs:

VANET is an autonomous self-organizing wireless network. VANETs contains following entities:

- 1) *Vehicles*: Vehicles are the nodes of vehicular network. VANET address the wireless communication between vehicles (V2V) and between vehicles and infrastructure access point (V2I).
- 2) *Infrastructure*: Infrastructure related to outside environment include road side base station. Base stations are the roadside unit and they are located at dedicated location like junctions or near parking spaces. Their main functions are to increase the communication area of the ad hoc network by re-allocating the information to others and to run safety application like low bridge warning, accident warningetc.
- 3) *Communication channels*: Radio waves are a type of electromagnetic radiation with wavelengths

in the electromagnetic spectrum longer than infrared light. Radio waves have frequencies from 190 GHz to 3Khz. Radio propagation model plays a strong role in the performance of a protocol to determine the number of nodes within one collisiondomain.

2.6.3 Communication inVANET:

Various types of communication technique are used in VANET. Some of them are given below:

- 1) *Vehicle to Vehicle Communication:* It refers to inter vehicle communication. Vehicles or a group of vehicles connect with one another and communicate like point to point architecture. It proves to be very helpful for cooperativedriving.
- 2) *Vehicle to Infrastructure Communication:* Number of base stations positioned in close proximitywithafixedinfrastructuretothehighwaysisnecessarytoprovidethefacilityof

uploading/downloading of data from/to the vehicles. Each infrastructure access point covers a cluster.

- 3) *Cluster to Cluster Communication:* In VANETs network is split into clusters that are self-managed group of vehicles. Base Station Manager Agent (BSMA) enables communications between the clusters. BSMA of one cluster communicates with that of othercluster.

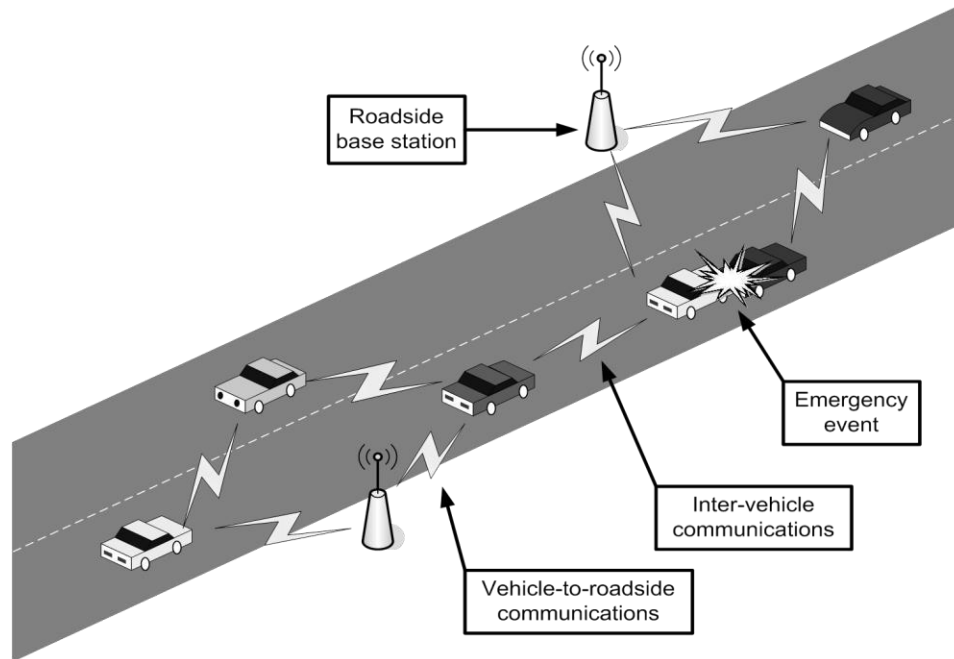


Figure 2.8 Example of VANET

2.6.4 Security Requirements forVANETs:

- 1) *Authentication:* In VANET greedy drivers or the other adversaries can be condensed to a greater extent by authentication mechanism that ensures that the messages are sent by the actual nodes. Authentication, however, increases privacy concerns, as a basic authentication scheme of connecting the identity of the sender with the message. It, therefore, is absolutely essential to validate that a sender has a certain property which gives certification as per the application. For example, in location based services this property could be that a vehicle is in a particular location from where it claims to be.
- 2) *Message Integrity:* Integrity of message ensures that the message is not changes in transit that the messages the driver receives are notfalse.
- 3) *Message Non-Repudiation:* In this security based system a sender can be identified easily. But only specific authority is approved for sender identification. Vehicle could be identified from the authenticated messages itsends.
- 4) *Access control:* Vehicles must function according to rules and they should only perform those

tasks that they are authorized to do. Access control is ensured if nodes act according to specified authorization and generate messages accordingly.

- 5) *Message confidentiality*: Confidentiality is required to maintain privacy in a system. Law enforcement authority can only enforce this privacy between communicating nodes.
- 6) *Privacy*: This system is used to ensure that the information is not leaked to the unauthorized people. Third parties should not be able to track vehicle movements as it is a violation of personal privacy. Location privacy is also important so that no one should be able to learn the past or future locations of vehicles.

- 7) *Real time guarantees:* It is essential in VANET, as many safety related applications depend on strict time guarantees. This feature is necessarily required in time sensitive road safety applications to avoid collisions

2.6.5 Challenges in VANET:

There are many issues in VANET. Some of them are given below:

- 1) *Technical Issue:* Due to high portability, the network topology and channel condition changes rapidly. It is difficult to manage network and control congestion collision in network. In VANET the electromagnetic waves of communication are used and these are affected by environment. Environmental impact need to be considered in VANET. Other technical issues are related to design and architecture of Maclayer.
- 2) *Security Issue:* VANET is time critical where safety related message should be delivered with 100ms transmission delay. Even authenticate node can perform malicious activities than can disturb the network. The major challenge is to distribute privacy keys among vehicles.
- 3) *Security Requirement issue:* Authentication ensures that the message is created by the authorized user. Non repudiation means a node can't deny that she/he doesn't transmit message. It may be crucial to determine correct sequence. A regular verification of data is required to eliminate the false messaging.
- 4) *Attackers on VANET:*
 - a. Insider and outsider: Insiders are the authenticated members of network whereas Outsiders are the intruders and hence limited capacity to attack.
 - b. Malicious and Rational: Malicious attackers have not any personal benefit after attack; they just harm the functionality of the network. Rational attacks can be predicable as they have the personal profit.
 - c. Active and Passive: Active attackers generate signals or packet whereas passive attackers only sense the network.
- 5) *Attacks in VANET:* Hijackers hijacks the session easily after connection establishment. Generally, a driver is itself owner of the vehicles so getting owner's identity can put the privacy at risk. Eavesdropping is a most common attack on confidentiality. Routing attacks are the attacks which destroy the vulnerability of network layer routing protocols.

2.6.6 VANET: Smartvehicle

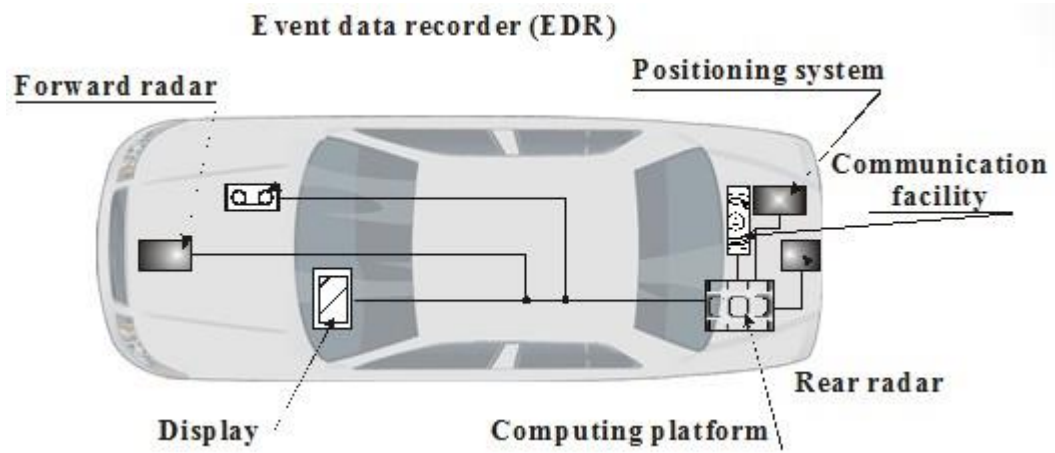


Figure 2.9 Smart vehicle used in VANETs

- ✓ **EDR:** Used in vehicles to register all important parameters, such as velocity, acceleration, etc. especially during abnormal situations(accidents).
- ✓ **Forward radar:** Used to detect any forward obstacles as far as 200meters
- ✓ **Positioning System:** Used to locatevehicles
- ✓ **Computing platform:** Inputs from various components are used to generate useful information

2.6.7 Intelligent vehicular ad hoc networks: InVANETs are a kind of artificial intelligence that helps vehicles to behave in intelligent manners during vehicle-to-vehicle collisions, accidents. Vehicles are using radio waves to communicate with eachother.

UNIT-IV

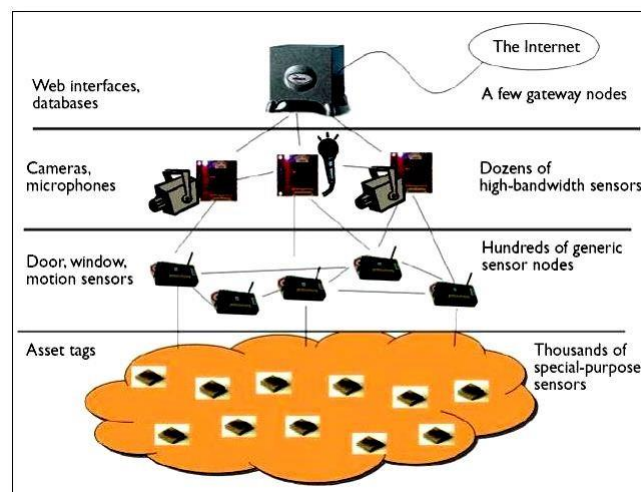
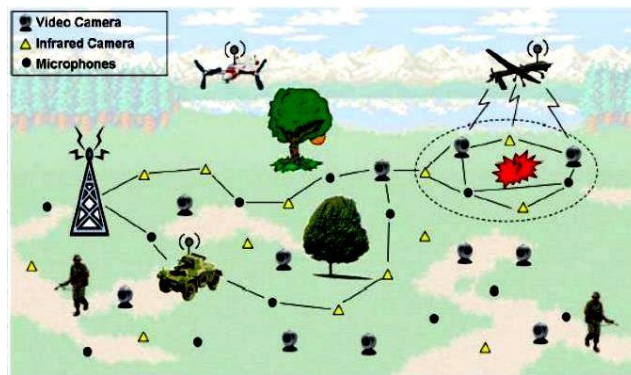
1. Infrastructure Establishment for WSN

- **Localization and Positioning, tracking:**

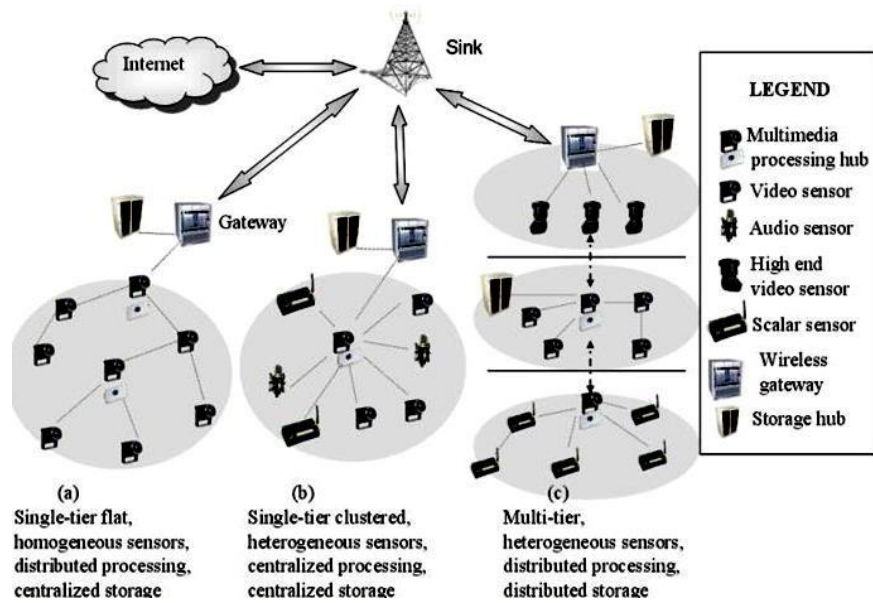
Properties of positioning, Possible approaches, Task driven Sensing, Roles of Sensor nodes and utilities, Information based sensor tracking, joint routing and information aggregation, Sensor Network Databases-BIGDATA, Sensor network platforms and tools, Single-hop localization, Positioning in multi-hop environments, Impact of anchor placement,

- **Operating Systems for WSN:**

OS Design Issues, Examples of OS(Architecture, Design Issues, Functions): Tiny OS, Mate, Magnet OS, MANTIS, Nano-RK OS Architecture Block Diagram, LiteOS Architectural Block Diagram, LiteFS Architectural Block Diagram, Content delivery networks. Introduction to Internet of Things(IoT).



Architecture:



Definition:

The task of initiating collaborative environment for sensor network when that network is activated is called infrastructure establishment.

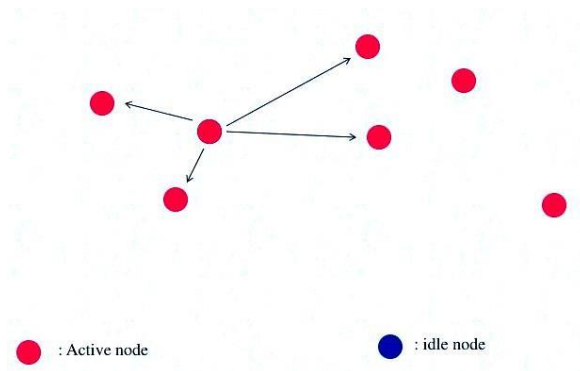
When sensor network is activated various task must be performed to establish necessary infrastructure that will allow useful collaborative work to be performed:

- 1) Discovering other nodes
- 2) Radio power adjustment to ensure adequate connectivity.
- 3) Cluster formation.
- 4) Node placement in a common temporal and special framework.

Some common techniques used to establish the network are:

- 1) Topology control
- 2) Clustering
- 3) Time synchronization
- 4) Localization

2. TopologyControl



- A sensor node that wakes up execute a protocol to discover which other nodes it can communicate with.(bidirectional).
- At initial state each node try to connect with neighbors according to the radio link capacity of its own.
- The neighbor is determined by the radio power of the node as well as local topology and other conditions that may degrade performance of the radio link.
- Sensor nodes are capable of broadcasting less than their maximum possible radio power. (to energy saving and network life time)
- Example : Homogeneous topology : all nodes with same transmission range.

Critical Transmission Range Problem

Computing minimum common transmitting range "r" such that the network is connected.

Solution :

- 1) Depends on physical placement of the node.
- 2) If node location is known CTR problem has a simple solution.

CTR is defined as longest edge of minimum spanning tree

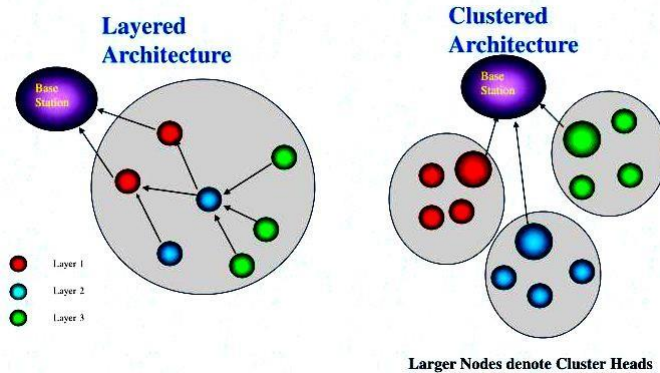
Solution to CTR problem

Example :

GRG (Geometric Random Graph):

N points are distributed into a region according to some distribution and then some aspect of the node placement is investigated with high probability

3. Clustering,



Hierarchical architecture enables more efficient use of sensor resources such as:

- Frequency spectrum
- Bandwidth
- Power

Advantages:

- 1) Health monitoring of network is easy.
- 2) Identifying misbehaving node is easy.
- 3) Some nodes can act as watchdogs for other nodes.
- 4) Maintenance of network is easy.

Cluster formation:

- 1) Initially unique ids (UIDs) are assigned to each node
- 2) Node with higher ID than its uncovered neighbors declares itself as cluster head.
- 3) Cluster head nominated nodes then communicate with each other.
- 4) Node that can communicate with two or more cluster heads may become gateway.

Gateway: node that aid in passing traffic from one cluster to other.

Uncovered neighbors: node that have not been already claimed by another cluster head.

4. Time synchronization,

- Every node is operating independently so their clocks may not be synchronized with each other.
- It is important to run network efficiently

- To detect events
 - For localization
 - Estimating internode distances.
 - To arrange TDMA schedule
- In wired network NTP is used to achieve coordinated universal time (UTC).
 - In NTP highly accurate clock is mounted on one of the machines of the network. This is not applicable for WSN :
 - No master clocks are available.
 - Inconsistent common delay.
 - Connections are variable/dynamic and unpredictable.
 - Time difference caused by the lack of common time origin is called as clock phase difference or clock bias.
 - Methods for clock synchronization in WSN:
 - 1) Clock phase diff estimation using three message exchanges.
 - 2) Interval method.
 - 3) Reference broadcast.

5. Localization and Positioning,

❖ What?

- To determine the physical coordinates of a group of sensor nodes in a wireless sensor network (WSN)
- Due to application context, use of GPS is unrealistic, therefore, sensors need to self-organize a coordinate system

❖ Why?

- To report data that is geographically meaningful
- Services such as routing rely on location information; geographic routing protocols; context-based routing protocols, location-aware services

Localization in Wireless Sensor Networks

In general, almost all the sensor network localization algorithms share three main phases

- DISTANCE ESTIMATION
 - POSITION COMPUTATION
 - LOCALIZATION ALGORITHM
- ❖ The distance estimation phase involves measurement techniques to estimate the relative distance between the nodes.
- ❖ The Position computation consists of algorithms to calculate the coordinates of the unknown node with respect to the known anchor nodes or other neighboring nodes.
- ❖ The localization algorithm, in general, determines how the information concerning distances and positions, is manipulated in order to allow most or all of the nodes of a WSN to estimate their position. Optimally the localization algorithm may involve algorithms to reduce the errors and refine the node positions.

Distance Estimation

There are four common methods for measuring in distance estimation technique:

- ANGLE OF ARRIVAL (AOA)
 - TIME OF ARRIVAL (TOA)
 - TIME DIFFERENT OF ARRIVAL (TDOA)
 - THE RECEIVED SIGNAL STRENGTH INDICATOR (RSSI)
- ANGLE OF ARRIVAL method allows each sensor to evaluate the relative ~~and~~ ~~to~~ received radio signals
- TIME OF ARRIVAL method tries to estimate distances between two nodes using ~~in~~ based measures
- TIME DIFFERENT OF ARRIVAL is a method for determining the distance ~~between~~ ~~an~~ mobile station and nearby synchronized base station
- THE RECEIVED SIGNAL STRENGTH INDICATOR techniques are used to ~~take~~ ~~the~~ signal strength into distance

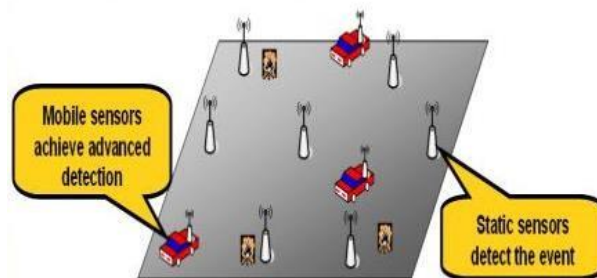
Position Computation

The common methods for position computation techniques are:

- LATERATION
- ANGULATION
- LATERATION techniques based on the precise measurements to three non collinear anchors. Lateration with more than three anchors called multilateration.
- ANGULATION or triangulation is based on information about angles instead of distance

Classifications of Localization Methods

According to the ways of Sensors implementation, we classify the current wireless sensor network localization algorithms into several categories such as:



- Centralized vs Distributed
- Anchor-free vs Anchor-based
- Range-free vs Range-based
- Mobile vs Stationary

6. Sensor Tasking and Control.

- Because of Limited battery power and Limited bandwidth careful tasking and the control is needed.
- Information collected from the sensors.
 - All information aggregation is needed.
 - Selective information aggregation is needed.
- Which sensor nodes to activate and what information to transmit is a critical issue.
- Classical algorithms are not suitable for WSN :
 - Sense values are not known.
 - Cost of sensing may vary with the data.

Designing strategy for Sensor Tasking and Ctrl:

- 1) What are the important object in the environment to be sensed?
- 2) What parameters of these object are relevant?
- 3) What relations among these objects are critical to whatever high level information we need to know?
- 4) Which is the best sensor to acquire a particular parameter?
- 5) How many sensing and the communication operations will be needed to accomplish the task?
- 6) How coordinated do the world models of the different sensor need to be?
- 7) At what level do we communicate information in a spectrum from a signal to symbol?

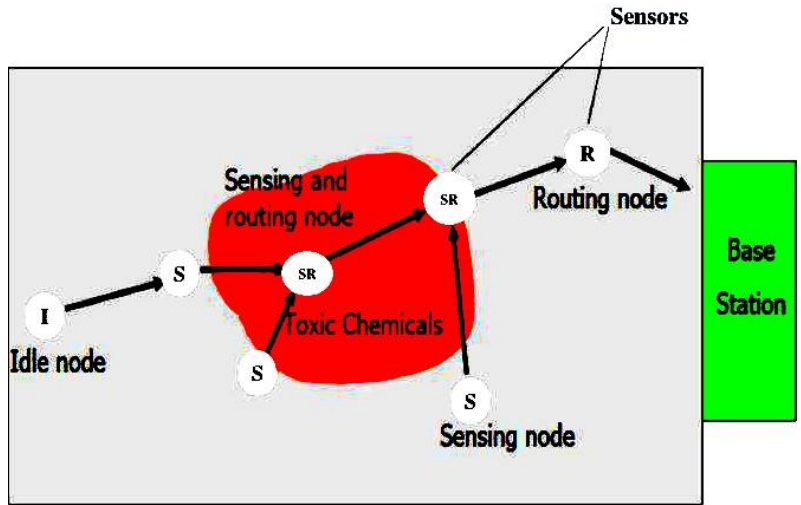
Roles of Sensor nodes and utilities

- A sensor may take on a particular role depending on the application task requirement and resource availability such as node power levels.

Example:

- Nodes, denoted by SR, may participate in both sensing and routing.
- Nodes, denoted by S, may perform sensing only and transmit their data to other nodes.
- Nodes, denoted by R, may decide to act only as routing nodes, especially if their energy reserved is limited. Nodes, denoted by I, may be in idle or sleep mode, to preserve energy.

Roles of Sensor nodes



UNIT-V

1. Sensor Network Platforms and Tools

Commercially available sensor nodes:

1. Specialized sensing platform such as Spec node designed at University of California-Berkeley.
 2. Generic Sensor platform – BerkeleyMote.
 3. High bandwidth sensing platform such asMote.
 4. Gateway platform such as Stargate (Sinknode).
- Areal-worldsensornetworkapplicationmostlikelyhas toincorporateallthese elements, subject to energy, bandwidth, computation, storage, and real-time constraints
 - Therearetwotypesofprogrammingforsensornetworks,thosecarriedoutbyend users and those performed by applicationdevelopers.

End users

- An end user may view a sensor network as a pool of data and *interact with the network via queries.*
- JustaswithquerylanguagesfordatabasesystemslikeSQL
- goodsensornetworkprogramminglanguageshouldbeexpressiveenoughto encode application logic at a high level of abstraction
- Atthesame timebeststructured enoughtoallowefficientexecutiononthe distributedplatform.

Application developer

- Anapplicationdevelopermustprovideendusersofasensornetwork with the capabilities of data acquisition, processing, andstorage.
- Unlikegeneraldistributedordatabase
- Systems, collaborative signalandinformation processing (CSIP) softwarecomprisesreactive,concurrent,distributedprogramsrunningon

ad hoc, resource-constrained, unreliable computation and communication platforms.

2. Sensor Node Hardware – Berkeley Motes

- Sensor node hardware can be grouped into three categories.
 - ❖ Augmented general-purpose computers
 - ❖ Dedicated embedded sensor nodes
 - ❖ System-on-chip
- Berkeley motes due to their small form factor, open source software development, and commercial availability, have gained wide popularity in the sensor network research community.

❖ Augmented general-purpose computers

- + Off-the-shelf operating systems such as WinCE, Linux and
 - Off-the-shelf operating systems such as WinCE, Linux and
 - With standard wireless communication protocols such as 802.11 or Bluetooth.
 - Relatively higher processing capability
 - More power hungry
 - Fully supported
 - Popular programming languages
 - Ex: PDAs

❖ Dedicated embedded sensor nodes

- In order to keep the program footprint small to accommodate their small memory size, programmers of these platforms are given full access to hardware but barely any operating system support.
- Typically support at least one programming language, such as C.
- Ex: mica, TinyOS, nesC

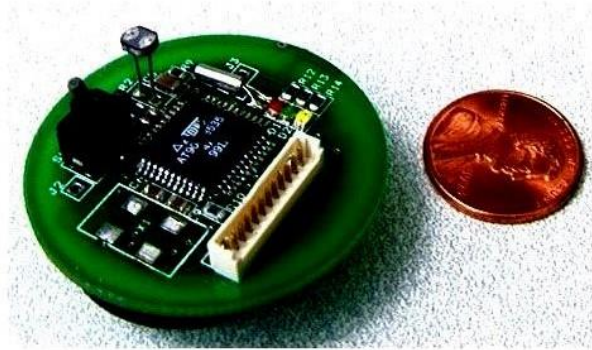
❖ System-on-chip (SOC)

- Build extremely low power and small footprint sensor nodes that still provide certain sensing, computation, and communication capabilities.

- Currently in the research pipeline with no predefined instruction set, there is no software platform support available.

Berkeley Motes

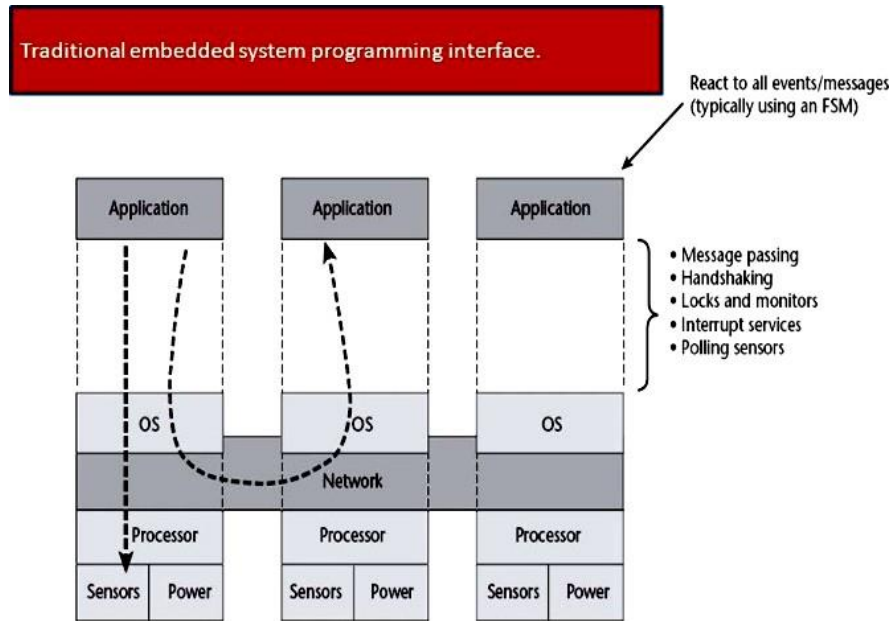
Berkeley Motes



- ✚ Berkeley Mote with processing board, sensing board and AA battery pack.
- ✚ The mote was essentially a small form factor computer with self-contained processing, sensing and power resources.
- ✚ TinyOS provides a set of software components that allows applications to interact with the processor, network transceiver and the sensors.

3. Programming Challenges

- Event-driven execution allows the system to fall into low-power sleep mode when no interesting events need to be processed.
- At the extreme, embedded operating systems tend to expose more hardware controls to the programmers, who now have to directly face device drivers and scheduling algorithms, and optimize code at the assembly level.



- Traditional programming technologies rely on operating systems to provide abstraction for processing, I/O, networking, and user interaction hardware.
- When applying such a model to programming networked embedded systems, such as sensor networks, the application programmers need to explicitly deal with message passing, event synchronization, interrupt handling, and sensor reading.

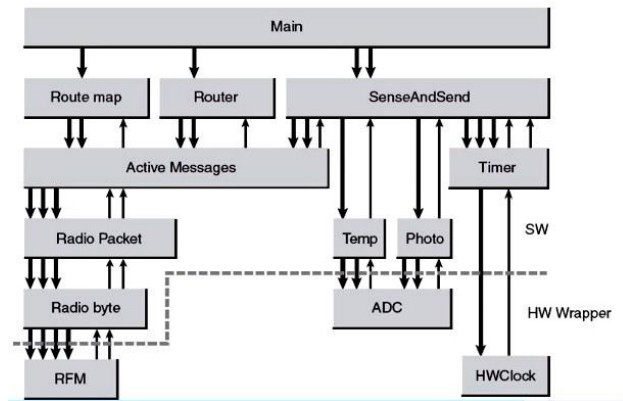
4. Node level software platforms

- Node-centric design methodologies: Programmer think in terms of how a node should behave in the environment.
- A node-level platform can be a node-centric operating system, which provides hardware and networking abstractions of a sensor node to programmers.
- A typical operating system abstracts the hardware platform by providing a set of services for applications, including file management.
- Memory allocation, task scheduling, peripheral device drivers, and networking.

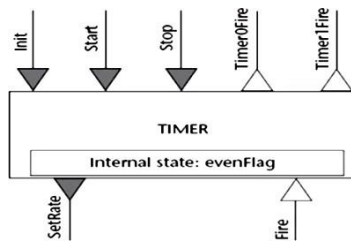
Operating System: TinyOS

- Let us consider a TinyOS application example Field Monitor
- Where all nodes in a sensor field periodically send their temperature and photo sensor readings to a base station via an ad hoc routing Mechanism

The FieldMonitor application for sensing and sending measurements.

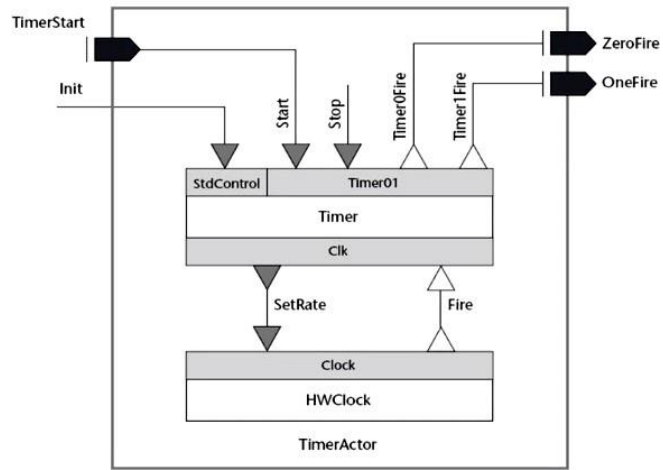


The Timer component and its interfaces



- InnesC,codecanbeclassifiedintotwotypes:
- *Asynchronouscode(AC):Codethatisreachablefromatleastoneinterrupt handler.*
- *Synchronous code (SC): Code that is only reachable fromtasks.*

TinyGALS



Node-level Simulators

- Node-level design methodologies are usually associated with simulators that simulate the behavior of a sensor network on a per-node basis.
- Using simulation, designers can quickly study the performance in terms of timing, power, bandwidth, and scalability.

5. State-centric programming.

- ❖ Applications more than simple distributed programs
 - Applications depend on state of physical environment
- ❖ Collaboration Groups
 - Set of entities that contribute to state updates
 - Abstracts network topology and communication protocols
- ❖ Multi-target tracking problem
 - Global state decoupled into separate pieces
 - ↓ Each piece managed by different principle
 - ↓ State updated by looking at inputs from other principles
 - ↓ Collaboration groups define communication and roles of each principle

Definition:

X: State of a system U:

Inputs

Y: Outputs

K: Update index

F: State update function

G: Output observation function